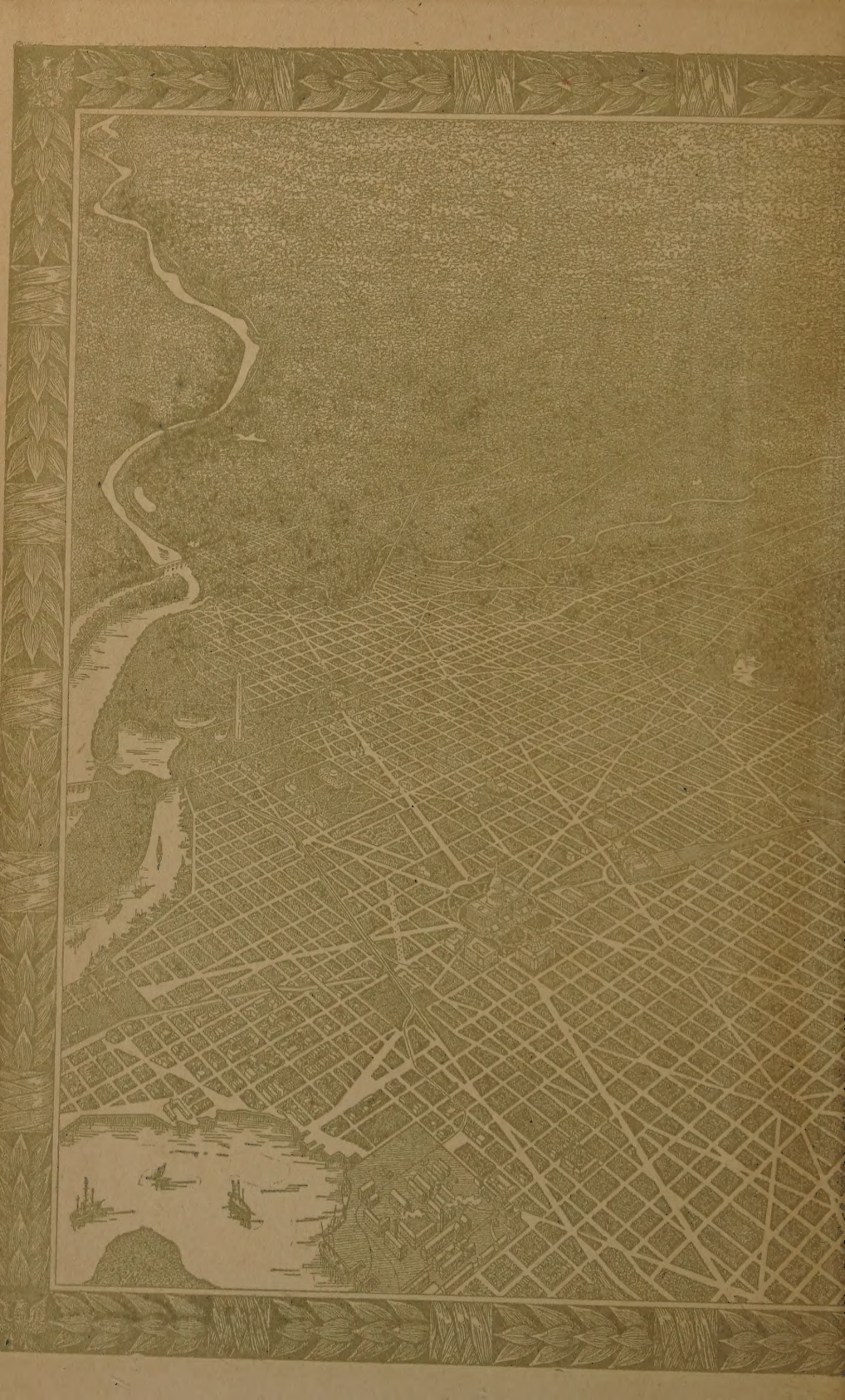

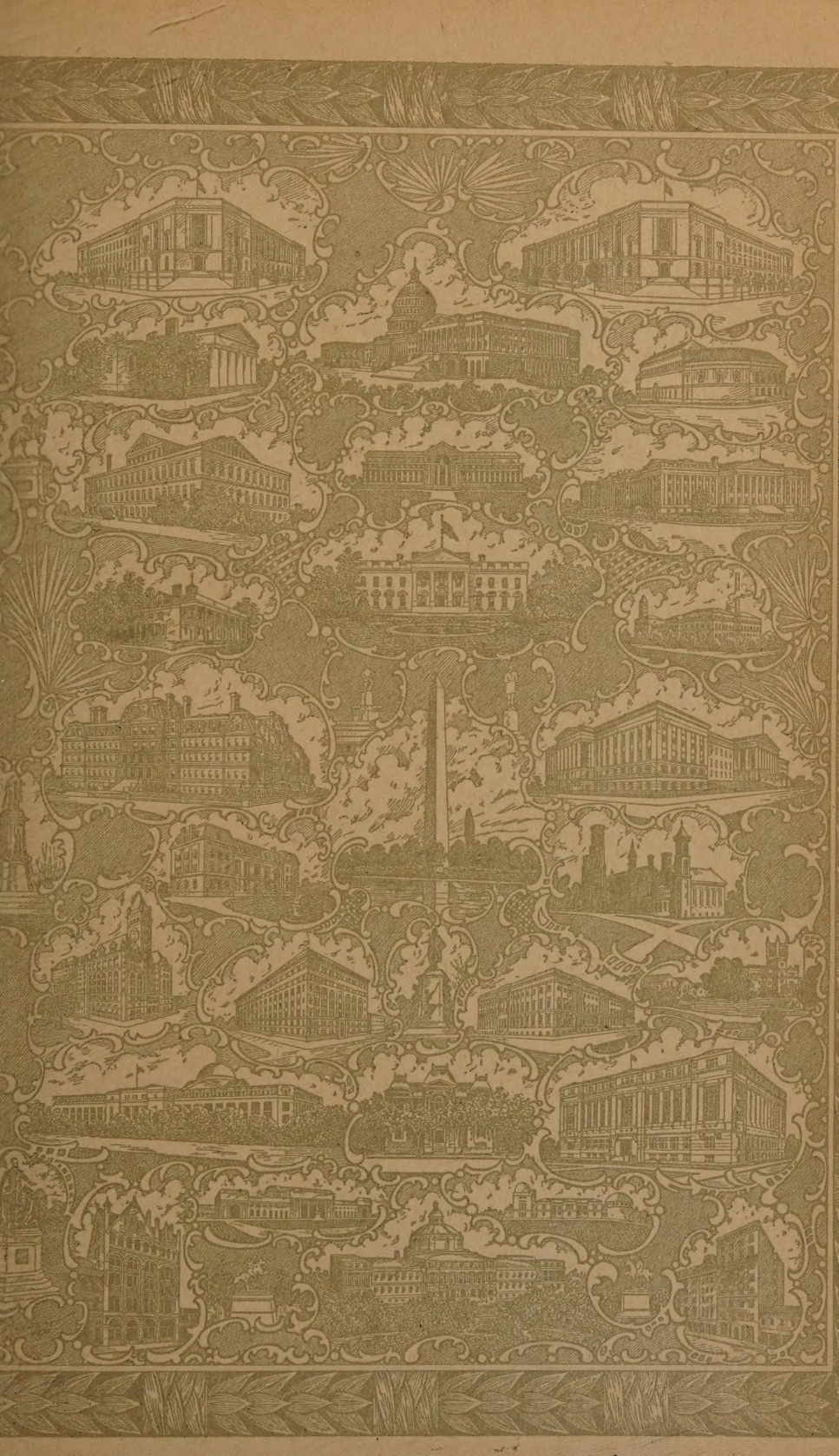

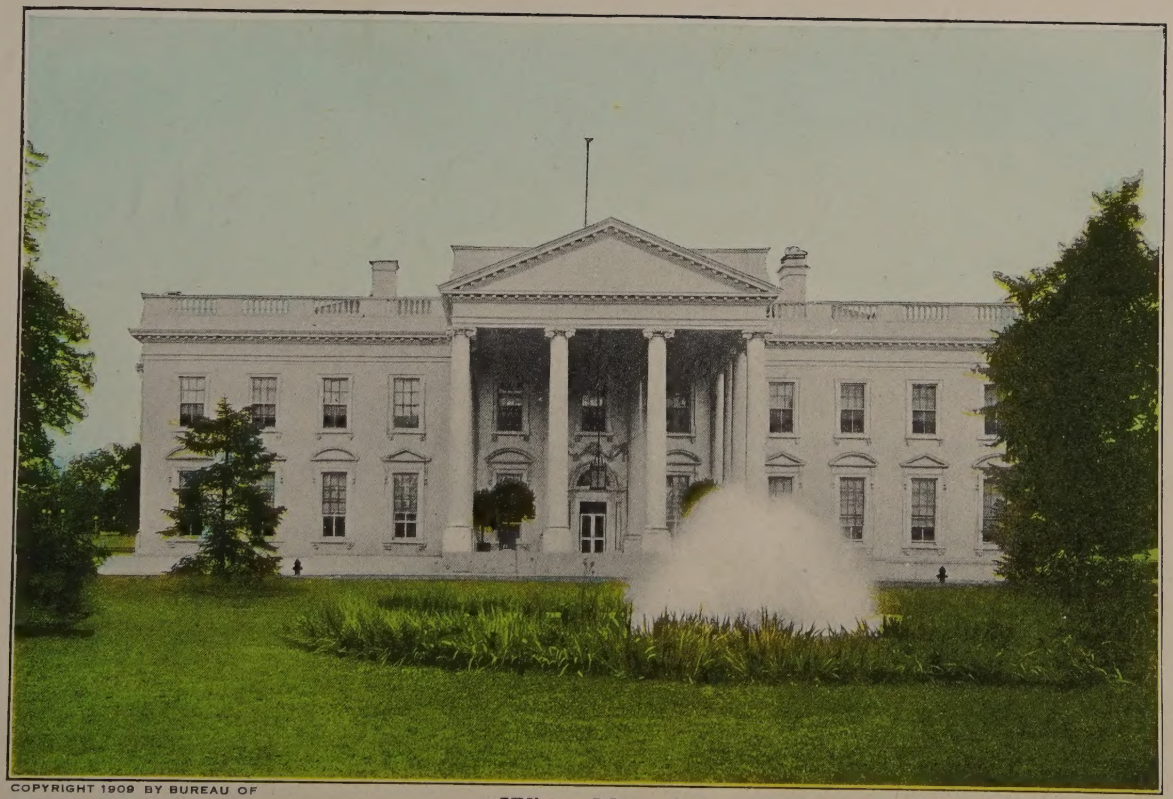

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OF THE

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Labor Agitator.—Any person who agitates for the improvement of the conditions of the laboring class. Usually used contemptuously to describe the organizers of the American Federation of Labor or of other trade unions (q. v.), the implication of

the term in this sense being that such person is endeavoring to make workingmen discontented without improving their condition. (See Agitator.)

Labor, American Federation of.—This body arose largely through the failure of the Knights of Labor (q. v.), and soon took the latter's place as the most powerful organization of workers in the United States. The Knights of Labor had failed largely because of its entrance into politics and of the secrecy and other characteristics incident upon its status as a fraternal body. The American Federation of Labor therefore at the outset determined to function as an economic force entirely, although of late years it has pursued a policy of "rewarding its friends and punishing its enemies" at elections. Except for the Socialist Party and the American Labor Party (organized in 1919-1920 by non-Socialist workers, many of them A. F. of L. members who believed in the political organization of Labor), the United States has been practically the only great Western Power without a political labor party of great strength.

The preliminary organization meeting of the American Federation of Labor was held in 1881 at Terre Haute, Indiana; and the first convention, at which the name of "Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions of the United States and Canada" was adopted, was held in Pittsburgh, Pa., in November of the same year. The organizers were to a great extent members of the Knights of Industry and the American Labor Union, the latter composed chiefly of seceding members of the Knights of Labor. The present name was not adopted until December 8, 1886, when the organization amalgamated with an independent trade union congress. From 1886 to 1921, with the exception of 1894, the president was Samuel Gompers.

The membership of the American Federation of Labor rose from some 45,000 in 1881 to more than 250,000 in 1892, whence it remained largely stationary until 1899, when it rose to 325,000. It went over 1,000,000 in 1902, reaching 1,676,200 in 1904. It then declined slightly for a number of years until 1911, when it rose to 1,761,835. It went over 2,000,000 in 1914, and its recent growth has been as follows:

1915 1,946,347	1918 2,726,478
1916 2,072,702	1919 3,260,068
1917 2,371,434	1920 4,078,470

The last fiscal year showed receipts of $654,688 to the Federation, with expenditures of $587,517.

The organization is a federation in fact as well as in name, most of its members being affiliated with it through their national and international unions. There are 111 of the latter, with 46 state federations, 816 central city bodies, 884 local trade and federal labor unions, 33,852 local unions, five departments and 573 local department councils. All elected officers must be members of unions connected with the Federation. Most of the unions in the A. F. of L. are organized according to craft, that is, the various subdivisions of a general industry such as bricklayers, carpenters, hodcarriers, painters, plasterers, roofers, of the general building industry; but there are a few industrial unions, comprising all the membership connected with an industry, irrespective of individual trade, such as the Brewery Workers and the United Mine Workers.

There are many Socialists within the unions comprising the A. F. of L., but the Socialists are a distinct minority. The most important labor bodies outside the American Federation of Labor are the four railway brotherhoods, which by 1920 were considering joining it; the Amalgamated Clothing Workers; the Amalgamated Textile Workers.

Among the measures for which the Federation has fought are the eight-hour day, one and one-half days' holiday each week, restriction of immigration, the abolition of child labor, opposition to compulsory labor arbitration, opposition to the use of injunctions in labor disputes, the abolition of tenement and sweatshop labor, the closed shop, employers' liability and workmen's compensation. The Federation is opposed to minimum wage legislation and prohibition.

An unofficial report of the 1920 convention gave the following figures for the twelve unions of largest membership comprised with the A. F. of L.:

	Union	*Membership*
1.	United Mine Workers	393,600
2.	Brotherh'd Carpenters & Joiners	331,500
3.	International Ass'n Machinists	330,800
4.	Brotherhood Clerks & Freight Haulers	186,000
5.	Brotherh'd Carmen (Shopmen)	182,100
6.	Maintenance of Way (R. R.) Employees	*154,060
7.	Brotherhood Electrical Workers	139,200
8.	Brotherhood Teamsters & Chauffeurs	110,800
9.	International Ladies' Garment Workers	105,400
10.	United Textile Workers	104,900
11.	Broth'd Painters & Decorators	103,100
12.	Brotherhood Boilermakers & Shipbuilders	103,000

*Under suspension.

(See also Trade Unions and Labor Arbitration.)

Labor, American Federation of, address of President Wilson before, 8386.

Labor Arbitration.—Although definite steps for the arbitration of disputes between Labor and Capital have not been taken on a large and effective scale until the last several decades, records exist of much industrial arbitration before the twentieth century. The medieval guilds were guided to an extent by industrial arbitration, although the arbitration was usually determined by the legal authorities. The English Statutes of Laborers in 1351 attempted to provide for compulsory labor, but unsuccessfully. In France, councils of experts (*conseils des prud'hommes*) connected with the guilds in the silk industry, functioned successfully from medieval times until the French Revolution and were officially resurrected in 1806, although Labor was not given representation on them until 1809 and was not given equal representation until 1848. By the sixteenth century, compulsory arbitration of disputes between individual masters and their workmen by local magistrates had become common in England.

In the nineteenth century, England led the way in provisions for labor legislation. Laws of 1800, 1803, 1804, and 1813 provided for compulsory arbitration in the cotton trade. The act of 1824 extended arbitration to all trades, but insured the principle of freedom of contract by making

mutual consent of workmen and employers necessary before local magistrates could enforce arbitration by appointing one arbitrator from each side in the dispute. In 1837, the local magistrate was empowered to enforce compulsory arbitration, at the request of either side, by means of an equal number of arbitrators from each side. After the middle of the century, joint boards of conciliation and arbitration in individual industries became common.

In 1889, the City of London provided for a permanent board of conciliation and arbitration for all trade disputes within the city. In 1896, the British Government was authorized to take official steps toward aiding conciliation and arbitration in industrial disputes, and since that time Governmental and private arbitration in industrial disputes has increased in both scope and number, as Labor has become more powerful and as strikes have become more numerous. The passage of a number of social insurance laws, such as minimum wage and health insurance laws, has affected the British situation of recent years, as has the fact that British Labor, although far better organized industrially than American Labor, has organized a political party of its own, and thus is more prone than American Labor to resort to political rather than to industrial or direct action to gain the fundamental changes it desires.

In 1912, 74½% of the industrial disputes in England were settled in favor of the workers, 14½% in favor of the employers, with 11% compromised. In that year, 1,223,000 workers were directly affected by industrial disputes, of which more than 1,000,000 were affected by disputes concerning wages and 121,000 were affected by disputes concerning unionism. The total number of working days represented by the duration of the disputes was more than 38,000,000.

In France, the councils of experts were given official sanction in 1806, and by the end of the century there were some 125 such in operation. The existence of trades unions was not legalized until 1884. In 1892, a conciliation and arbitration law was passed by the Government which facilitated private conciliation and Governmental arbitration by local magistrates; but, as in the case of England by this time, the arbitration was voluntary, not compulsory. In the next ten years, there were almost 6,000 strikes and lockouts, in 1,400 of which conciliation and arbitration were attempted. About 600 of these 1,400 attempts were successful. In the majority of cases, the attempts at settlement were initiated by the workers, and in only 42 cases by the employers. In 1912, there were 1,116 strikes in France, with 268,000 strikers, affecting 6,656 establishments and totaling 2,318,000 workdays lost. About 17% of the strikes were wholly successful and 34% were compromised, with 49% lost. The situation in France has been affected not only by the growth of Socialism, but also by the growth of syndicalism, which aims at complete industrial unionism (One Big Union) and which on several occasions has called general strikes for political purposes.

Germany was more backward in industrial development than the other great Powers of Europe, and until 1890 had only private facilities for the settlement of industrial disputes. In 1890 and again in 1901 laws were passed which gave Governmental assistance to industrial conciliation and arbitration. The system was that of providing industrial courts for voluntary arbitration.

Compulsory Arbitration in New Zealand and Australia—As outlined above, arbitration of recent date in Europe has been chiefly voluntary, but in Australasia there are forms of compulsory arbitration. In 1894, and by amendments of later years, New Zealand provided for *boards of conciliation,* consisting of an equal number of representatives from the parties to industrial disputes, the former selecting an impartial chairman. The representatives were elected for periods of three years. When conciliation fails, the dispute passes to a *court of arbitration,* appointed by the Government, one member from a list prepared by employers, one from a list prepared by employees, and one of the judges of the Supreme Court. Strikes and lockouts are forbidden while the case was pending. The awards, which are enforced by the Government, often cover large sections of the industry involved, and often large stretches of territory. This arrangement was made possible by what practically amounted to Government encouragement of trades unions, since no worker was entitled to recognition by the Government in disputes unless he were a member of his union.

As a matter of fact, the law is only partially compulsory, strikes and lockouts being forbidden only when the dispute has been referred to conciliation or arbitration, or where there is not an industrial agreement. Moreover, the law does not apply to unregistered unions, which are without the scope of the law. Even in cases not falling under the above provision, notice must be given to the Minister of Labor, who must refer the matter to an industrial commission or commissioner. If no settlement is affected within fourteen days from the delivery of the notice to the Minister, the Labor Department must conduct a secret ballot, and then seven days must elapse before cessation of work. In practice, however, the law almost eliminated strikes, as from 1895 to 1915 there were but 22 active and 31 sympathetic strikes within the law and only 95 strikes of unregistered unions. The awards are enforced by the infliction of light fines upon violators, which have proved to be effective. Moreover, at any time during the progress of the strike, 5% of the workers concerned may compel a secret ballot on any question involved in the strike. The conciliation councils also proved most successful—from 1909 to 1915, they settled without the necessity of reference to the court of arbitration about 600 or 700 or so cases submitted to them. The Government enforces the private agreements made in disputes between employees and employers.

In Australia, there is compulsory arbitration in all the states except Victoria and Tasmania, which regulate industrial disputes by wage boards, but do not prohibit strikes, except on railways. The Government of Australia also enforces compulsory arbitration in disputes extending beyond any one state. As in New Zealand, the emphasis is on conciliation, rather than on arbitration. The law in New South Wales is patterned after the New Zealand law, but has been less successful, particularly in mining disputes. The voluntary agreements in all the Australian states have the force of a legal award, and are registered by the Government. In Australia, the judge sits alone in the arbitration court, and since the

awards must go into the details of industry, in effect the Government actively intervenes in the management of private business, laying down conditions of employment which must be obeyed by Capital no less than by Labor. Sometimes the award covers the entire industry involved whether all of it has been affected by the dispute or not. It is reported that until recently this system almost abolished strikes; but of late years it has seemed to be more and more ineffective. Most of the Australian states have declared strikes and lockouts illegal under practically all conditions.

Compulsory arbitration has not been so successful in Australia and New Zealand of recent years as previously.

In the United States—So far as is known the first strike in this country was in New York among the journeymen bakers in 1741. The journeymen shoemakers of Philadelphia struck in 1796, 1798, 1799 and 1805. In New York sailors organized a strike in 1802. From 1830 to 1840 occurred a number of strikes for the ten-hour day, and by that time strikes had become common phenomena.

The first instance of arbitration in the United States occurred early in the nineteenth century, among the copper miners of Connecticut. In 1865 the first trade agreement resulted—in the iron industry; and was followed by another in 1867. In 1870, at Lynn, Mass., in the centre of the shoe manufacturing district, a board of industrial arbitration was established.

The board consisted of five representatives of the Knights of St. Crispin, the union powerful in that industry, and five representatives of the manufacturers. It represented chiefly an agreement concerning wages; but the agreement was abrogated in 1872, after which time the manufacturers were able to maintain the upper hand.

In 1877, the occurrence of the great railroad strikes awoke the country for the first time to the serious problem presented by the antagonism between capital and labor and to the fact that the strength of labor organizations could no longer be disregarded.

The first state law providing for industrial arbitration was passed in Maryland, the home of the great railroad strikes in the period around 1877, on April 1, 1878; but seems never to have been used. It provided for local arbitration only. New Jersey passed a more comprehensive law in 1880. By 1916, two-thirds of the states in the Union had passed laws providing for some form of industrial arbitration. Of the sixteen states which have no such laws, eight are in the South, where capital is still able to preserve much of a paternalistic attitude towards labor.

There are two chief forms of arbitration in the United States. One provides for a permanent state board of arbitration, always on hand to render its services. The other provides for voluntary arbitration by local boards when the need for it arises. Seventeen states have permanent boards, nine states have local boards, and nine states have both forms.

Owing to the opposition of organized labor to compulsory arbitration, in which respect it is often supported by employers, all this arbitration is voluntary—and there is no compulsion to accept the awards and decisions of the various arbitrating agencies.

About 70% of strikes are ordered by unions. Half of all strikes seem to be successful, 16% partly successful, and 34% unsuccessful. Strikes are much more successful when organized by unions than without union control and support. Thirty-two per cent of strikes are for higher wages, 19% for recognition of the union and 11% against reduction in wages.

A federal law of 1898, generally called the Erdman law, provides for the mediation and arbitration, by the labor bureau of the Department of Commerce and Labor, in cases of disputes between interstate common carriers and their employees. There is no power but public opinion to compel resort to arbitration, but this has been found effective in many cases; but when agreed to by both parties to a dispute the decision of the arbitration is final.

The Newlands Act (q. v.), passed in 1913, created the United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation. (See Mediation and Conciliation, Board of). It consists of a commissioner, assistant commissioner, and two other officials, all appointed by the President to offer arbitration in disputes between capital and labor. Some idea of its services may be gained from the fact that in three years (1913-1916) it applied mediation successfully in 45 of 56 controversies between railroad employers and employees, and arbitration successfully in the 11 other cases. The Board, however, may play the part merely of a voluntary mediator, organized labor resisting bitterly all attempts at compulsory arbitration, under the plea that such procedure deprives employees of their right to strike and in other ways obtain their ends. In September, 1916, when the Railroad Brotherhoods threatened to strike in order to obtain an eight-hour day, mediation failed; and a strike was averted only by act of Congress, called the Adamson Law (see Railroads, *Eight Hour Day*).

After the entrance of the United States into the World War, the various bodies concerned with the production problems of the conflict, such as the Council of National Defence (q. v.), had sub-divisions functioning to meet the problem of labor. Before the United States had been in the war a year, however, the Department of Labor had taken central supervision of the labor problem. During the first year of the American participation in the War, the Department of Labor announced that it had handled almost nine hundred labor controversies, affecting directly some 1,300,000 workers. The efforts of the Department failed in less than eighty cases, whereas of the cases adjusted some 85 per cent were settled by the efforts of the Department alone, the remainder being settled by state and local bodies with the assistance of the Department. The magnitude of the task soon outgrew the organization of the Department of Labor, with the result that there was organized the War Labor Board (q. v.).

The Lever Bill (see Food Control Law) passed during the World War was utilized by the Government in 1919 to prevent a strike in the bituminous coal industry. The Attorney General, declaring that the unions fell within the provisions of the law forbidding conspiracy to hinder production, filed an injunction compelling the leaders to call off the strike. The Lever Law was also used to prosecute striking railway workers in the following year.

Great interest has been aroused of recent years by the passage of a law in Kansas providing for compulsory arbitration of labor disputes within the state. By the provisions of the law, which was enacted in January, 1920, against the bitter opposition of organized labor and, to an extent, of employers, the Public Utilities Commission was reorganized and became known as the Industrial Court. It consisted of three judges appointed for three years, with annual salaries of $5,000 each. In addition to its old power of supervising public utilities and common carriers, it was given jurisdiction over the operation of industries affecting the public interest. It was given the power to suspend old standards of wages and prices and to fix new standards of working conditions, including both wages and prices. On order of the court, the state may even take over the industry concerned. It is the duty of the Industrial Court to investigate all industrial disputes, and to enforce its findings. Strikes and lockouts for the purpose of violating the law are punishable; but on the other hand the right of collective bargaining is recognized, employers are forbidden to discharge employees for appearing before the Industrial Court, and a contract found by the Court to be unfair may be changed by the Court even during the period of its existence. The right to picket is denied.

With this exception, labor arbitration in the United States has been chiefly voluntary, and has resulted from private negotiations between labor unions and employers affected. There is a notable record of such private arbitration. Probably the most significant record of industrial peace by arbitration in the United States has occurred in the garment industry, particularly through the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America. The ground was broken by an agreement for arbitration, known as the protocol, in New York City after a disastrous strike in 1910, which provided permanent methods for the arbitrament of disputes. Not only was the union recognized and the standards of wages and hours fixed, but also there were provisions for joint boards of sanitary control, a grievance committee and a permanent arbitration board. A similar agreement in the Hart, Schaffner and Marx shops in Chicago paved the way for the adoption of arbitration in other individual shops, so that by 1920 most of the clothing industry in the United States was operating under complicated but effective measures for the prevention of strikes by joint conciliation and arbitration. It is to be noted that the Amalgamated Clothing Workers is a union outside of the American Federation of Labor, is officially Socialistic and is composed to a very large extent of foreign-born.

The Second Industrial Congress convened by President Wilson in the winter of 1919-1920 to consider means of minimizing industrial unrest proposed a national industrial tribunal and twelve regional boards of inquiry and adjustment for the lessening of labor disputes in the United States. The plan would have compliance with the terms of the arbitration largely voluntary, thus making strikes more difficult, rather than forbidding them, counting on public opinion to make the arbitration binding in practice.

After the close of the World War, Governmental steps for labor arbitration became more common throughout Europe. With widespread distress due to under-production, arbitration became more essential than ever to prevent strikes. Labor, both politically and industrially had achieved a more powerful place than ever before in the Governments of practically all European countries, and thus Governmental arbitration was made more acceptable to the workers.

In England for instance, the war-time Industrial Court for the whole country, with all the authority of a Government body, was made permanent after the War.

General Remarks.—There are certain factors reacting upon the labor arbitration situation in the United States which make that situation different from the situation in other countries. In the first place, the United States is the only great Western Power in which organized Labor has not formed a political labor party to advance its ends, instead of trusting only to its economic power. Thus in the United States Labor has no official connection with the Government, whereas Governments in Australia, for instance, have been practically Labor Governments. Therefore, Labor in the United States tends to be far more suspicious of and opposed to Governmental arbitration than Labor in Australia.

In the second place, the industrial pretensions of Labor are more fully recognized in Australia and New Zealand, for instance, than in the United States. As an example, most great industrial countries have conceded the principle of the closed shop in industry to a greater extent than has the United States. Similarly, Australia has protected the worker by laws against low wages, child labor, unemployment, old age, ill health, unsanitary and dangerous conditions of employment, etc., questions which in the United States are among the prime causes of strikes. Thus the countries generally cited as those most prominent in enforcing compulsory arbitration of strikes are those which by legislation have removed most of the causes of strikes.

In the third place, Labor in other countries employs not only the economic weapon, but also the political weapon. In most of the countries on the Continent of Europe, Socialism is either in control, or has a position of great power; and England, where Socialism is weak, has a very powerful British Labor Party which is Socialistic in almost everything but name. In Australia and New Zealand, Labor can also achieve many of its desires by the political strength of its political party. Therefore, in the United States Labor is more prone to gain its ends by resorting to its industrial strength than in most of the other great industrial nations, although in Italy and France the strength of the syndicalism has tended to foment strikes.

Finally, the rights of private enterprise are more zealously guarded in the United States than in countries like Australia and New Zealand. We have seen that compulsory arbitration in those countries has been made possible only by giving the Government control over private business to an extent which American employers at the present time would not be likely to tolerate.

On the whole, therefore, it appears that the opposition of organized Labor in the United States to compulsory arbitration of industrial disputes and even to Governmentally-enforced voluntary arbitration will continue for some time; and that whatever

Labor arbitration will continue here will be, as previously, chiefly in the forms of private voluntary agreements between Capital and Labor, industry by industry or plant by plant.

(See also Strikes; Trades Unions; Mediation and Conciliation; Labor; Business; Socialism.)

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Labor Day.—The first Monday in September has been made a holiday in practically all states (see Holiday) in honor of Labor. It was first thus observed by Colorado in 1887. Meetings for the general discussion of labor questions are usually held. There are usually parades, picnics, and dances. In Europe May 1 is celebrated as a labor festival and there are demonstrations by workingmen.

Labor Day, significance of, discussed, 8576, 8783.

Labor, Department of.—In response to petitions from labor organizations and trade unions for a department of the government to look after their interests the Bureau of Labor was established in the Interior Department by act of Congress of June 27, 1884. After an existence of four years the bureau was raised to the dignity of a department June 13, 1888, and Carroll D. Wright was placed at its head as Commissioner. He was later succeeded by Charles P. Neill. When Congress established the Department of Commerce and Labor Feb. 14, 1903, the activities in behalf of labor were placed under the jurisdiction of the new secretary. (See Commerce, Department of.)

The Sixty-second Congress, on the last day of its third session, March 4, 1913, separated the Department of Commerce and Labor into the Department of Commerce and the Department of Labor.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Children's Bureau and the Bureaus of Immigration and Naturalization were placed under the new Secretary, with directions to investigate and report to Congress a plan for the co-ordination of the powers of the present bureaus, commissions and departments so far as they relate to labor and its conditions, in order to harmonize and unify them. The new Secretary was charged with the duty of fostering, promoting, and developing the welfare of the wage-earners of the United States, improving their working conditions, and advancing their opportunities for profitable employment. He has power under the law to act as mediator and to appoint commissioners of conciliation in labor disputes whenever in his judgment the interests of industrial peace may require it to be done.

William Bauchop Wilson, member of Congress from Pennsylvania, who had been chairman of the House Committee on Labor, was made the first Secretary.

For more detailed information of the scope of the activities of the Labor Department, consult the Index references to the President's Messages and Encyclopedic articles under the following headings:

Children's Bureau.
Commissioner of Immigration.
Commissioner of Naturalization.
Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

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Labor, Knights of. (See Knights of Labor.)

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Labor Reform Party.—This party was organized in 1872, and in Convention at Columbus, Ohio, placed in nomination David Davis for President, and Joel Parker for Vice President, adopting a platform calling for just distribution of the fruits of labor.

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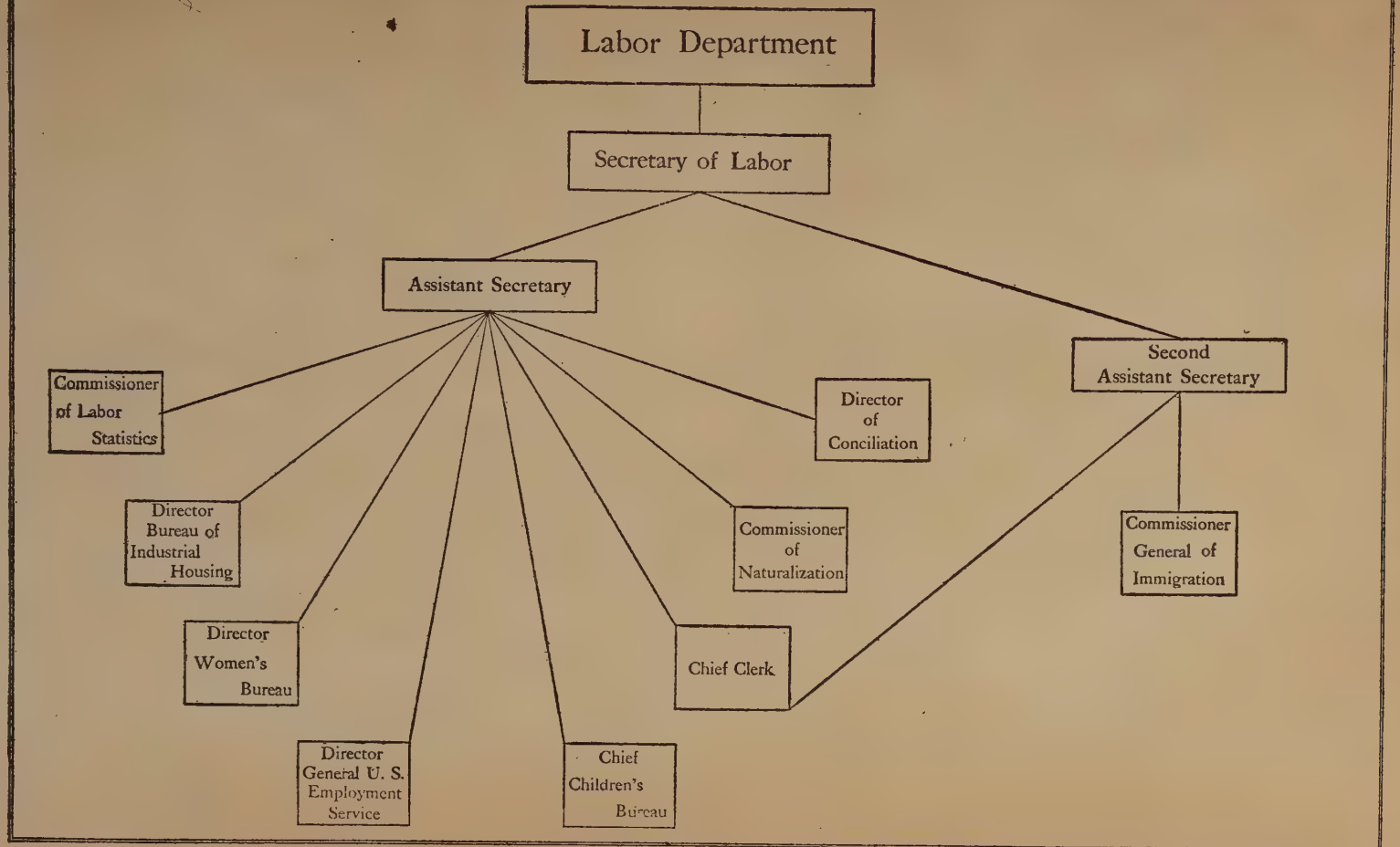
(See also Commerce and Labor.)

Labor Statistics. (See Commissioner of Labor Statistics.)

Labor Statistics, Bureaus of.—Many states and the United States have bureaus of labor statistics. The first office of the kind was established in Massachusetts by an act of June 23, 1869. Others were established as follows: In Pennsylvania in 1872; Connecticut in 1873 (abolished in 1875 and reestablished in 1885); Ohio in


Labor Department
Secretary of Labor
Assistant Secretary
Second Assistant Secretary
Commissioner of Labor Statistics
Director of Conciliation
Director Bureau of Industrial Housing
Commissioner of Naturalization
Commissioner General of Immigration
Director Women's Bureau
Chief Clerk
Director General U. S. Employment Service
Chief Children's Bureau

1877; New Jersey in 1878; Indiana, Missouri and Illinois in 1879; California, Wisconsin, New York, and Michigan in 1883; Maryland and Iowa in 1884. Their example has been followed by all the other states and the territories.

Labor Statistics, Bureau of, act to establish, omissions in, referred to, 4807.

Labrador. (See Newfoundland.)

Lading, Bills of, enactment preventing issue of fraudulent, recommended, 7553.

Lady Franklin Bay Expedition, expedition fitted out for relief of, 4835.
Board to consider expedition to be sent, 4813.
Offer of rewards for rescuers of, discussed, 4795.
Recommended, 4693, 4787.
Vessel presented by Great Britain to United States to aid in, 4791.
Return of, to Great Britain, 4917.
Recommended, 4855.

Lafayette, Ind., act for erection of public buildings at, vetoed, 5154.

Lafitte & Co., memorial from trustees of, presented, 1648.

La Follette Seamen's Act. (See Seamen's Act.)

Laissez-faire.—Meaning "leave alone." The theory that the Government shall not interfere with private industry.

The laissez-faire creed became influential in the eighteenth century, and was made almost supreme in economic thought by Adam Smith, who founded modern scientific political economy by the publication of his "Wealth of Nations," in 1776. His followers and elaborators followed this doctrine and it guided most economic reasoning until the middle of the nineteenth century, when it began to decline. The laissez-faire belief was that individual self-interest coincided with public interest in industry, since by the influence of competition the public would patronize those goods produced under the best conditions rather than those produced under more anti-social conditions. Thus the laissez-faire creed was largely responsible for the delay in enacting laws to protect women and children in industry, to provide for Governmental sanitary inspection, to guard the public against adulterated products, and in other ways to protect both workers and public to an extent now seen to be necessary for the public welfare.

Lake Borgne (La.), Battle of.—The British army, repulsed at Baltimore, retired to the island of Jamaica. Being there reinforced by a sufficient number to make a total of above 7,000 men, it sailed from Jamaica Nov. 26, 1814, in Admiral Cochrane's ships, with the intention of capturing New Orleans, and thus securing possession of the Mississippi River and the Territory of Louisiana. Early in December Daniel T. Patterson, commanding the naval station at New Orleans, sent Lieut. Thomas A. C. Jones with seven small vessels, mounting 23 guns and carrying 182 men, to intercept the British fleet. The British, December 14, 1814, manned sixty barges with 1,200 volunteers from the fleet, under Capt. Lockyer, and sent them out to destroy the American gunboats. The battle took place on Lake Borgne, and lasted almost an hour. Several of the British barges were shattered and sunk and about 300 men killed and wounded. The Americans lost only 6 men killed and 35 wounded. The American gunboats were captured, which gave the British control of Lake Borgne.

Lake Champlain, Battle of.—After arriving at the head of Lake Champlain, Sept. 6, 1814, Governor-General Prevost awaited the co-operation of the British fleet on the lake. Sept. 11 Capt. Downie's squadron rounded Cumberland Head. It consisted of the frigate *Confidence*, brig *Linnet*, sloops *Chub* and *Finch*, and twelve gunboats—in all, sixteen vessels, of about 2,402 tons, with 937 men and a total of ninety-two guns, throwing a broadside of 1,192 pounds. In Cumberland or Plattsburg Bay, awaiting the attack, lay the American squadron, under Capt. Thomas Macdonough, then only 28 years of age. It consisted of the ship *Saratoga*, brig *Eagle*, schooner *Ticonderoga*, sloop *Preble*, and ten gunboats—in all, fourteen vessels, of 2,244 tons and 882 men, with eighty-six guns, throwing a broadside of 1,194 pounds. Kneeling beside his heaviest gun, surrounded by his men, the young captain invoked divine protection and guidance. The first shot from the *Saratoga* was aimed by Macdonough and went entirely through the flagship of the British squadron, demolishing her wheel. The battle raged two hours and twenty minutes, when every British vessel struck her colors. Both squadrons were badly crippled. The British loss was more than 200, including Captain Downie. The American loss was 110, of whom 52 were killed. (See illustration opposite page 651.)

Lake Champlain:
Act to authorize construction of bridge across portion of, vetoed, 5060.
Insurgents on, proclamation against authorizing militia officers to dispel by force, 438.
Victory of American squadron on, 534.

Lake Erie, Battle of.—In 1813 the Americans, under great difficulties, constructed a fleet of war vessels at Presque Isle, now Erie, Pa., for service in the lakes. Aug. 12, 1813, the American squadron, consisting of the *Lawrence*, *Niagara*, *Caledonia*, *Ariel*, *Somers*, *Tigress*, *Scorpion*, *Porcupine*, *Ohio*, and *Trippe*, manned by less than 400 officers and men, under Capt. Oliver H. Perry, set forth in search of Barclay's British squadron of six vessels, manned by more than 500 men. Sept. 10 Perry's lookout sighted the enemy. At 10 o'clock in the morning the signal for action was run up to the masthead of the *Lawrence*. It bore the words of the dying Capt. Lawrence, of the *Chesapeake*: "Don't give up the ship." During the action the *Lawrence* was disabled and Perry transferred his flag to the *Niagara*. At 3 o'clock in the afternoon the flag of the British flagship was struck. The firing ceased. It was the first time an American fleet had met a British fleet in regular line of battle. The engagement was fairly fought, with the Americans at a disadvantage, and the British fleet surrendered. Perry sent word to Gen. Harrison: "We have met the enemy and they are ours." The British loss in the action was 135, 41 of whom were killed. The Americans lost 123, 27 of whom were killed. (See illustration opposite page 561.)

Lake Erie:
Rise of waters of, referred to, 1563.
Victory of American squadron on, 519.

Lake Erie Depth Regulations, report transmitted on, 7477.

Lake Memphremagog, practicability of connecting Connecticut River with, 873.

Lake Michigan, improvement of harbors and rivers on, 2764.

Lake of the Woods, boundary with Great Britain regarding, referred to, 4141, 4191, 4243, 4356.
Final report of commissioners referred to, 4382.

Lake Ontario, movements of American squadron on, 520.

Lake Superior:
Copper mines on shores of, 764.
Mineral lands on, sale of, recommended, 2304.

Lake-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterway Association.—A representative body of men organized for the development of a deep-water passage between the Great Lakes and the Mississippi and its branches met in Chicago in 1908. In 1909, as result of its activity, the River and Harbor Appropriation Act carried with it the creation of the National Waterways Commission (q. v.). (See Conservation Commission.)

Lake Traverse Reservation:
Agreement with Sioux for purchase of lands in, discussed, 5498.
Opened to settlement by proclamation, 5707.
Right of way for railroad through, 4788, 4954, 5178.

Lakes, Great. (See Great Lakes; the several Lakes.)

Lame-Duck.—A term applied in derision to any legislator who is ineffective; and generally to a politician who has "seen better days," such as one who has failed of re-election to office.

Land Grants.—By this name is known the grant of land to corporations to encourage and aid the construction of railroads in portions of the country in which it would otherwise be unprofitable. These grants are usually made directly to the companies. Before 1862 they were made to the states in order to enable them to extend aid to corporations within their borders. To every state, at its admission, Congress has granted five per cent of the public lands within its limits on condition of the exemption of the remainder from state taxation. In 1850 the first grant for railroad purposes was made. It consisted of about 2,500,000 acres granted to the state of Illinois, and it was used to aid the Illinois Central Railroad. In 1856 about 2,000,000 acres went to Florida, a similar amount was received by Arkansas, while various other states received large tracts all more or less used to encourage railroad building. But the grant of colossal areas began with the construction of the Pacific Railroads. The Union Pacific received 2,000,000; the Kansas Pacific 6,000,000; the Central Pacific (as successor of the Western Pacific) 1,100,000, and on its Oregon Branch 3,000,000; the Oregon and California 3,500,000; the Southern Pacific 6,000,000; and the Southern Pacific branch line 3,500,000 acres. Among others that received large grants were the Burlington and Missouri River and the Hannibal and St. Joseph. But the most stupendous grants were those of 47,000,000 acres to the Northern Pacific and of 42,000,000 acres to the Atlantic and Pacific. From these generous grants a revulsion has set in, and at every session of Congress bills are now introduced and every effort is made to forfeit such portions of the land as are not earned by a strict compliance with the terms of the grant, thus saving the land for settlement. Bills revoking the grant of lands not as yet earned have been passed; among the principal roads affected are the Atlantic and Pacific, Texas Pacific and Iron Mountain, and over 50,000,000 acres have thus been recovered. (See Subsidies.)

Land Laws. (See Lands, Public—Laws regarding.)

Land Office. (See General Land Office.)

Land Offices, Public, act regarding fees of registers and receivers at, vetoed, 6107.

Land Sales. (See Lands, Public.)

Land Titles. (See Lands, Indian; Lands, Public.)

Lands ceded to United States by North Carolina referred to, 64, 105, 167. (See also Franklin.)

Lands, Arid.—The great North American desert possesses all the climatic, geologic and physiographic features of the Desert of Sahara, in Africa, though only about one-third as large. It embraces the vast stretches of country lying between the Sierra Nevada Mountains of California and the eastern ranges of the Rocky Mountains in the United States, and between the Pacific Ocean and the Sierra Madre Mountains, in Mexico, an area of 1,050,000 sq. miles, of which about half lies in Mexico and the other half in the United States, including Nevada, Utah, eastern and southern California, Arizona, New Mexico, and all of Texas west of the Pecos. In general this desert is one of barren, stony mountain ranges, separated by equally barren stretches of desert plain, an aggregation of elongated arid plains and lower mountain ranges. The individual deserts have separate names and each differs from the others in some notable feature. Like the Sahara, the American desert is without water on its surface. Upon its area the average annual rainfall is less than 10 inches—less than falls in two months in the fertile states of the east.

With the aid of the railroad and the mechanical drill American genius and energy have conquered the arid plains of the west, and made them yield double the wealth per capita of any other portion of the United States. Like Sahara, the arid plains of America have an underground supply of water. By the use of the mechanical drill the deep wells on the mesa at El Paso supply 700,000 gallons of water per day, and the flowing well at Benson and those of the Salton Desert afford ample supplies to localities which were formerly hopelessly dry. The sterile soil of the desert is apparently more fertile, when artificially

watered, than many regions where rainfall is abundant. In the desert may be seen some of the most skillful and profitable agriculture in the world. Striking examples of this are seen in the wheat fields of Utah and Sonora, the great cotton plantations of Coahuila, Mexico, the alfalfa valleys of the Rio Grande and the orchards of California. The marvelous transformation wrought by irrigation is shown in Southern California, where communities of great wealth and culture have sprung up and where the ideal of perfect conditions of existence seem to have been attained. To the reclamation of these arid lands the attention of Congress has been directed in recent years, and Federal appropriations for irrigation are bringing them more and more each year into a state of productiveness. (See also Irrigation; Reclamation; Lands, Public; Lands, Desert.)

Lands, Bounty.—A term applied to the lands in the Northwest Territory belonging to the eastern commonwealths. Sept. 16, 1776, Congress offered bounty lands to volunteers in the Revolution, assessing the money to buy them against the several states. The term Bounty Lands was also applied to the Crown Lands before the Revolution. Lord Dunmore, Governor of Virginia, was empowered to offer bounties in land to all officers and soldiers who served in the French and Indian wars—5,000 acres to each field officer, 3,000 to captains, 200 to subalterns or staff officers, and 50 to private soldiers—up to 200,000 acres, in the King's domain. This was understood by the Americans to refer to the lands of the Northwest Territory, and many of them selected choice tracts west of the Alleghanies. Washington and his land agent, Crawford, had surveyed 70,000 acres and secured patents in his own and other officers' names for 63,000 acres of which his own share was 32,000.

Lands, Bounty:
- Appropriation for carrying out laws regarding, referred to, 2840.
- Frauds in, discussed and recommendations regarding, 2714.
- Grant of, to Mexican War soldiers recommended, 2365.
- Granted persons who have been engaged in military service, 555, 2664, 2823.
- Recommended, 3387.
- Referred to, 1844.

Lands, Coal. (See Coal Lands.)

Lands, Crown.—After the treaty of Paris in 1763, by which Great Britain acquired Canada and all the country west of the Mississippi River, a royal proclamation was issued setting aside all the lands west of the colonies and extending to the western limits of the British possessions as Crown lands. These lands were reserved for the use of the Indians and the colonists were forbidden to make settlements in or purchase of them without permission of the home Government. After the Revolution each state laid claim to a portion of the Crown lands.

Lands, Desert.—March 3, 1877, Congress passed the Desert Land law, which it supplemented in 1891, by further legislation, to encourage irrigation by private individuals and associations. It provides that any citizen or any person who declares his intention of becoming a citizen, by paying a registration fee of 25 cents, and declaring his intent to irrigate within three years, may occupy desert land to the extent of one section (640 acres) in any one of a number of specified western states and territories, and if he reclaims it within that time may receive a patent for it upon payment of $1 per acre. He must spend at least $3 per acre in irrigation or securing water rights, and must have secured the rights before making application. Associations may file joint declarations.

Under a recent amendment the settler may take up 320 acres of arid land upon payment of 25 cents per acre; after spending $1 per year in improvements for three years, and proving the ownership of sufficient water to irrigate the entire tract, he may secure full title by payment of $1 per acre to the government. Land so acquired costs about $10 per acre.

Since 1877, the date of the passage of the act relating to desert lands, there have been 153,033 original entries, covering 31,745,429 acres and $7,629,824, and 42,256 final entries, covering 7,921,680 acres and $8,031,052.

During the last fiscal year, 1,675 final desert-land entries were patented, involving 267,000 acres.

Lands, Desert:
- Discussed, 5380.
- Fraud under, 7302.
- Repeal or modification of laws regarding, recommended, 5107.

Lands, Gas:
- Leasing of, recommended, 7303, 7534, 7568.
- Licensing of prospectors for, 7534, 7568.
- Withdrawal of, from entry, discussed, 7303, 7535.

Lands, Grazing:
- Control of, 7304.
- Extent of, 7004, 7096.
- Fences on, illegal, 7096.

Lands, Homestead.—The Federal Homestead laws begin with the act of Congress passed in 1862, now sections 2289-2317, United States Revised Statutes. The object of these homestead land laws is to give portions of the public lands to those who will settle, cultivate, and make permanent homes upon them. Any person who is the head of a family or who is a citizen of the United States, or who has filed his declaration of becoming such, may acquire a tract of unappropriated public land not exceeding 160 acres, on condition of settlement, cultivation and continuous occupancy as a home for himself for a period of five years, and the payment of certain moderate fees. Under the provision of this law more than 85,000,000 acres of unoccupied lands have been transferred to homeseekers. During the year 1901 alone the original homestead entries, final and commuted entries, aggregated 111,390, and covered 15,455,057 acres. Time of service in the United States army, navy, marine corps, during the Rebellion, the Spanish War or the Philippine Insurrection may be deducted from the term of continuous occupancy of a homestead.

The homestead law gives the settler two options: he can settle upon, enter and acquire title to 160 acres of land practically free of cost by maintaining residence thereon for five years; or he may at the

end of fourteen months of such continuous residence secure a patent from the government by paying $1.25 per acre.

By recent enactments, Congress has raised the limit of lands patented under the Homestead Acts to 320 acres, or 640 acres for grazing alone.

During the last fiscal year, there were 41,319 final homestead entries, covering 8,236,438 acres. Since 1868, 178,342,112 acres have been thus disposed of, involving 1,186,538 final homestead entries. The grant of land under the homestead acts is now the most common form of land grant in the United States.

Lands, Homestead, manner of drawing for, described, 6878, 6885.

Lands, Indian.—To quiet the apprehensions of the Indians in the Ohio regions that their lands were to be granted to settlers, a royal proclamation was issued Oct. 7, 1763, forbidding colonial governors from making land grants west of the sources of the rivers flowing into the Atlantic. As the result of treaties, purchase and war, the Indians were eventually transplanted to the country west of the Mississippi, the first territorial reservation set apart for them being June 30, 1834, known as the Indian Territory. Other reservations were subsequently set aside for the exclusive occupation of the Indians, but as the number of Indians decreased and the covetousness of the whites increased these reservations were either bought outright by the Government or exchanged for other territory.

The present status of the lands occupied by the Indian tribes is that the permanent title is vested in the Government, the Indians having the right of occupancy, which may be vacated by the Government. These Indian lands are often disposed of, when available, by public auctions or sales. During the last fiscal year, there were 4,791 original and 5,742 final entries and segregations of Indian lands, involving 631,316 and 663,683 acres, respectively. The receipts, sales and interest amounted to $1,935,377.

Lands, Indian:
Accounts for advertising Kansas, referred to, 4664.
Act for sale of, vetoed, 4341.
President requests return of bill for his approval, 4342.
Allotment of, in severalty—
Act providing for, etc., 5498.
Discussed, 5381, 5480, 5552, 5637, 5761, 5976.
Recommended, 561, 4528, 4576, 4643, 4730, 4779, 4783, 4955.
Remonstrance against, 4669.
Survey necessary for, 4943.
Cession of, to United States, agreements for, 423, 426, 585, 603, 803, 931, 1257, 1729, 1818, 2501, 5450, 5552, 5638, 5648, 5649, 5671, 5768.
Amount of cession, 5481.
Commission to negotiate for, 5480, 5481, 5508, 5510, 5512, 5514, 5565, 5567. (See also Commissions.)
Report of, discussed, 5496.
Negotiations regarding, 5506.
Proclamation regarding, 5450, 5579, 5591, 5707.
Proposition regarding, 5392.
Opened to settlement. (See Lands, Public.)
Referred to, 167, 256, 331, 335, 360, 362, 375, 422, 425, 890, 1810, 4680.
Sale of, desired by certain tribes, 4075.
Titles to, extinguishment of, referred to, 585, 769, 1716, 2355, 2501, 2769.
Proclaimed, 1538, 5535.
Trespasses upon, discussed and legislation to prevent, recommended, 937, 1099, 4637, 4676, 4742, 4775, 4853, 4953, 5177, 5178.

Lands, Mineral.—Among the classifications of public lands made by the General Land Office is that of Mineral Lands. These vary from placer locations, at $2.50 an acre, to mining rights at $5, not to exceed 1,500 by 600 feet, nor less than 1,500 by 50 feet.

Lands, Mineral (see also California; New Mexico):
Congressional committees to visit, recommended, 4309.
Discussed by President—
Roosevelt, 7302.
Taft, 7460, 7559, 7562, 7720.
Referred to, 1809, 2218, 2558, 2663, 3330, 3383.
Sale of, recommended, 2304, 2354.
Separation of, from farming lands, recommended, 2493.
System of leasing, unsatisfactory, 2260, 2623.

Lands, Oil, leasing system for, discussed by President—
Roosevelt, 7303.
Taft, 7534, 7567.

Lands, Phosphate, acreage, value, utility and conservation of, 7568.
Disposal of, system of, 7461, 7533.
Withdrawal of, from entry, 7535.

Lands, Public.—By the treaty of 1783 England relinquished all her lands east of the Mississippi River north of 31° north latitude. So much of this territory as lay east of the Alleghany Mountains was claimed by the original states; and certain of the states claimed lands beyond the Alleghanies based on their crown grants, which extended to the "South Sea" or Pacific Ocean. These grants were indefinite and conflicting and the source of much contention between the states, and the lands were finally (with certain reservations) ceded to the Federal government. The acquisition of more territory from Spain, France, Mexico and Great Britain (through the determination of boundaries) added vast tracts to the public domain, from which states were afterward formed, but with the reservation that the unoccupied lands therein should remain the property of the general government. Only eighteen states thus retained control of the land within their boundaries, and were able to dispose of it

The last report of the Public Land Office gave the following figures for the acres of land unappropriated and unreserved in the public-land states, including both surveyed and unsurveyed land:

Alabama	35,200
Arizona	21,256,010
Arkansas	288,476
California	20,529,034
Colorado	10,271,955
Florida	114,726
Idaho	13,322,716
Kansas	5,275
Louisiana	45,559
Michigan	72,829
Minnesota	469,973
Mississippi	42,064
Missouri	147
Montana	8,201,019
Nebraska	108,556
Nevada	55,082,200
New Mexico	19,115,554
North Dakota	116,138
Oklahoma	31,715
Oregon	14,325,591
South Dakota	837,226
Utah	31,475,919
Washington	1,259,983
Wisconsin	6,146
Wyoming	25,434,194
Total	222,448,225

Of the above total 142,231,300 acres have been surveyed and 80,216,925 are unsurveyed. There are in addition about 24,000,000 acres of reserved land in Alaska, of which 1,000,000 acres have been reserved.

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as the local governments saw fit. When Texas was admitted to the Union, it retained jurisdiction over its public domain and is administering the same to-day independent of the Federal Land Office.

Lands were also purchased by the federal government from the Indians at various times and opened to white settlement. These acquisitions were always advantageous to the government and as President Monroe remarks (page 585), "presumably so to the Indians." But the red men often misunderstood the terms of the trades, and regretted their bargains, and some of the fiercest of Indian wars have been caused by the feeling among the Indians that they had been cheated.

During the last fiscal year, from the disposal of public and Indian lands there was realized the sum of $5,358,516, of which more than $2,000,000 represented cash sales; $1,160,000 represented fees and commissions; and $1,936,000, sales of Indian lands. The total receipts from the disposal of public lands since the founding of the Republic have been $491,430,102.

By this time, most of the good agricultural public land of the United States has been disposed of. The remaining public land for which the figures are given below is chiefly rocky land, or land suitable for only grazing or dry farming, with some land available for agriculture only after irrigation. Most of the public land now disposed of is disposed of under the Homestead Acts (see Lands, Homestead, above); or if with coal and oil deposits, etc., is sold usually at from $2.50 to $5.00 an acre; or is sold at public auction. During the last fiscal year, there were 9,552,482 acres of public land disposed of, representing 48,620 entries. The chief classes of entry were as follows:

Class	*Entries*	*Acres*
Homestead	25,160	6,012,086
Indian	10,150	1,089,766
Railroad	28	943,720
Public sale	2,383	353,264
Desert Land	2,093	340,281
Commuted Homestead	2,209	304,173

Public lands may be acquired under acts relating to *Lands*—Homestead, Timber and Stone, Desert, Mining, Bounty (q. v.) Abandoned or isolated portions of the public land also are open to purchase from time to time.

Lands, Public:

- Acquired from Mexico, referred to, 1275.
- Acreage of, original and contemporaneous, 7557.
- Act—
  - Appropriating proceeds of sales of, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 2108.
  - Making grant of, to States for benefit of insane persons vetoed, 2780.
  - To authorize entry of, for gravel pits and reservoir purposes, etc., vetoed, 6002.
  - To authorize leasing of, for educational purposes in Arizona, vetoed, 6102.
- Agricultural, laws governing, discussed, 7532, 7557.
- Amount, sales, and expenses of, etc., discussed, 1136.
- Appropriations of proceeds of sales of, for educational purposes. (See Education.)
- Attempts made to keep down price of, referred to, 1744.
- Augmentation in value of, 586.
- Ceded to Indians, 108, 1716. (See also Indian Tribes, under Indians.)
  - Early settlement of ceded lands desired, 2832.
- Classification of, 7266, 7460, 7720.
- Court for litigated land cases recommended, 5975.
- Depredations on. (See Lands, Timber.)
- Desert-land laws. (See Lands, Desert.)
- Discussed, 586, 5974, 6166, 6346, 6390, 6452.
- Disposition of, discussed by President—
  - Buchanan, 2990.
  - Cleveland, 4944, 5106, 5379, 5974.
  - Grant, 4106, 4206, 4309.
  - Hayes, 4577.
  - Jackson, 1163.
  - McKinley, 6345, 6346, 6452.
  - Roosevelt, 6790, 6800, 7096.
  - Taft, 7460, 7532, 7557, 7720.
  - Van Buren, 1601.

Fences, unlawful, removal of, directed by proclamation, 4893.
Discussed, 5107.
Forest, acreage and value of, discussed, 7560.
Frauds in purchase of, order regarding, 6329.
Fraudulent acquisition of, 6790, 6800, 7096.
Fraudulent occupation of, discussed, 5886.
Gas deposit—
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Licensing of prospectors for, urged, 7534, 7568.
Granted Canadian volunteers, 558.
Granted persons engaged in military service. (See Lands, Bounty.)
Grants of—
In aid of education. (See Education.)
Legislation to remove limitation of time for bringing suits to annul unlawful, recommended, 6092.
Referred to, 4065, 4206, 5974.
To railroads. (See Pacific Railroads; Railroads.)
To States, referred to, 4065, 4206, 5380.
Hawaiian, stimulation of agriculture on, 8541.
History of administration of, 7458.
Home builders and, 6725, 6800.
Homestead acts. (See Homestead Laws.)
Instructions to receiving or disbursing officers of land offices, referred to, 1346.
Joint resolution authorizing grant of lands to Kansas, etc., vetoed, 5308.
Laws regarding—
Amendment and change in, recommended, 4944, 5362, 6790, 6800, 6947, 7004, 7096.
Commission to investigate, 6801.
Report of, 6863.
Defects in, 7460, 7565, 7816.
Discussed, 5484.
Fraud under, and necessary changes in, 7302.
History and codification of, 4581.
Recommendations regarding, 4577.
Violations of, referred to, 4743.
Lumber and naval stores taken from, referred to, 4434.
Mineral deposit, discussed, 7460, 7559, 7562.
Mineral lands referred to. (See Lands, Mineral.)
Oil deposit, discussed, 7534, 7568.
Opened to settlement—
Appropriation for, recommended, 5638.
Discussed, 5482, 5637, 5761.
Fraudulent occupation of, discussed, 5886.
Proclaimed, 5450, 5579, 5591, 5707, 5710, 5727, 5838, 6016, 6018, 6020, 6026, 6486, 6506, 6525, 6547, 6553, 6588, 6600, 6603, 6612, 6615, 6616, 6687, 6873, 6875, 6956, 8047.
Patenting of—
In execution of railroad grants discussed, 6166.
To settlers, discussed, 5484, 5552, 5638, 5761.
Payments for, should be made in specie, 1468.
Philippine, disposition of, 6815.
Phosphate deposit, discussed, 7461, 7533, 7568.
Planting of forests, recommendations regarding, 4158.
Preemption laws discussed. (See Preemption Laws.)
Prices of, should be reduced, 2353, 2407, 2500.
Purchase and cession of, to United States—
Agreements regarding, 146, 167, 182, 203, 256, 347, 360, 375, 422, 426, 431, 585, 603, 803, 887, 931, 957, 1029, 1257, 1729, 1818, 2501, 5450, 5552, 5638, 5648, 5649, 5671, 5768.
Proclamations regarding. (See Opened to settlement, *ante.*)
Proposition regarding, 4892.
Purchasers of—
Indulgence to, recommended, 647, 957, 986.
Patent of, when paid for, cannot be withheld by President, 1098.
Railroad grants, timber on, 7303.
Reclamation of, by discharged soldiers urged, 8642, 8715, 8813.
Referred to, 79, 80, 100, 105, 113, 127, 128, 474, 586, 591, 599, 957, 1136, 2768.
Revenues derived from sales of. (See Sale of, *post.*)
Russian colony to emigrate to United States discussed, 4207.
Sale of—
Act regarding appropriation of proceeds of—
Reasons for applying pocket veto to, 1275.
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Lands, Swamp.—In 1849 and 1850 Congress passed resolutions granting large tracts of land to the various states for their disposal. Agents of the states selected such lands as were unfit for cultivation, and title to the same was confirmed in the states by an act approved March 3, 1857. At the time of the grant it was estimated from Government surveys that the swamp land would not exceed 21,000,000 acres. Millions of acres, however, were listed as swamp lands. This led to an investigation, and gross frauds were unearthed. Under the various acts lands have been granted to Alabama, Arkansas, California, Florida, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, Ohio, Oregon and Wisconsin. Florida has received the largest share—22,500,000 acres—and Ohio the least—117,000 acres. In many instances the states have sold the lands to railroad companies.

During the last fiscal year, some 25,600 acres of land were disposed of under swamp land patents; claims aggregating some 90,000 acres were rejected and new claims for some 3,000 acres were filed. The total amount of land granted to states under the swamp-land acts is more than 64,000,000 acres, of which more than 20,000,000 acres went to Florida, almost 7,700,000 acres went to Arkansas, 9,735,000 acres went to Louisiana, 5,665,000 to Michigan. Other large beneficiaries have been California, Illinois, Indiana, Minnesota, Mississippi, Missouri, and Wisconsin. The other states receiving swamp lands, but less than 1,000,000 acres each, are Alabama, Iowa, Ohio and Oregon.

Lands, Swamp, discussed, 5974.

Lands, Timber and Stone.—Lands which are unfit for cultivation, but are of value for their standing timber or stone, may be had from the Government by individuals to the extent of 160 acres, on payment of $2.50 an acre.

From 1878, the date of the passage of the Timber and Stone Acts, there have been 103,422 entries, covering an acreage of 13,445,947 and the amount of $34,101,638. During the last fiscal year 550 entries, involving 58,843 acres and $184,700, were patented.

Lands, Timber:
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Value of, 7303.

Lansing-Ishii Agreement on China discussed, 9113. (For summary, see Japan, Treaties with.)

Large Fortunes. (See Fortunes, Large.)

Laos.—A French protectorate in southeastern Asia, a part of French Indo-China (q. v.). It consists of some 100,000 square miles, with a population of about 650,000. The country is rich in farming land, minerals and timber, but has not yet been exploited to any considerable extent.

Las Guasimas (Cuba), Battle of. (See Santiago (Cuba), Battle of.)

Latimer Case.—The first of a series of fugitive-slave trials which took place in Boston. George Latimer was seized in 1842 without a warrant, and kept in the custody of the city jailer awaiting evidence against him. A writ of *habeas corpus* was denied. A writ of personal replevin, asked for under the act of 1837, securing trial by jury, was also denied, this act being declared void. As a consequence of the indignation aroused by this case the legislature in 1843 passed an act forbidding State officers to aid in the capture of fugitive slaves and forbidding the use of State jails for their imprisonment. The sum forfeited for violation was not exceeding $1,000 or imprisonment not exceeding one year.

Latin America.—A name often applied to that portion of America settled originally or inhabited chiefly by the Latin races. It thus includes Mexico, the countries of South and Central America and the West Indies.

Latin-American and Mexican Divisions, State Department.—These divisions within the Department of State were organized to control "diplomatic and consular correspondence in matters other than administrative with Mexico, Central America, the Republic of Panama, South America and the West Indies." These divisions fall under the supervision of the Undersecretary of State. (See State Department.)

Latin-American Library, establishment of, at Washington recommended by International American Conference, 5506.

Latin-American Republics, discussed by President Roosevelt, 7231.
(See also Central America, South America and the several countries.)

Latin Union.—The name given the monetary alliance of Belgium, France, Italy and Switzerland, formed by convention Dec. 23, 1865. Greece joined the union in 1868. The object was the maintenance and regulation of a uniform interchangeable gold and silver coinage based on the French franc. Belgium withdrew from the union in 1885 and adopted the single gold standard.

Latin Union. (See Monetary Convention of Latin Union.)

Latter-Day Saints. (See Mormon Church; Polygamy.)

Lattimer, Pa., claims of Austria-Hungary arising out of conflict between miners and sheriff at, discussed, 6324, 6363.

Latvia.—For the formation of this country, see Baltic Provinces. As now constituted, it comprises the former Russian province of Courland, four southern districts of the former Russian province of Livonia and three western districts of the former Russian province of Vitebsk. Its area is put at 24,440 square miles, with a population of 1,503,193. The capital, Riga, has a population of 185,000. The country is chiefly agricultural, but industry is gaining. Flax and timber are exported.

Latvia, recognition of:
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Laundries, Power.—This industry was surveyed in the last federal census of manufactures as of 1919, although the report was not published until 1922. The industry was summarized in the report as follows:—

Number of establishments	5,678
Persons engaged	152,569
Capital	$153,805,268
Salaries and wages	115,597,022
Cost of materials	53,502,177
Amount received for work done	236,382,369

Of the wage-earners, 29% are male and 71% female. There were 12 establishments employing more than 250 wage-earners; 171, between 100 and 250; 478, between 50 and 100. There were 584 receiving annually for work done more than $100,000. Establishments under the corporation form of ownership employed 59% of the wage-earners and received 60½% of the amount for work done.

Law (see also Courts, Judges and Justice):
Activities of government centered under Justice Department, 8521.
Delays, remedy urged for, 7209.
Due Process of. (See Due Process of Law and Arbitration International.)
Enforcement of, appropriations for, 6790, 9171.
International. (See International Law.)
Maritime. (See Maritime Law.)
Principles of, discussed, 7992.

Law Clerk, State Department.—The Law Bureau in the Department of State was formed in 1870, simply to examine legal questions referred to it. Now the law clerk edits the laws of Congress and prepares them for publication. His title is now editor

of Laws of Congress and he is attached to Division of Publications of the Department, with an annual salary of $2,500.

"Law, Lyman M.," S. S., case of, discussed, 8210.

Lawrence, Kans., fortifications at, referred to, 3894.

Laws of United States (see also Revised Statutes):
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Special privilege, against, 7126, 7132.
Statute and precedent in, 7992.

Lazistan, disposition of, discussed, 8841.

Lead Mines. (See Mines.)

League Island, Pa. (situated in the Delaware River, near the junction with the Schuylkill), bill accepting, for naval purposes, referred to, 3649.

League of Nations.—*Historical Background.*—Although thinkers of ancient times speculated about a state of peace for all peoples, they had no plan for a political organization to make their aspirations effective. Isaiah and Micah in the Old Testament, for instance, merely voiced longings for perpetual peace. The ancient Greeks in their city-states lived without even national cohesiveness, their Amphictyonic Council existing chiefly for religious purposes and without much political power. Imperial Rome preserved a form of peace, the *Pax Romana*, for a considerable period, but the Roman Empire, like that of Alexander the Great, represented the armed dominance of one country over many subjects, not a voluntary organization of free nations. There were judicial, religious and other forms of unity in the Roman Empire, but the government of the whole remained in the hands of the citizens of the city, Rome.

With the rise of the Christian Church after the break-up of the Roman Empire, the Western World saw its first effective unified organization of various independent peoples. But the unity represented by the Church at Rome was, after all, religious rather than political. Mediaeval Europe lived under the feudal system, with innumerable lords rendering political allegiance to the Pope chiefly in theory, and in practice remaining politically independent. The Crusades and the Truce of God achieved unity, but for war against the heathen, rather than for the preservation of peace. And in the fifteenth, sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, even this unity dissolved before the strength of the Protestant Reformation, the opening-up of new trade routes, new industrial and commercial procedure and, especially, the rise of the idea of independent nationalism, without even theoretical allegiance to the Pope or to any other foreign source of power.

This concept of national sovereignty not only dissolved the unity of mediaeval times, but also made impossible any effective society of nations until after the World War, and even then militated against the effectiveness of the League of Nations. The feeling for nationalism free from international allegiance became constantly stronger, especially after the French Revolution at the close of the eighteenth century and the following activities of and against Napoleon. Indeed, in many sections of Europe, strong consciousness of sovereign nationalism did not arise until well into the nineteenth century.

With the development of sovereign nationalism came alliances between nations, and soon there arose the Balance of Power and Concert of Europe system, whereby the Powers became aligned in two camps of about equal strength and tried to preserve peace by preventing developments from weighting the balance. After the Napoleonic Wars, the Quadruple Alliance of Austria, Russia, Prussia and Great Britain was formed. France was soon admitted to it. At the initiative of Alexander I of Russia, permeated by liberalism and enthusiastic for international peace, the Holy Alliance was formed, ostensibly to unite the great Powers, and in actuality became identical with the Quadruple Alliance.

But the Holy Alliance fell away from the leadership of the idealistic Alexander to that of the reactionary Metternich, premier of Austria. Instead of an agent of peace and democracy, it thwarted revolutions, insisted upon the divine right of kings and tried to spread the imperialistic idea. Great Britain accordingly withdrew, lending her necessary support to the United States when President Monroe proclaimed the doctrine that the Holy Alliance must not spread its machinations to America. So that by the middle of the nineteenth century, the Holy Alliance had become almost a nonentity. However, it had been, not a league of nations, but a council of individual sovereigns and their ministers. There were no rules of procedure, no provisions regarding international law nor the elimination of war, no attempt at limitation of armaments, no machinery for arbitration, no publication of proceedings.

By the twentieth century, however, the nations, although still in anarchy as to international political organizations, were bound by many non-political ties. These were largely industrial and financial, due to the internationalization of large-scale Business and Finance; but also there was international cooperation in postal and telegraph service, suppression of the slave and opium traffics, patent and copyright procedure, the Red Cross, and religious, scientific and educational affiliations. The Socialist movement of the world had a powerful international organization and trade unions had also their international affiliations. And the increasing autonomy granted Canada, South Africa and Australasia made the British Empire take on many of the aspects of a league of nations.

Before the outbreak of the World War, there was even some international cooperation of a political nature, such as the expedition against the Boxers in China, the localization of the Russo-Turkish and Balkan wars, the disposition of Morocco. In America, the conferences of the American Republics were bringing the nations of the New World into closer union. Many disputes which might have led to war had been arbitrated and the awards accepted, and there were many treaties between great and small nations providing for arbitration instead of war. And yet, so far from being

bound by a league of nations, the world was internationally still in anarchy, with all Europe aligned in two hostile camps on the Balance of Power system, jealous, suspicious, competitive, nervous, and constantly and inevitably drifting nearer and nearer to a war in which most of the great Powers and many small states would be involved.

Proposals for World Peace.—With the destruction of whatever unity had existed in the Western World during the mediaeval period and the dissolution of Europe into completely sovereign nationalities, it was natural that the minds of men should formulate plans for the re-union of the world for the preservation of peace. In 1625, Grotius codified the relations existing between nations in his famous *De Jure Belli ac Pacis* (On the Laws of War and Peace), in which a framework necessary for the abolition of war and the maintenance of peace was outlined. In 1634, the Duke of Sully published plans, which he assigned to his master, Henry IV of France, for a European confederation, and in 1712 the plan was revived and altered by the Abbé Saint-Pierre. In 1795, during the ferment caused by the French Revolution, Immanuel Kant, the great German philosopher, published his *Zum Ewigen Frieden* (Toward Everlasting Peace). These are the most famous plans for a league of nations before the twentieth century, but others worthy of mention are those of Georg von Podiebrad, King of Bohemia, published in 1462; of Emeric de Lacroix, in 1623; of William Penn, in 1690; and the principles of international cooperation laid down by Jeremy Bentham in 1786-9. Nineteenth century aspirations for a world federation are well typified by Tennyson's lines in "Locksley Hall," looking forward to a day when the war-drums would "throb no longer and the battle-flags be furled in the parliament of man, the federation of the world;" and also by the founding and extremely rapid growth of societies devoted to peace. Most of these peace societies, in both America and Europe, were pledged to international judicial and arbitral machinery, instead of having designed plans for a league of nations, and the outbreak of the World War served to prove that their activities had had little more effect than the earlier speculations of Grotius, Sully and Kant toward an association of nations to preserve peace.

The Hague Peace Conferences.—Like the ill-fated Holy Alliance, the Hague Conferences were initiated by the Tsar of Russia. Nicholas II, like Alexander I, hoped to bring together the nations of the world in a federation to preserve peace. (For the history and achievements of these conferences, see Hague Peace Conferences; see also Arbitration, International.) He did succeed in bringing together the nations of the world—there were 26 Powers represented at the First Conference in 1899 and 46 at the Second, in 1907; but the concept of sovereign nationalism and also the jealousies and ambitions of the several nations were too strong to permit of effective international action for the elimination of war. All that was accomplished was the establishment of courts of arbitration to which international disputes *might* be submitted at the volition of the disputants and the adoption of recommended codes of warfare which could not be effective until ratified by all the nations concerned. The Hague Conferences did not accomplish any limitation in military or naval armaments. (See page 9045.)

The Instigation of the League.—With the outbreak of the World War, the belligerents were naturally too intent upon winning the war to speculate very carefully upon the organization of an association of nations after peace had been declared. Moreover, the passions engendered by war usually accentuate national self-seeking and aggrandisement, so that when most of the leaders in the belligerent countries thought of the organization of the world after the war, they thought chiefly of pacts and alliances which would accrue to their own benefit and to the injury of their enemies. It remained for the neutrals, removed from the passions of the conflict, to visualize a true association of nations; and of the neutral countries, the United States was the only one with sufficient strength, standing and influence to launch the idea with any degree of assurance.

That President Woodrow Wilson's thoughts were turning more and more toward the organization of a society of nations was evidenced by his address at a banquet of the League to Enforce Peace in Washington, on May 27, 1916, in which he clearly stated that all the great nations must be associated for the preservation of peace. In January, 1917, he suddenly and dramatically forced the idea of a league of nations upon a war-weary world by stressing it in his "Peace without Victory" address to the United States Senate; and after the United States became a belligerent, the idea of a league of nations was steadily brought to the fore in the American President's state papers and addresses. The last of the Fourteen Points of Peace enunciated by Wilson in January, 1918 (page 8425), called for a "general association of nations under specific covenants" to "afford mutual guarantees of political independence and territorial integrity to great and small states alike." In the following September, in his address at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York City, when it was apparent that the day of Germany's military defeat was not far distant, the necessity for a league of nations was again uttered by the President, with the entire world for an audience. By the time of the Peace Conference at Paris, the hope for a league of nations was so strong among the peoples of the world that its formation as a result of the peace was not opposed even by those delegates who were hostile to or skeptical of the idea.

The Drafting of the Covenant.—When the Peace Conference assembled in Paris, it was found that support for and study of a league of nations existed chiefly among the American and the British delegations. The other delegates were inclined to be indifferent or, like Clemenceau and his colleagues, skeptical, but threw no definite obstacle in the way of the formation of the League.

The final form of the covenant of the League of Nations follows no particular draft, but represents the combined thought of many minds. For several years, the British Government, largely under the lead of Lord Robert Cecil, had been studying plans for a league of nations, but came to Paris without any formal and official draft of its conclusions. General Jan Smuts, the influential prime minister of British South Africa, published a definite draft for a constitution, with the cooperation of the British students of international affairs known as the "Round Table Group." However, the Smuts plan was published chiefly to provoke discussion on the form of the constitution for the League; and, although

General Smuts was extremely potent in formulating the final draft, it follows him chiefly in the matter of mandates.

The only other definite authoritative plan when the framing of the constitution got under way came from the American delegation. Before going to Paris, President Wilson had prepared a tentative plan for a league of nations, and in Paris he prepared a new draft, possibly influenced by the ideas of General Smuts. Mr. David Hunter Miller, of the New York bar, had submitted certain suggestions to Colonel House, the President's most confidential adviser, before the President arrived in Paris. Mr. Miller and Mr. James Brown Scott, long associated with the United States Department of State, had been the expert advisers in international law attached to the commission which, under the general direction of Colonel House, had been collecting material on the peace settlements for the use of the American peace mission; and in January, 1919, Miller and Scott submitted a definite draft for a constitution for the league of nations.

On January 25, 1919, the Peace Conference, after an address by President Wilson (see page 8665), created a special commission to draft a constitution for a league of nations. The membership of the commission was determined chiefly by personal rather than by political considerations. The chairman was President Wilson and the other American delegate was Colonel House; the two British delegates were Lord Cecil and General Smuts; Léon Bourgeois, probably the foremost French supporter of a league of nations, was included in the membership, which comprised nineteen. Finally, separate plans were drawn up by the British and the Americans. After some discussion, the problem of reconciling the British and the American drafts, and also the various opinions expressed and acquiesced in in the commission's meetings, notably the opinions of Wilson, Bourgeois, Smuts, Cecil and House, was left to David Hunter Miller and Mr. Cecil J. B. Hurst, legal adviser to the British delegation. Miller and Hurst agreed upon a draft, which was essentially the tentative draft submitted to the Peace Conference on February 14 (see pages 8668 and 8669). This draft was later altered in many particulars, the changes being indicated by President Wilson in submitting the final draft for ratification by the Conference on April 28 (see pages 8681-8683).

This draft, adopted on April 28, 1919, was embodied in the Peace Treaty submitted to Germany on May 7 and signed by Germany and the Allies on June 28, 1919. On January 10, 1920, the date on which the ratifications of the Treaty of Versailles officially became operative, the League of Nations came into existence.

The Nature of the League.—The league is a combination of sovereign states banded together for common action rather than a single world-state holding the nations in a single allegiance and government as the states are held in the United States or dominions within the British Empire. Thus almost all the decisions of the Council and the Assembly must be unanimous to be effective.

The entire text of the Covenant of the League is on pages 8673 to 8681, and a reading of the brief text is the best way to understand its structure. It is to be noted that the most powerful body is the Council, composed of the five great Powers and four other states. The assembly represents all the member states—it may discuss almost any matter vital to the welfare of the League and the peace of the world, thus focusing international public opinion upon it; it admits new members and makes amendments.

On the central theme of preventing war, any dispute recognized as subject to arbitration must be arbitrated and the award accepted. If generally recognized as not arbitral, the dispute must be submitted to inquiry by the Council, and if the Council's report is unanimous it must be followed. Other provisions for limiting war look to the restriction of armaments and the control of the munitions trade, the guarantee of territorial integrity, the full interchange of information, delay in declaring war even in those non-arbitral disputes in which the report of the Council is not unanimous, the registering and publication of treaties and alliance-understandings and the supervision of the undeveloped regions of the world, by mandates given to Powers who guarantee to give equal opportunity in those regions to all nations.

The sovereign nationalism of the member nations to an extent is preserved intact by requiring unanimity in most important decisions, by allowing for withdrawal from the League, by not interfering in disputes solely within the domestic jurisdiction of one of the parties to the dispute, by leaving the measures for punishment of infraction of the Covenant largely to the individual discretion of the nations inflicting it and by not establishing an international army and navy. Other provisions call for the unification of labor standards, constructive action regarding the slave, opium, white slave, etc., traffics, and prosecuting the work of the Red Cross, postal union and other international agencies.

The following states were members of the League of Nations on January 10, 1920, through having signed and ratified the Treaty of Versailles: *Belgium, Bolivia, Brazil, British Empire* (including *Canada, Australia, New Zealand, South Africa, India*), *Czecho-Slovakia, France, Guatemala, Italy, Japan, Peru, Poland, Siam, Uruguay.* The following states were members through having accepted invitations to join: *Argentina, Chile, Paraguay, Persia, Spain.* The following original signatories of the Treaty of Versailles subsequently joined: *China, Cuba, Greece, Haiti, Honduras, Jugo-Slavia, Liberia, Nicaragua, Panama, Portugal, Roumania.* The following states subsequently accepted the original invitation to join: *Colombia, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, Salvador, Sweden, Switzerland, Venezuela.* The *United States* and *Ecuador* declined to ratify.

The following states later joined the League: *Austria, Bulgaria, Costa Rica, Finland, Luxemburg, Latvia, Esthonia, Lithuania, Albania.*

The following states applied for admission but were not admitted: *Armenia, Georgia, Azerbaijan, Ukraine, Liechtenstein, San Marino, Iceland, Monaco, Hedjaz.*

The following states were not members of the League by 1922: *United States, Germany, Mexico, Hungary, Turkey, Russia,* and *Abyssinia, Afghanistan, Andorra, Armenia, Azerbaijan, Bhutan, Ecuador, Georgia, Iceland, Liechtenstein, Monaco, Nepal, Oman, San Marino, Santo Domingo, Tibet, Ukraine.*

So that by 1922, there were 51 states in the League and 23, of which 6 are important countries, not in the League. The seat of the League is Geneva, Switzerland.

Accomplishments.—The achievements of the League are generally agreed to be disappointing, although the extent to which the cause is due to the non-entrance of the United States is a matter of dispute. Thus, the proponents of the League lay its failure to effect reduction of armaments and prohibition of the use of poison gas in war to the fact that the United States would not be bound by the League's action. The League also notably failed to prevent the Polish military attack upon Soviet Russia or to influence the Russo-Polish peace terms; to effect the expulsion from Lithuania of a so-called "insurgent" Polish army; to mediate in the war between Greece and Turkey and other military actions of a serious nature in the Balkans. Germany and Russia remained outside the fold—indeed, the League was able to frame no generally-accepted policy toward Russia. On many occasions the alliance of the victors in the World War was effectively functioning as a force in opposition to and superior to the League. There was no attempt to settle the problem of China in the Far East, and the Covenant of the League was flouted also by the framing of separate alliances among member-states and the refusal to register certain international treaties and agreements.

By 1922, the Assembly had held two meetings and the Council, about fifteen. There had been three successful arbitrations —in the dispute between Sweden and Finland on the ownership of the Aland Islands; in the drawing of the boundary between Germany and Poland in Upper Silesia, where France and Great Britain had come to a deadlock in the Allied conference; and in the attempted invasion of Albania by Jugo-Slavia. The Sarre Basin and the Free City of Danzig were being administered by the League, according to the provisions of the Treaty of Versailles.

The permanent court of international justice had been established and the League had also awarded mandates for enemy territory to be administered by the victorious Powers in the World War. Many valuable international activities, concerned with health, transit, opium and white slave traffic suppression, finance, repatriation, production, had been undertaken; many treaties and agreements had been filed and published; notable research had been accomplished in the field of labor standards and many investigations of great importance had been made.

In 1922, Hungary was admitted to the League and in 1923, Ireland and Abyssinia. The smaller nations were later given six instead of four places in the Council and Czechoslovakia replaced China thereupon, so that by 1924 the Council was composed of delegates of the following nations:—Belgium, Brazil, Czechoslovakia, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Spain, Sweden, Uruguay. By that date, the League had gained an increase of prestige by its work of repatriating prisoners of war and Russian refugees, under Dr. Nansen, and its virtual economic and financial restoration of Austria. It had suffered a terrible loss of prestige, however, by the fact that the League was not strong enough to intervene actively in the difficulty between Greece and Italy, amounting practically to war, in September, 1923, but was compelled to allow the settlement to be effected by the Council of Ambassadors.

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Leander, The.—A British war ship, which, while lying off Sandy Hook, April 25, 1806, fired a shot which killed a sailor aboard an American coaster. The citizens of New York in mass meeting denounced the outrage and called upon the President for better protection. President Jefferson issued a proclamation ordering the arrest of the *Leander's* captain if found within the jurisdiction of the United States (See page 390).

League to Enforce Peace.—This organization was formed in Philadelphia on June 17, 1915. Its purpose was to help organize after the World War a league of nations which would make war more difficult. Its platform called for the hearing of justiciable questions between nations before a judicial tribunal for hearing and judgment, all other international disputes, not settled by negotiation, to be submitted to a council of conciliation for hearing and recommendations; the use of the economic force of the signatory nations, followed by military and naval force, against any of their number making war without first submitting the dispute involved for hearing and judgment as described above; international conferences from time to time to codify international law.

Learning, Institution of. (See Education; Military Academy; National University; Naval Academy; Seminaries of Learning.)
Leased wires, repeal of tax on, urged, 9338.

Leather and Shoe Business.—The first American tannery is said to have been established in Virginia as early as 1630, but one or two years later Francis Ingalls established the business in Swampscott near Lynn, Mass., and the center of the trade has hovered about that vicinity ever since. The colonial authorities encouraged the

business by forbidding the exportation of hides or unwrought leather. Before the Revolution leather was more plentiful here than in England. In 1790 William Edwards established a tannery in Hampshire, Mass. Out of this grew the Hampshire Leather Manufacturing Company of Massachusetts, incorporated in Boston in 1809 with a capital of $100,000. The tanneries of this company had a capacity for handling 16,000 hides a year. Many other tanneries followed immediately on account of the cheapness of bark, and soon the annual exports reached 350,000 pounds. The value of hides and manufactured skins was stated by the census of 1810 to have been $17,935,477, though private authorities estimated a value as high as $20,000,000.

The entire leather industry was reported upon by the federal census of manufactures of 1919 and a report upon it published in 1923, with statistics as of 1919. The industries covered were—Leather, tanned, curried and finished; Boots and shoes; Boot and shoe cut stocks; Boot and shoe findings; Leather gloves and mittens; Saddlery and harness; Leather belting; Trunks and valises; Pocketbooks; Leather goods not elsewhere specified. A survey of the entire industry is as follows:—

Number of establishments	6,397
Wage-earners, average number	349,362
Annual wages	$ 363,453,419
Cost of materials	1,713,807,336
Value of products	2,610,230,727

Leather Tanned, Curried and Finished.—A summary of this branch of the industry for the report year was as follows:—

Number of establishments	680
Persons engaged	79,292
Capital	$671,341,553
Salaries and wages	108,384,445
Cost of materials	646,521,527
Value of products	928,591,701

Pennsylvania accounted for 23% of the value of products and 19% of the wage-earners. Similar figures for Massachusetts were 14% and 21%. Two establishments in Massachusetts employed 5,136 wage-earners between them; one in Delaware employed 1,779; one in New York, 1,748; one in Wisconsin, 2,339. There were 19 others with between 500 and 1,000 wage-earners each. There were 222 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each.

Hides and skins purchased numbered 123,326,726 and treated for others, 45,725,443. Of these, 22,191,432 were cattle hides, valued at $305,087,931; goat and kid skins, 55,428,830, $82,500,845; sheep and lamb skins, 22,859,751, $29,541,846; calf and kip skins, 12,894,274, $74,334,355. Of tanning materials, vegetable cost $46,616,202 and chemical cost $20,985,006. Among the separate products were:—

Kind of leather	*Sides*	*Value*
Sole	19,715,821	$218,829,831
Oak	10,086,228	117,522,076
Union	7,314,834	79,917,866
Belting, butts	1,503,467	33,348,522
Harness	1,720,764	24,217,646
Upholstery, grains and splits	2,446,071	32,273,836
Upper, cattle	16,693,073	120,897,283
Skins	79,663,981	266,547,194
Patent	2,716,980	23,447,147

Shoe-Making.—Thomas Beard, the pioneer shoemaker of America, is said to have arrived on the *Mayflower* in 1629, and for his services received a salary of $50 per annum and a grant of fifty acres of land. Seven years later Philip Kertland began the manufacture of shoes in Lynn, and in a few more years Lynn supplied the Boston market.

In 1698 the industry was carried on profitably in Philadelphia and the colonial legislature of Pennsylvania in 1721 passed an act regulating the quality and prices of the output. Most of the shoes worn by the Continental army were made in Massachusetts. In 1795 there were in Lynn 200 master workmen and 600 journeymen, who produced 300,000 pairs of ladies' shoes, and one manufacturer alone turned out 20,000 pairs of men's shoes in seven months of that year. It was the custom of the manufacturer of the time to make weekly trips to Boston with horse and wagon, taking his goods along in baskets and barrels and offering them to the wholesale trade.

It was not until 1845 that machinery came into use in the shoe-making trade. First came the leather-rolling machine, then the leather-splitting machine, peg-making, power-pegging, and the dieing-out machine for cutting soles, taps and heels. In 1860 came the McKay sewing machine, followed by the Goodyear turn-shoe machine. Inventions followed with such rapidity that soon nothing was left for the skilled artisan. Labor in shoe factories today consists chiefly in feeding machines and carrying away the product; and even this is accomplished by mechanical carriers.

A summary of this branch of the industry for the report year was as follows:—

Number of establishments	1,449
Persons engaged	237,107
Capital	$ 580,625,075
Salaries and wages	268,859,576
Cost of materials	715,269,315
Value of products	1,155,041,436
Number pairs boots and shoes	331,224,628

Of the wage-earners and value of products, Massachusetts accounted for 38%. The similar figure for New York was 16%.

The leading cities, with number of establishments, were as follows:—

City	*Wage-earners*	*Value Products*
Brockton, Mass. (39)	12,878	$81,543,541
New York City (248)	12,880	66,478,600
Lynn, Mass. (105)	12,123	66,457,349
St. Louis, Mo. (27)	9,779	59,857,853
Haverhill, Mass. (137)	11,529	59,699,812

There were 21 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each and 328 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000. The main products were:—

Kind	*No. Pairs*	*Value*
Men's	95,017,356	$429,740,457
Boys' and youths'	26,503,432	72,883,299
Women's	104,812,505	447,289,044
Misses' and children's	48,538,203	102,091,213
Infants'	16,668,912	18,249,791
Slippers	21,815,046	33,409,101

The pairs of boots and shoes by method of manufacture were as follows:—

Welted	125,722,127	Fastened by wood or metal	13,143,915
Turned	61,748,202		
McKay	120,056,877	Stitch-down	10,553,507

In addition, there were 252 establishments making boot and shoe cut stock, with 11,512 persons engaged, capital of $61,747,458, salaries and wages of $12,453,004 and producing goods valued at $161,203,310 from materials costing $133,887,276. There were also 427 establishments in boots and shoes findings, with 10,615 persons engaged, capital of $28,988,416, salaries and wages

	Gloves & Mittens	Saddlery & Harness	Trunks & Valises	Belting
Number of establishments ..	355	1,823	597	172
Persons engaged	12,594	14,863	14,216	4,019
Capital	$29,870,277	$49,368,288	$34,258,034	$27,533,899
Salaries and wages	11,248,830	15,238,751	17,735,544	5,956,218
Cost of materials	26,286,129	52,442,907	33,222,432	28,156,711
Value of products	46,940,511	83,713,010	63,932,266	40,480,654

of $10,805,794 and producing goods valued at $62,825,408 from materials costing $40,428,347.

Statistics of other branches of the industry are given at the top of the page.

Lecompton Constitution. — During the struggle in Kansas over the question of entering the Union as a free or a slave state, the pro-slavery party held a convention at Lecompton Sept. 5, 1857, and adopted a constitution sanctioning slavery and forbidding the enactment of emancipation laws. It was provided that the constitution as a whole should not be submitted to the people of the territory, the vote being taken only on the main question of a constitution with slavery or a constitution without slavery. Free-state advocates refused to vote, and the constitution sanctioning slavery was adopted. Later the Territorial legislature ordered a vote on the constitution as a whole, and, the slave-state settlers abstaining from voting, it failed of adoption. (See also Kansas; Topeka Constitution; Wyandotte Constitution.)

Lecompton Constitution. (See Kansas, Government of.)

Lee, The, demand of Great Britain for surrender of mutineer in, referred to, 1808.

Lee, Higginson and Company, of Boston, participation of, in Chinese Consortium loan, 8933.

Leeward Islands.—A British possession in the West Indies, forming the most northerly group of the Lesser Antilles. The five presidencies have a combined area of 716 square miles, with a population of some 125,000. The staple products are sugar and molasses, with some production of lime, cocoa, onions, tobacco and cotton. The imports and exports each amount to about $5,000,000 annually. The capital is St. John, on Aitigua.

Legal-Tender Acts, modifications in, recommended, 4302.

Legal-Tender Cases.—During the financial emergency caused by the Civil War Congress in 1862 issued $150,000,000 of Treasury notes, the law authorizing their issue making them legal tender for all private debts and public dues except duties on imports and interest on the public debt. The constitutionality of the act authorizing these notes was frequently disputed, especially as to its application to debts contracted prior to its passage, and the Supreme Court was called upon in several cases to decide the question. State courts generally maintained the constitutionality of the law. The Supreme Court in 1869 (Hepburn *vs.* Griswold, q. v.) maintained the validity of the law only in so far as it did not affect contracts made prior to its passage. A year later this decision was overruled, and the constitutionality of the law in its application to pre-existing debts was maintained. The court in the meantime had undergone a change in its membership, two new judges having been appointed. (See also Juilliard *vs.* Greenman.)

Legal-Tender Notes, redemption of, recommended by President—
- Grant, 4303, 4379.
- Hayes, 4511, 4567.

Legation Asylum, action of American minister to Chile in harboring criminals discussed, 5867.

Legations:
- Military and naval attachés at, recommended, 4923.
- Official residences for ambassadors and ministers recommended, 6072, 6155.
- Premises for, discussed, 4823, 4825, 4862, 4923.
  - Appropriation for erection of buildings on, recommended, 5494.
- Public documents or libraries in, referred to, 4070.
- Secretaries at large, appointment of, recommended, 4923.

Legislation. (See Laws.)

Legislature.—The body of men in a state or kingdom invested with power to make and repeal laws. Colonial legislatures were generally modeled after the British Parliament, the Kings, Lords and Commons having their counterparts in the governor, the council appointed by him, and the representatives of the people. Parliamentary procedure was also followed closely. The first representative legislature in America met at Jamestown, Va., in 1619. The first representatives were elected by voters having a property qualification. In 1776 Virginia substituted a senate for its upper council, and other states followed.

Lehman Caves set apart as national monument, 9097.

Lemhi Reservation, Idaho, agreement with Indians for sale of lands on, 4779.

Leopard, The, attack of, on the *Chesapeake.* (See *Chesapeake,* The.)

Leprosy in Hawaiian Islands, study of, recommended, 6921.

Letters of Exchange, international conference on, 7411.

Letters, Patent. (See Patents.)

Letters Patent, German, provision for payment of fees on, 8269.

Letters Rogatory, report regarding execution of, transmitted, 5570.

Levees of Mississippi River, preservation of, recommendations regarding, 3652, 4682, 4797, 7005.

Lever Act. (See Food Control Law.)

Lew-Chew Islands.—A group of some 55 islands forming part of the Kingdom of Japan. (See Japan.)

Lew-Chew Islands:
- Compact with, for securing certain

privileges to American vessels, 2826.
Good offices of United States tendered China and Japan for settlement of controversy regarding, 4521.

Lew-Chew, Treaties with.—A compact of friendship and commerce was concluded by Commodore Perry for the United States in 1854. Citizens of the United States, seamen, and others are permitted to go ashore on the islands to purchase or sell articles; ships may obtain wood and water on purchase anywhere, but other articles may be bought for them only at Napa. Sailors may go ashore and move freely about without molestation or espionage, so long as their acts are peaceful and legal; for illegal and wrongful acts they are to be arrested by the local authorities and handed over to the captain of the ship to which they belong, for punishment by him. A burial ground for citizens of the United States is established at Tumai. Pilots, appointed by the government of Lew-Chew, shall conduct vessels in and out of Napa for a pilotage fee of $5. Wood is to be supplied to ships at Napa at a selling price of 3,600 copper cash for a thousand catties, and water at the rate of 600 copper cash (forty-three cents) for a thousand catties (six barrels of thirty United States gallons each).

Lewis and Clark Expedition.—A party of citizens and soldiers sent under command of Captains Meriwether Lewis and William Clark, by order of President Jefferson, to explore the country from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean. They ascended the Missouri River to its sources, crossed the Rocky Mountains, and, finding the source of the Columbia River, floated down that stream to its mouth. They explored nearly all the territory lying south of the forty-ninth parallel. This expedition is important as forming the basis of our claim to Oregon.

Lewis and Clark Expedition discussed, 386, 396.

Lewis and Clark Centennial Exposition at Portland, Ore., 6798.

Lewiston, N. Y.—Proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2319.

Lexington (Mass.), Battle of.—On the night of April 18, 1775, a detachment of 800 British soldiers under Col. Smith left Boston to capture or destroy some military stores which the Americans had collected and stored at Concord. Maj. Pitcairn, who led the advance, was opposed at daybreak at Lexington Green, eleven miles northwest of Boston, by about fifty minute-men under Capt. Parker, who had been summoned by Paul Revere in his midnight ride. Pitcairn's men opened fire and 7 Americans were killed and 9 wounded. This was the first blood shed in the Revolutionary War. The Americans returned the fire and retreated, but rallied and pursued the British toward Concord, capturing 7 prisoners, the first taken in the war. On their return from Concord the British were reenforced at Lexington by 1,200 men under Lord Percy. The Americans had also been reenforced, and kept up a guerrilla fire upon the British, who fled to Boston in disorder. The loss for the day was 93 Americans killed, wounded, and missing, and 273 British. (See also Concord (Mass.), Battle of.)

Lexington (Mo.), Battle of.—Sept. 1, 1861, Col. Mulligan, in command of the "Irish Brigade," stationed at Jefferson City, Mo., was ordered by General Fremont, who had recently been appointed to the command of the Western Department, to proceed up the Missouri River to Lexington, Mo., 160 miles to the northwest, and reenforce the garrison there. Mulligan's brigade reached Lexington Sept. 9, swelling the force to 2,780 men. After the battle of Wilson's Creek (q. v.) the Confederate General Price marched toward the northern part of the State with a constantly increasing force. He arrived in the vicinity of Lexington Sept. 11 with 28,000 men and 13 pieces of artillery. Mulligan's force was well intrenched and was constantly expecting reenforcements from St. Louis. Several unsuccessful efforts were made to dislodge them. The garrison suffered terribly from thirst and many of the horses and cattle perished. On the 20th Price advanced his artillery behind the shelter of bales of hemp, which the men rolled slowly before them as they approached Mulligan's redoubt. When this hempen breastwork was within fifty yards of his lines, no reenforcements having arrived, Mulligan surrendered unconditionally, after a loss of 39 killed and 120 wounded. Two thousand six hundred men, including 500 home guards, laid down their arms. The Confederates lost 1,400 in killed and wounded. Col. Mulligan was twice wounded.

Libby Prison.—A famous Confederate military prison in Richmond, Va., during the war between the states. It was originally a tobacco warehouse and a ship chandlery and was named for its owner. It was taken down in 1888 and carried to Chicago and there set up as a war museum.

Libby Prison, rent for use of building known as, referred to, 3895.

Liberal Republican Party.—A defection from the regular Republican organization in 1870-1872. This party was opposed to the strict measures of coercion adopted by the Administration to maintain the newly granted rights to the freedmen, reconstruct the Southern States, and stamp out disorder in the South. Uniting with the Democrats in Missouri in 1870-71, it advocated universal suffrage, universal amnesty, a reform of the tariff, and a "cessation of unconstitutional laws to cure Ku-Klux disorders." At a national convention held in Cincinnati in May, 1872, the Liberal Republicans nominated Horace Greeley for President and B. Gratz Brown, of Missouri, for Vice-President. The ticket was defeated.

Liberator.—1. The name of an anti-slavery paper started in Boston in 1831 by William Lloyd Garrison. 2. A title given, by common consent, to Garrison. 3. The title afterwards applied also to Abraham Lincoln.

Liberia.—The Negro Republic of Liberia is situated on the West Coast of Africa, from French Guinea (8° 25′ N. latitude) southward to the coast and between the British Colony of Sierra Leone and the French Ivory Coast Colony, the eastern boundary being partly marked by the right bank of the Cavalla River. The extreme geographical limits are 11° 32′-7° 33′ W. longitude and 4° 25′-8° 25′ N. latitude. The area is about 40,000 square miles, with 350 miles of coast line. The population is between 1,500,000 and 2,000,000.

Physical Features.—The coastal regions are marked by abrupt hills from 200 to 1,000 feet above sea level, with low-lying land intervening, in which are creeks and swamps; but the interior is generally hilly, and the hinterland is believed to contain mountains exceeding 6,000 feet above sea level.

The Cavalla River, which forms the eastern boundary with French territory for about 150 miles from its mouth, is navigable some eighty miles from the coast.

There are no railways and few roads, but motor roads are being constructed to link up the interior with the navigable rivers.

History.—Liberia owes its origin to the efforts of European and American colonization societies to found a home for freed American slaves. In 1822, a settlement was made near the present site of Monrovia, and in 1847 the colony declared its independence as the Republic of Liberia.

Government.—The constitution is based upon that of the United States. The natives of the country have practically no share in the Government, although they are entitled to the franchise. The executive is vested in a President, who has a cabinet of six, and the legislative in a Congress. In 1910, an agreement was reached whereby the United States undertook the reorganization of the Liberian finances. A loan was arranged and the customs were placed under United States supervision.

In 1912, an international loan of $1,700,000 was raised, guaranteed chiefly by the rubber tax, and the United States agreed to designate officers to organize a defense force.

Ethnography.—The inhabitants consist of about 10,000 descendants of repatriated American negroes included in an indigenous population of about 2,000,000 of various negro tribes. The Americo-Liberian peoples and about 40,000 of the indigenous tribes are civilized and belong to the Protestant Christian faith, but many of the native tribes are Mohammedans, and cannibal rites are practiced by some of the tribes in the interior. English is the official language of the Republic.

Finance.—The most recent budget has been in the neighborhood of $275,000 annually. The public debt is $2,132,000.

Production and Trade.—The soil is extraordinarily fertile, but the country is covered with dense forests from a distance of about twenty miles from the coast to the northern boundaries. Occasional clearings have been made, and cocoa, coffee, and cotton are grown. The forest products include rubber and palm-oil. Minerals of great variety are believed to exist, including gold, iron, copper, and zinc. The principal exports are coffee, cocoa, palm-kernels, palm-oil, ivory, piassava, rubber, and camwood; the principal imports are cottons, haberdashery, salt, rice, provisions, arms and ammunition, tobacco, hardware, glass and earthenware, rum, gin, timber and beads. The most recent figures show an annual rubber exportation of 70,000 pounds. In normal years, the imports and exports each amount to about $1,000,000.

For the last year for which figures are available, the United States imported from Liberia goods valued at $173,000 and exported to Liberia goods valued at $213,000.

Cities.—Capital, Monrovia. Population, 6,000. There are sixteen ports of entry among the 350 miles of coast, of which the most important are Robertsport, Monrovia, Marshall, Grand Bassa, River Cess, Sino, Nanakroo, Sasstown, Grand Cess, and Harper.

Liberia:
Boundary dispute with Great Britain, 4716, 4762.
Colony in, 2133.
Conditions in, and expedition to, discussed, 7412.
Disorders in, suppression of, by American naval officers, 7495.
Expedition to, report of, 7479.
French encroachments upon territory of, action of United States regarding, discussed, 5751, 5870.
Improvement in, measures for, discussed, 7495.
Independence of, recognition of, by United States, recommended, 3248.
Loan to ameliorate conditions in, found by American commission, 7669.
Removal of negroes captured on coast of Cuba to, recommended, 3058.
Treaty with, 3329, 3346.
United States' assistance to, 7495, 7783.
Vessel to, presentation of, recommended, 3445, 5086.
Weakness of, discussed, 5086.

Liberia, Treaty With.—A treaty of commerce and navigation was concluded in 1862, which provides for freedom of commerce and navigation in the usual terms of such conventions. Trade is permitted without unusual restrictions; taxes are to be equitable and uniform; importation and exportation are in no wise restricted by discrimination, and regardless of the nationality of the carrying vessel; humane treatment of ship-wrecked mariners is provided for; disputes arising regarding salvage are to be settled by arbitration; privileges granted hereafter by treaty to other Powers are to be accorded to the United States; consuls for the protection of trade are to be appointed to reside within the dominions of the contracting parties; the United States is not to interfere in affairs of administration in Liberia, but if the Liberian government at any time is unable to control the aboriginal inhabitants within its own dominions and makes requisition for assistance from the United States, that Power pledges itself to render the necessary aid.

Liberty Bell.—The bell on the Pennsylvania statehouse at Philadelphia, which, according to tradition, was rung on July 4, 1776, to announce the adoption of the Declaration of Independence. It was cast in London and sent to Philadelphia in 1752. The bell was broken up and recast in April, and again in June, of the following year. It was cracked July 8, 1835, while being tolled in memory of Chief Justice Marshall. The Liberty bell was placed on exhibition at the Centennial at Philadelphia in 1876, and at the Columbia

Exposition in Chicago in 1893. It bears the motto, "Proclaim liberty throughout the land unto all the inhabitants thereof." It is now in Independence Hall, Philadelphia.

Liberty Day proclaimed, 8365, 8490, 8588.

Liberty Loan Campaign in Wall Street, illustration of, 8570.

Liberty Loans.—The five popular loans floated in the United States during the war against Germany for the purpose of meeting the expenses of the war. The last loan was floated after hostilities had ceased and an armistice was in effect, and was popularly known as the Victory Liberty Loan, or the Victory Loan. For the purposes of the loans, the division of the country into the twelve federal reserve banking systems was utilized. Each district was assigned its quota, and, except in the case of the last loan and the first loan, each district oversubscribed its quota. Appeals for subscriptions were made during the loan campaigns in public places; through business, social, religious, fraternal and other associations; and through banks.

After the loans had been floated, the Liberty Bonds declined in value on stock exchanges, and in 1920 fell as low as 85 for the bonds of the Second Loan, and to 95 for the bonds of the Victory Loan, with proportionate reductions for the other issues.

The First Liberty Loan's interest rate is 3½%, with the provision that it will be raised equal to any higher rate of interest which may be paid on later loans. Bearer bonds were offered in amounts of $50, $100, $500, and $1,000; and registered bonds from denominations of $100 to $100,000. The bonds mature in 30 years from the date of issue, June 15, 1917, but are redeemable in whole or in part, at the option of the United States, on or after 15 years, at par and accrued interest. 2% of the amount of the bonds was payable on application, 18% on June 28, 20% July 30, 30% August 15, and 30% August 30. Interest is payable on June 15 and December 15 of each year. Bonds are exempt from all Federal, State and local taxation, excepting estate and inheritance taxes. When subscriptions were closed on June 15, it was found that the loan had been largely over-subscribed.

The Second Liberty Loan campaign occupied most of the month of October, 1917. The details were much the same as those of the First Loan, as described above; but the rate of interest was 4%, thus automatically making the rate of interest for the First Liberty Bonds increase to this rate. The minimum subscription was placed at $3,000,000,000; and it was announced that half of the subscriptions between this sum and $5,000,000,000 would also be issued. Total subscriptions by the public amounted to $4,617,532,300; so that the amount issued became $3,808,766,150. Nine and one-half million persons subscribed. The bonds mature on November 15, 1942, but may be redeemed after November 15, 1927.

The Third Liberty Loan campaign was inaugurated on April 6, 1918, the first anniversary of the entrance of the United States into the European War. The campaign closed on the following May 4. The amount of the loan was $3,000,000,000 and oversubscriptions, and the rate of interest was 4¼%, to which the bonds of the First and Second Liberty Loans were as a consequence converted. The bonds were issued to mature in ten years from the date of issue. Five per cent of the amount subscribed for the various bonds was due on subscription, 20% on the following May 28, 35% on the following July 18, and 40% on the following August 15. The lowest denomination of the bonds of the Third Liberty Loan was $50.

The bonds of the Third Liberty Loan were not convertible to any higher rate of interest.

The total subscriptions to the Third Liberty Loan were $4,176,517,550, an oversubscription of 39%, every federal reserve district oversubscribing its quota. The number of subscribers was about 17,000,000, as compared with about 9,500,000 in the Second Loan and 4,500,000 in the First. The bonds mature on September 15, 1928, and are not redeemable before maturity.

The Fourth Liberty Loan campaign took place from September 28, 1918 to the following October 19. There were coupon bonds of $50, $100, $500, $1,000, $5,000 and $10,000, with registered bonds of $50,000 and $100,000. The rate of interest is 4¼%, not convertible to higher interest rate bonds. The bonds mature on October 15, 1938, but may be redeemed after October 15, 1933. The amount offered was $6,000,000, but $6,992,927,100 was offered and was allotted.

The Victory Liberty Loan was offered in April, 1919. The amount offered was $4,500,000, and the amount subscribed was $5,249,908,300 with the amount allotted finally fixed at $4,498,312,650. The bonds mature on May 20, 1923, but may be redeemed on June 15 or on December 15, 1922. The notes were issued in two denominations—one at 3¾%, of which the principal and interest are exempt from all taxation except inheritance taxes; and one at 4¾%, exempt from all federal, state and local taxation except inheritance, surtaxes, and war and excess profits taxes.

Tax Exemption.—The unconverted 3½% bonds of the First Loan and the 3¾% notes of the Victory issue are exempt from all taxation, except inheritance taxes. This applies to both principal and interest. On the other bonds, principal and interest are exempt from all taxation except inheritance taxes, surtaxes, excess and war profits taxes.

In addition, an *original subscriber* to the Fourth Liberty Loan for an amount up to $30,000 (if still owned at the time of the tax return) until 2 years after the official end of the war is exempt from all except inheritance taxation on the interest of the principal of the following bonds then owned, up to 1½ times his subscription to the Fourth Loan:—Third Liberty 4¼%, First Liberty Converted 4%, First Liberty Converted 4¼%, Second Liberty 4%, Second Liberty Converted 4¼%.

Also, on the Fourth Liberty 4¼% bonds and on the First Liberty Second Converted 4¼% bonds, the interest on a principal amount up to $30,000 is exempt from all except inheritance taxation until 2 years after the official end of the war. This tax exemption for these bonds only is not dependent on original subscription.

The Third Liberty 4¼% bonds and the First and Second Liberty Converted 4¼% bonds are receivable at par and accrued interest in payment of federal inheritance taxes, if owned by a person continuously for six months before his death. The same provision applies to the Fourth 4¼% bonds, the First Second Converted 4¼% bonds and the Victory 4¾% notes, except

Totals All Loans.

	Quota.	Subscription.	Oversubscription.
Boston	$ 1,635,000,000	$ 2,221,316,100	36%
New York	5,550,000,000	7,659,948,600	38%
Philadelphia	1,515,000,000	1,995,142,750	32%
Cleveland	1,830,000,000	2,376,117,100	30%
Richmond	820,000,000	1,075,043,700	31%
Atlanta	566,000,000	646,459,400	14%
Chicago	2,627,500,000	3,293,184,450	25%
St. Louis	785,000,000	977,071,800	24%
Minneapolis	657,500,000	809,823,400	38%
Kansas City	805,000,000	938,615,950	16%
Dallas	415,500,000	476,518,050	15%
San Francisco	1,263,500,000	1,534,389,950	21%
Total	$18,500,000,000	$24,067,889,150	30%
Number of subscribers		65,000,000	
Amount allotted		$21,474,329,900	

Fifth Loan.

	Quota.	Subscription.	Oversubscription.
Boston	$ 375,000,000	$ 425,159,950	13%
New York	1,350,000,000	1,762,684,900	31%
Philadelphia	375,000,000	422,756,100	13%
Cleveland	450,000,000	496,750,650	10%
Richmond	210,000,000	225,146,850	7%
Atlanta	144,000,000	143,032,050	....
Chicago	652,500,000	772,046,550	18%
St. Louis	195,000,000	210,431,950	8%
Minneapolis	157,500,000	176,114,850	12%
Kansas City	195,000,000	197,989,100	2%
Dallas	94,500,000	87,504,250	....
San Francisco	301,500,000	319,120,800	6%
Total	$4,500,000,000	$5,249,908,300**	15%
Number of subscribers		12,000,000	
Amount allotted	$4,500,000,000†		

Fourth Loan.

	Quota.	Subscription.	Oversubscription.
Boston	$ 500,000,000	$ 632,221,850	26%
New York	1,800,000,000	2,044,778,600	13%
Philadelphia	500,000,000	598,763,650	20%
Cleveland	600,000,000	702,059,800	17%
Richmond	280,000,000	352,688,200	26%
Atlanta	192,000,000	217,885,200	13%
Chicago	870,000,000	969,209,000	11%
St. Louis	260,000,000	296,388,500	14%
Minneapolis	210,000,000	241,628,300	15%
Kansas City	260,000,000	294,649,450	13%
Dallas	126,000,000	145,944,450	16%
San Francisco	402,000,000	459,000,000	14%
Total	$6,000,000,000	$6,954,875,200*	16%
Number of subscribers		21,300,000	
Amount allotted	$6,989,047,000		

Third Loan.

	Quota.	Subscription.	Oversubscription.
Boston	$ 250,000,000	$ 354,537,250	42%
New York	900,000,000	1,115,243,650	42%
Philadelphia	250,000,000	361,963,500	45%
Cleveland	300,000,000	405,051,150	35%
Richmond	130,000,000	186,259,050	43%
Atlanta	90,000,000	137,649,450	53%
Chicago	425,000,000	608,878,600	43%
St. Louis	130,000,000	199,835,900	54%
Minneapolis	105,000,000	180,892,100	72%
Kansas City	130,000,000	204,092,800	56%
Dallas	80,000,000	116,220,650	45%
San Francisco	210,000,000	287,975,000	37%
Total	$3,000,000,000	$4,176,516,750	38%
Number of subscribers		18,300,000	
Amount allotted	$4,176,516,750		

Second Loan.

	Quota.	Subscription.	Oversubscription.
Boston	$ 300,000,000	$ 476,950,050	59%
New York	900,000,000	1,550,453,450	72%
Philadelphia	900,000,000	380,350,250	52%
Cleveland	300,000,000	486,106,800	62%
Richmond	120,000,000	201,212,500	68%
Atlanta	80,000,000	90,695,750	13%
Chicago	420,000,000	585,853,350	39%
St. Louis	120,000,000	184,280,750	54%
Minneapolis	105,000,000	140,932,650	34%
Kansas City	120,000,000	150,125,750	25%
Dallas	75,000,000	77,899,850	4%
San Francisco	210,000,000	292,671,150	39%
Total	$3,000,000,000	$4,617,532,200	54%
Number of subscribers		9,400,000	
Amount allotted	$3,808,766,150		

First Loan.

	Quota.	Subscription.	Oversubscription.
Boston	$ 210,000,000	$ 332,447,000	59%
New York	600,000,000	1,186,788,000	97%
Philadelphia	140,000,000	231,309,250	66%
Cleveland	180,000,000	286,148,700	56%
Richmond	80,000,000	109,737,100	35%
Atlanta	60,000,000	57,196,950	....
Chicago	260,000,000	357,196,950	38%
St. Louis	80,000,000	86,134,700	7%
Minneapolis	80,000,000	70,255,500	....
Kansas City	100,000,000	91,758,850	....
Dallas	40,000,000	48,948,850	22%
San Francisco	140,000,000	175,623,000	25%
Total	$2,000,000,000	$3,035,226,850	51%
Number of subscribers		4,000,000	
Amount allotted	$2,000,000,000		

*Does not include $33,829,850 U. S. Treasury subscriptions.
**Includes $11,140,300 U. S. Treasury subscriptions. †Approximately.

that they are receivable at par for such taxation.

Moreover, an *original subscriber* to the Victory Notes, 3¾% or 4¾%, if still owned at the date of tax return, is exempt from all except inheritance taxation on the interest received on and after January 1, 1919, on an aggregate principal of all Liberty 4% and 4¼% bonds up to $20,000, but not exceeding three times his original subscription to the Victory Loan.

Also, interest on an aggregate principal up to $5,000 of all Liberty 4% and 4¼% bonds and Treasury and War Savings Certificates, is exempt from all except inheritance taxation until maturity. Interest re-

ceived on and after January 1, 1919, on an aggregate principal up to $30,000 of all Liberty 4% and 4¼% bonds is exempt from all except inheritance taxation until five years after the official end of the War.

Accordingly, until 2 years after the official end of the War, exemption from all taxation except inheritance taxation may be obtained on a maximum principal of $105,000, made up of $30,000 First Liberty Second Converted 4¼% bonds, $30,000 Fourth Liberty 4¼% bonds and $45,000 First, Second or Third Liberty 4% or 4¼% bonds. Until 5 years after the official end of the War, exemption may be obtained on the interest of a maximum principal of $50,000. Until maturity, such exemption may be obtained on the interest of an aggregate principal of $5,000 of all Liberty 4% or 4¼% bonds and Treasury and War Savings Certificates.

Note.—The term "inheritance taxation" above includes also estate taxes.

The quotas, subscriptions, amounts assigned and number of subscribers to the four Liberty Loans are given in the adjoining table.

Liberty Loans discussed and urged upon people, 8481, 8627, 8702. (See also Liberty Day.)

Liberty Party.—A party organized in 1840 principally for the purpose of opposing slavery. It was the outgrowth of the National Anti-Slavery Society (q. v.), and finally became the Abolition Party (q. v.).

Liberty, Statue of.—A bronze image of a female figure holding aloft a lighted torch, designed by M. Bartholdi for the Franco-American Union in 1874, at an estimated cost of $250,000. It was paid for by popular subscription in France and presented by the French people to the United States as a token of the traditional friendship of the two nations. It was mounted upon a pedestal built by popular subscription in America and erected on Bedloe's Island in New York Harbor, in 1886, at a cost of some $350,000. The lighted torch is maintained by the United States Lighthouse Service.

The height from the water level to the top of the pedestal is 149 feet and 10 inches, and the height of the statue proper is 151 feet 5 inches, making a total height of 301 feet 3 inches. The statue weighs 450,000 pounds. Forty persons may stand within the head, and twelve within the torch.

Liberty Enlightening the World, statue of, erected in New York Harbor, by citizens of France, 4381, 4824, 5083.

Ceremonies of inauguration discussed and recommendations regarding, 4982.

To be placed under superintendence of Light-House Board, 5080.

Libraries. (See Interior Department; Library of Congress; State Department.)

Libraries, Public, discussed, 6676.

Library, Latin American, establishment of, at Washington, recommended by International American Conference, 5506.

Library of Congress.—When the seat of Government was removed to Washington in 1800, the idea of a Congressional Library was conceived. In December, 1801, John Randolph made a report which formed the basis of an act of Congress of 1802 organizing the library. Some 3,000 books of reference were accumulated, when, in August, 1814, the British army burned the Capitol and the Library was consumed. In 1815 Congress purchased the private library of Thomas Jefferson, consisting of 6,700 volumes, for $23,950. An annual appropriation being made for the purchase of books, the Library continued to grow until in 1851 it numbered 55,000 volumes. Dec. 24th of that year a second conflagration destroyed 35,000 of these volumes. An appropriation of $72,000 was made for repairs, and the Library grew apace. In 1866, 40,000 volumes were transferred from the Smithsonian Institution. The following year Congress purchased for $100,000 the historical collection of Peter Force, very rich in Americana. This library contained nearly 60,000 books, pamphlets and manuscripts. In 1864 President Lincoln appointed Ainsworth R. Spofford to be Librarian, and he was succeeded in 1897 by John Russell Young, who died in 1899, and Herbert Putnam was appointed his successor. One hundred sets of Government publications are at the disposal of the Librarian of Congress for exchange, through the Smithsonian, with foreign Governments, and from this source are received about 12,000 volumes annually.

At latest reports, the Library contained 2,451,974 books, 154,200 charts and maps, 770,000 pieces and collections of music, and 392,905 prints.

The collection of manuscripts, touching every period of American history, includes the papers of nine of the Presidents and the records of the Continental Congress, with numerous other important groups—political, military, naval and commercial.

The Smithsonian deposit is strong in scientific works, and includes the largest assemblage of the transactions of learned societies which exists in this country.

Of the printed books, probably one-sixth are duplicates not in use.

The building containing the Library is an enormous structure in the Italian Renaissance style of architecture, most impressive in its lines and beautiful in its detail. It is in the form of a quadrangle enclosing a central rotunda surmounted by a low gilded dome. The building was begun in 1886 and completed in 1897, at the cost of $6,180,000. It is probably the most ornate and beautiful library building in the world. The public reading room occupies the rotunda. It consists of an octagonal hall one hundred feet in diameter, sumptuously built of soft-tinted Numidian, Sienna and Tennessee marble in variegated hues. In the decorations, some forty painters and sculptors are represented—all American citizens. The floor space is 326,195 sq. feet, or nearly eight acres. The book stacks contain about 56 miles of shelving, affording space for 2,600,000 octavo volumes. The reading desks are arranged in concentric circles about the Librarian's desk in the center, from which easy communication is had to all parts of the fireproof iron book stacks. The Library of Congress has been since 1870 the only office of record for copyrights, and its accessions from that source are very large. (See illustration, frontispiece, Vol. XV.)

Library of Congress:
Activities of, 6676.
Arundel manuscripts, copy of, to be placed in, 1445.
Building for, recommended by President—
Arthur, 4651.
Cleveland, 4949.
Hayes, 4431, 4458, 4531, 4579.
Publications presented to, referred to, 3347.
Size of, 6676.

Licenses for Vessels, prohibitory laws in regard to, 480, 504, 508.

Licensing under the Food and Fuel Administrations. (See Food Administration and Fuel Administration.)

Liechtenstein.—Liechtenstein is an independent Principality on the right bank of the Lower Rhine, south of Lake Constance, and between the Swiss cantons of St. Gall and Graubünden and the Voralberg crownland of the Austrian Empire. The western boundary is the Rhine, and the southern boundary runs along the summits of the Naafkopf Faiknis and Mittags-Spitze, in the Rhätikon Range. A railway runs from Buchs (Switzerland) to Feldkirch (Austria) with stations at Schaan, Nendeln, and Schaanwald in the Principality. The inhabitants numbered 10,716 in 1911, of German origin and almost all Roman Catholics. Agriculture is the principal industry, corn, wine and turf being produced, together with timber from the forest slopes; textiles and embroidery are locally manufactured. The revenue in 1915 was $231,000 and the expenditure was very slightly less. There is no public debt, and, since 1886, no state army.

Liechtenstein is particularly noted for its fine cattle, reared on the Alpine pastures.

Government. The government is that of a constitutional monarchy, the crown being hereditary (since 1719) in the male line of the house of Liechtenstein. Ruler: His Serene Highness Prince Johann II., Prince of Liechtenstein, Duke of Troppau and of Jägerndorf, born Oct. 5, 1840; succeeded his father Prince Aloysius, Nov. 12, 1858; Member of the Herrenhaus of the Austrian Reichsrat.

There is a Diet of fifteen members (of whom three are appointed by the Prince and twelve elected by indirect vote), meeting annually in October, with a maximum duration of four years. The local courts are subject to a Court of Appeal at Vienna, and the Supreme Court is the Oberlandesgericht at Innsbruck.

History.—From 1719-1806 the Principality formed part of the Holy Roman Empire and from 1806-1815 of the Confederation of the Rhine. From 1815-1866 it was part of the Germanic Confederation under the hegemony of Austria, but since 1866 the Principality has been independent, although closely connected by treaties with the Austrian Empire. In November, 1918, the Diet proclaimed the complete independence of the country.

Lieutenant-General.—In the United States Army the rank next below that of general and next above that of major-general. It was first authorized by Congress in 1798 and bestowed upon George Washington. It was abolished in 1799, and was not revived until 1855, when Winfield Scott was brevetted lieutenant-general. At his death it again lapsed. In 1864 it was revived by special act of Congress and conferred upon Ulysses S. Grant, on whose promotion to the grade of general, July 25, 1866, created in his behalf, William T. Sherman became lieutenant-general; and on his succession to the rank of general, March 4, 1869, Philip H. Sheridan was promoted to be lieutenant-general. On the retirement of Sherman, in 1884, the grade of lieutenant-general was discontinued and merged with that of general. By an act of Feb. 5, 1895, it was revived and John M. Schofield appointed, who held it until his retirement, Sept. 29th, of that year. On June 6, 1900, Congress provided that the senior major-general commanding the army should have the rank and pay of the lieutenant-general, the act affecting Major-General Nelson A. Miles, who retired Aug. 8, 1903. On that date Samuel B. M. Young received the commission of lieutenant-general, and on Jan. 9, 1904, it was given to Adna R. Chaffee. He was succeeded by Major-General Arthur MacArthur, and with his retirement on June 2, 1909, the rank again lapsed. During the United States' participation in the World War, the rank of lieutenant-general was bestowed upon Hunter Liggett and Robert Lee Bullard, commanders of the First and Second American Armies of the American Expeditionary Forces, respectively.

Life, Liberty and the Pursuit of Happiness announced as the inalienable rights of all men in the Declaration of Independence, 1.

Life Insurance. (See Insurance, Life.)

Life-Saving Medals, government grant of, 6896.

Life-Saving Service.—The ocean and lake coasts of the United States are picketed with the stations of the Life-Saving Service attached to the United States Treasury Department, and there is a corps of inspectors, superintendents, station keepers and crews, extending over the entire coast line, together with a board on life-saving appliances, composed of experts selected from the Life-Saving Service, the Revenue Cutter Service, and the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey and the Army.

In January, 1915, the Life-Saving Service was combined with the Revenue Cutter Service (q. v.) to form the Coast Guard. (See Coast Guard.)

Life-Saving Service
Consolidation of, with Light-House Service urged, 7738.
Discussed, 4931, 6158.
Pensions in, 7013.

Light-House Board:
Progress of, 2747.
Reorganization of, effect of, 7437, 7539.
Referred to, 2747.
Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World to be placed under Superintendence of, 5080.

Light-Houses:
Abaco Island, negotiations with Bahamas for site on, 845.

Act making appropriation for, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 1071.
Cession of, to United States act of New Hampshire legislature for, 102.
Establishment of, and sites for, 182; by an act approved June 17, 1910, reorganized the service and, 678, 873, 955, 960, 1239, 2557.
Lands for—
Designated by proclamation, 1221, 6701, 6702, 6705.
Erection of, negotiations for cession of, 103, 845.
Purchase of, 1733.
On Bahamas, 1239.
On Sandy Hook, 67, 80.
Permanent points for, on coasts of Oregon, Washington, and Alaska, 3902.
Soil and jurisdiction for, complete cession of, required, 142.
System of improvement in, 1683.
Treaty with Morocco concerning maintenance of, on Cape Spartel, 3582.
Virgin Islands, on, 8319.

Light-House Service.—Formerly the management of the light-houses was intrusted to a light-house board, organized in conformity to the act of Congress of Aug. 31, 1852. It consisted of the head of the Treasury Department (later of the Department of Commerce and Labor), three officers of the army, two naval and a civilian member. The head of the department was ex-officio president of the board, and the ranking naval officer was chairman. There were two secretaries, one a naval officer and one an engineer officer of the army. That system involved divided responsibility, and resulted in much friction in administration. Congress, therefore, by an act approved June 17, 1910, recognized the service and abolished the board and created a Bureau of Light-Houses in the Department of Commerce and Labor, with a commissioner in charge directly responsible to the Secretary of Commerce and Labor.

The Bureau is charged with the establishment and maintenance of light-houses, light-vessels, buoys and other aids to navigation on the coasts and rivers of the United States, as authorized by Congress, and with the direction of the officers, depots and tenders required in this work.

Under the old system there were sixteen light-house districts, each in charge of an army or navy officer. The law of 1910 provided that nineteen districts should be created, each in charge of a civilian inspector, but the president was authorized for a period of three years, from July 1, 1910, to assign army and navy officers to act as district inspectors.

During last year, the Service maintained 5,665 lighted aids to navigation, including 1,768 lights, 3,132 minor lights, 50 light-vessel stations, 553 gas buoys, and 162 float lights; and 10,410 unlighted aids, including 534 fog signals, 49 submarine signals, 79 whistling buoys, 245 bell buoys, 7,055 other buoys, and 2,448 day beacons—a grand total of 16,075.

At latest reports, there were about 6,000 employees in the Service. The cost of maintenance for the last year was $5,841,116 and the cost of betterment was $1,750,080—a total of $7,591,196.

Light-House Service:
Consolidation of, with Life-Saving Service urged, 7738.
Transfer of, from Treasury to Navy Department urged, 4727.
Likin, abolition of, in China, 7418.
Lillie, The, compensation to owners of, 6730, 6824.

Lincoln, Abraham.—March 4, 1861-April 15, 1865.

(FIRST TERM, 1861-1865.)
Nineteenth Administration—Republican.

Vice-President—Hannibal Hamlin.

Secretary of State—
William H. Seward.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Salmon P. Chase.
William Pitt Fessenden.

Secretary of War—
Simon Cameron.
Edwin M. Stanton.

Secretary of the Navy—
Gideon Welles.

Secretary of the Interior—
Caleb B. Smith.
John P. Usher.

Postmaster-General—
Montgomery Blair.
William Dennison.

Attorney-General—
Edward Bates.
T. J. Coffey.
James Speed.

Nomination and Election.—Lincoln was first elected by the Republican party Nov. 6, 1860. The Republican National Convention met at Chicago, May 16, 1860, and on the third ballot nominated Lincoln over Seward, Cameron, and Chase.

Platform.—The platform condemned disunion; insisted on States Rights; denounced the Democratic administration; censured the reckless extravagance of the Democratic Government; proclaimed the dogma that the Constitution carries slavery into any or all of the territories to be a dangerous heresy; asserted that the Constitution does not countenance slavery nor should Congress give a legal existence to it; insisted upon the admission of Kansas to statehood; recommended tariff for revenue, with encouragement of the industries; protested against selling public lands already occupied by settlers; opposed any change in the naturalization laws; declared river and harbor appropriations to be both desirable and constitutional; and demanded a transcontinental railroad.

Opposition.—The Democratic National Convention met, for the first time in the far South, at Charleston, S. C. After many days of fruitless balloting, the convention divided into two sections. Eventually, the Northern half nominated Douglas and the Southern half declared for Breckinridge. The Constitutional Union Party met in national convention at Baltimore, May 19, 1860, and nominated John Bell, on a platform the basis of which was the recognition of no other political principles than the Constitution, Union, and the enforcement of laws.

Vote.—The popular vote as cast by thirty-three States gave Lincoln, 1,865,913; Breckinridge, 848,404; Douglas, 1,374,664, and Bell, 591,900. The electoral vote, counted Feb. 13, 1861, gave Lincoln, 180; Breckinridge, 72; Bell, 39, and Douglas, 12.

(SECOND TERM, MARCH 4, 1865-APRIL 15, 1865.)

Twentieth Administration—Republican.

Vice-President—Andrew Johnson.

The only change in the cabinet at the beginning of Lincoln's second term was the substitution of Hugh McCulloch, of Indiana, for Secretary of the Treasury to succeed Mr. Fessenden.

SECOND TERM.—In the election of 1864, Lincoln was renominated by the (Regular) Republican National Convention, which met in Baltimore on June 7, 1864.

Platform.—The Republican platform of 1864 pledged the party to preserve the Union; opposed any compromise with the rebels; demanded the utter and complete extirpation of slavery; gratefully acknowledged the services of the Army and the Navy in the war; commended the administration of Lincoln; advocated full and ample protection of the members of the Army and the Navy; encouraged immigration; urged speedy construction of the transcontinental railroad; urged the practice of rigid economy in the expenditure of Government funds; and deprecated European interference or offensive sympathy.

Opposition.—The Radical Republican party, opponents of Lincoln, met at Cleveland May 31 and nominated John C. Frémont; but, before the election, Frémont urged the support of Lincoln and withdrew. The Democratic National Convention at Chicago, Aug. 29, 1864, nominated George B. McClellan on a platform declaring that the Constitution had been violated during the Lincoln administration and urged the cessation of hostilities and the compromise of difficulties; condemned the military interference in some state elections; sympathized with prisoners of war; condemned the exercise of martial law; and expressed sympathy for the suffering soldiers and sailors, to whom future aid and reward was promised.

Vote.—The popular vote cast by twenty-four States gave Lincoln 2,216,067, and McClellan 1,808,725. The electoral vote, counted on Feb. 8, 1865, gave Lincoln 212 and McClellan 21.

Party Affiliation.—After Lincoln's service in the State legislature and his single term in Congress (1846-1848), he became one of the most influential of the Whig leaders in Illinois. The repeal of the Missouri Compromise (1854) brought him back into politics with intense anti-slavery ardor. When the Republican party was formed, Lincoln took his place as the head of that party in his state. Before the Republican Convention in 1858 he said: "A house divided against itself cannot stand. I believe this Government cannot endure half slave and half free. I do not expect the Union to be dissolved; I do not expect the house to fall; but I do expect that it will cease to be divided. It will become all the one thing or all the other. Either the opponents of slavery will arrest the further spread of it and place it where the public mind shall rest in the belief that it is in course of ultimate extinction, or its advocates will push it forward until it shall become alike lawful in all the states, old as well as new, North as well as South."

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the thirty-seventh Congress (1861-1863), the Senate, of 50 members, was composed of 11 Democrats, 31 Republicans, 7 Americans, and 1 vacancy, and the House, of 178 members, was made up of 42 Democrats, 106 Republicans, 28 Americans, and 2 vacancies. In the Thirty-eighth Congress (1863-1865), the Senate, of 51 members, was composed of 12 Democrats and 39 Republicans; and the House, of 183 members, was made up of 80 Democrats and 103 Republicans. In the Thirty-ninth Congress (1865-1867), the Senate, of 52 members, was composed of 10 Democrats and 42 Republicans; and the House, of 191 members, was made up of 46 Democrats and 145 Republicans. In the Fortieth Congress (1867-1869), the Senate, of 53 members, was composed of 11 Democrats and 42 Republicans; and the House, of 193 members, was made up of 49 Democrats, 143 Republicans, and 1 vacancy.

Foreign Policy.—In speaking of the attitude of foreign nations toward the United States during the war, President Lincoln said in his Second Annual Message (page 3327) that the commercial and social conditions of other nations with whom we have had relations have been disturbed by the war, and adds: "We have attempted no propagandism and acknowledge no revolution. But we have left to every nation the exclusive conduct and management of its own affairs. Our struggle has been, of course, contemplated by foreign nations with reference less to its own merits than to its supposed and often exaggerated effects and consequences resulting to those nations themselves. Nevertheless, complaint on the part of this Government, even if it were just, would certainly be unwise."

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the administration of President Lincoln stood as follows: July 1, 1861, $90,580,873.72; 1862, $524,176,412.13; 1863, $1,119,772,138.63; 1864, $1,815,784,370.57; 1865, $2,680,647,869.74.

Tariff.—The principal tariff changes in President Lincoln's administration were made by the act of Aug. 5, 1861, "to provide increased revenue from imports, to pay interest on the public debt, and for other purposes." This levied a direct tax on both states and territories and provided for what is believed to be the first income tax ever levied by the general government of the United States. This income tax amounted to three per cent per annum on all income in excess of eight hundred dollars. The act of Dec. 24, 1861, imposed increased duties on tea, coffee, and sugar. That of July 14, 1862, was an act "increasing, temporarily, the duties on imports and for other purposes." The act of March 13, 1863, "to modify existing laws imposing duties on imports, and for other purposes," made slight increases. Duties were further increased by the act of June 30, 1864, and that of March 3, 1865.

Slavery.—In his Inaugural Address (page 3206), President Lincoln sought to assure the people of the Southern states that they had nothing to fear from a Republican administration. He quotes from one of his former speeches: "I have no purpose, directly or indirectly, to interfere with the institution of slavery in the states where it exists. I believe I have no lawful right to do so, and I have no inclination to do so." He holds the Constitution to be clear on the question of surren-

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT LINCOLN, 1861-1865.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)

FLAG OF 1865

dering fugitive slaves and states that the difference of opinion rests only on whose authority and how the surrender shall be made. He insists upon the integrity of the Union; that no state has the power to secede lawfully and that the Union is not broken by such declaration of secession on the part of any one state. In urging upon the people not to plunge the country into civil war, he said: "You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in Heaven to destroy the Government, while I shall have the most solemn one to 'preserve, protect, and defend it.'" In the earlier stages of the war, the President was besought by both great parties in the country on the one hand to adopt radical measures to stop slavery and on the other to pursue conservative paths. It was well known that he entertained a deep-rooted hatred of domestic servitude; but so great was his reverence for the law, so careful was he of vested rights and interests, and so desirous of retaining the support and confidence of the people, as an aid for the solution of the great problem, that he followed thus far a moderate course between the two extremes.

Emancipation.—In August, 1861, Congress passed the act confiscating the rights of slave-owners in slaves employed in hostile acts against the Union. Frémont followed with his order to emancipate the slaves in Missouri. Lincoln ordered this declaration to be modified to conform to the orders of Congress and by so doing angered the anti-slavery advocates in Missouri and displeased the more conservative advisers.

On March 6, 1862, the President sent a special message to Congress (page 3269) recommending the passage of a joint resolution bringing about the gradual emancipation of slaves by states, in return for which the states should receive pecuniary aid from the Government. Congress passed the resolution, but public opinion in the states was not ready to grasp this means. In April, Congress freed the slaves in the District of Columbia with compensation to owners—a measure which Lincoln had years before earnestly advocated.

The events of the war during 1862 forced upon Lincoln the conclusion that emancipation was the only means at his command. As early as July, 1862, he began to prepare the proclamation, and though urged by delegations to take the step, he waited until it would be possible to make the order effective and easily operative. Late in August, 1862, the President said: "My paramount object is to save the Union, and not either to save or destroy slavery. If I could save the Union without freeing any slave, I would do it; if I could save it by freeing all the slaves, I would do it; and if I could do it by freeing some and leaving others alone, I would also do that." The defeat of Lee at Antietam and his retreat into Maryland seemed to the President an opportune time to issue his proclamation of emancipation, and his preliminary proclamation was accordingly issued on Sept. 22, 1862 (page 3358).

In his Second Annual Message (page 3335), the President recommended to Congress the passage of a resolution offering "compensated emancipation." But Congress did not act promptly, and Jan. 1, 1863, saw the Proclamation of Emancipation issued (page 3358). There was much speculation as to the President's firmness of anti-slavery convictions, and some suggestions that under some circumstances he might withdraw this proclamation. But in his Fourth Annual Message (page 3456) he repeated his declaration of the previous year: "While I remain in my present position I shall not attempt to retract or modify the emancipation proclamation, nor shall I return to slavery any person who is free by the terms of that proclamation or by any of the acts of Congress," and he adds: "If the people should, by whatever mode or means, make it an Executive duty to reenslave such persons, another, and not I, must be their instrument to perform it." He concludes the message with the terse paragraph: "In stating a single condition of peace I mean simply to say that the war will cease on the part of the Government whenever it shall have ceased on the part of those who began it." Congress acted promptly on the President's suggestion and on Jan. 31, 1865, prepared and proposed to the states the Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution abolishing slavery, and this, before the end of the year, was ratified by twenty-seven of the thirty-six states.

Lincoln, Abraham:

Amnesty proclamation of, 3414.
Discussed, 3390, 3455.
Persons entitled to benefits of, defined by proclamation, 3419.
Referred to, 3508.
Annual messages of, 3245, 3327, 3380, 3444.
Assassination of. (See Biography of, 3206; Death of, *post*; Military Commission, etc., *post*.)
Biographical sketch of, 3204.
Birthday of, centenary of, made legal holiday, 6966.
Birthplace of, presented to War Department, 8160.
Centennial anniversary of birth of, proclaimed a special holiday by Roosevelt, 7344.
Character of, discussed by President Wilson, 8160.
Child of, death of, announced by Cabinet, 3266.
Constitutional amendment relative to gradual emancipation of slaves recommended by, 3337.
Death of (see also Military commission, etc., *post*.)—
Action of Congress on, 3497.
Action of Senators and Representatives in Washington on, 3490.
Announcement of, to Vice-President Johnson, 3485.
Announcements of, 3485.
Condolence of Bey of Tunis on, 3565.
Day of humiliation and mourning in memory of, appointed, 3504.
Order regarding, 3537.
Postponed, 3505.
Funeral announcement and official arrangements for, 3493, 3533.

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Lincoln Highway. (See Transcontinental Highways.)

Lincoln Memorial.—In February, 1911, Congress appropriated $2,000,000, later increased to $2,600,000, for a memorial in Washington, D. C., to the memory of Abraham Lincoln. A commission was appointed to take charge of the work, and its plans were adopted and approved in January, 1913. Construction was started on February 12, 1914, and the corner-stone of the Memorial was laid one year later. The entire Memorial was completed in 1918.

It is located at the end of the Mall in Potomac Park, on the axis of the United States Capitol and the Washington Monument. The plans were prepared by Henry Bacon, of New York City. The foundation of the Memorial is raised above the ground level about 45 feet; and on a base 168 feet by 231 feet is a simple but massive Greek temple. There is a central Memorial Hall, in which is a colossal statue of Lincoln by Daniel Chester French, and on either side of the hall are two smaller rooms.

Lincoln Memorial:
Address of President Harding at dedication of, 9127.
Illustrations of, opposite 9234, 9266.

Lincoln Memorial University.—This university was established by General O. O. Howard, from the suggestion of Abraham Lincoln himself, on Feb. 10, 1897. The institution is located at Cumberland Gap, Tenn., and exists for the education of the youth of the mountain stock from which Lincoln himself sprang.

Lindisfarne Claim submitted, 6934.

Lindsay & Co. vs. Montana Federation of Labor et al.—Lindsay & Co., wholesale dealers in fruits and vegetables, had been declared "unfair" by the Miners' Union and the Trades Assembly. This action was indorsed by the defendant, the Montana Federation, and a circular issued in which "all laboring men and those in sympathy with organized labor are requested not to patronize Lindsay & Co." The company secured an injunction forbidding this boycott, but the Supreme Court of the State vacated the injunction. It was shown that the plaintiff company's trade had suffered as a result of the boycott. The means of boycott in this case was the publication of the circular as quoted above. The court held that such publication by one person or by an association was perfectly legal, being an exercise of the right of free speech and free press.

The court defined the boycott as "the act of combination, in refusing to have business dealings with another, until he removes or ameliorates conditions which are deemed inimical to the welfare of the members of the combination, or some of them, or grants concessions which are deemed to make for that purpose." A conspiracy was defined as "a combination of two or more persons by some concerted action to accomplish a criminal or unlawful purpose, or to accomplish a purpose, not in itself criminal or unlawful, by criminal or unlawful means." The court held that the company did not have a property right in the trade of any particular person; hence any one person may rightfully withdraw his patronage. The court rejects the doctrine that an act perfectly lawful when done by one person becomes criminal when done by two or more persons acting in concert, and that this concerted action amounts to a conspiracy. If an individual is clothed with a right when acting alone, he does not lose such right merely by acting with others. Hence, if the defendants did not violate any legal right of the plaintiff in withdrawing their patronage, they cannot be enjoined from continuing the boycott in force, so long as the means to make it effective are not illegal.

Linen Industry.—The high prices of linen and of the flax fiber from which linen is made has centered attention on the necessity of establishing a real linen industry in this country, the greatest consumer of linen in the world. There seem to be two big problems which must be solved before success is assured. One is to find some artificial method of preparing the flax straw for the spinner, thus relieving the flax grower of this task, and the other is to convince the American public that American-made linen is as good as any other.

In the United States flax has been raised almost entirely for the seed, which is used to make the well-known linseed oil so necessary for the production of good paints and varnishes. Of some 3,000,000 acres of flax raised in this country in 1915, the Department of Agriculture estimates that only 2,000 acres were devoted to flax for fiber. The bulk of the straw from the seed-bearing plants is burned and used for fertilizer. It should be borne in mind, however, that flax growing for seed and flax growing for fiber are separate and distinct industries. Some flax is grown for both seed and fiber, but a decision must be made as to which is to be the more important product, just as the sheep raiser must decide whether mutton or wool is to be the primary consideration.

The 1919 federal census of manufactures showed a distinct decline in the linen industry in the United States in the preceding five-year period. The number of establishments decreased from 21 to 10; persons engaged, from 3,753 to 2,070; the capital, from $8,809,869 to $7,527,596; cost of materials, from $4,289,104 to $4,190,187. A slight increase was shown in salaries and wages, which were $1,964,967, and in value of products, which was $6,998,046.

Liquors (see also Distilled Spirits and Prohibition):
Alcoholic content of, limited, 8415.
Malt, proclamations regarding manufacture of, 8583, 8699.
Smuggling of, from Canada, suggestion on, rejected, 9236.
Traffic in, on Yap, forbidden, 9053.

Lisbon, Portugal, International Postal Congress at, discussed, 4938.

Lissa, island of, assigned to Italy, 8707, 8837.

Literacy Test of Immigrants (see also Immigration)—
Favored by President Roosevelt, 6651.
Opposed by President—
Taft, 7847.
Wilson, 8043.

Literature should be aided, 58, 60, 61.

Lithuania.—At the time when Lithuania passed into the control of Russia with the dissolution of Poland in 1793, it comprised a country of about 100,000 square miles, bounded on the north by Courland and Livonia, on the south by the Ukraine, on the west by Poland and extending on the east beyond the Dnieper. Under the old Russia, Lithuania comprised the Russian governments of Kovno, Vilna, Grodno, Vitebsk, Mogilev, Minsk, and Suwalka.

The Lithuanians form a distinct race, closely akin to the Letts. They are mostly Roman Catholics. It was estimated that there were in 1910 some 2,000,000 Lithuanians and 1,200,000 Letts. Other inhabitants of Lithuania are the Russians, the Poles and the Jews.

Lithuania consists chiefly of marshes and forests, and the land is generally unproductive. Its unattractive and almost impassable nature rendered it through the Middle Ages both immune from concerted outside attack and from the spread of knowledge and civilization. Indeed, the first definite historical Lithuanian figure does not appear on the pages of history until the thirteenth century, and the country was largely pagan as late as fifteenth century, when Roman Catholicism was established.

From 1375 to 1500 Poland and Lithuania had an alliance recognizing each as an independent government, and from the latter date until 1569 they were under the same ruler. In the latter year, however, Lithuania became incorporated in Poland (q. v.), its autonomy ended, and its later history is the history of Poland.

The tides of the European War swept through Lithuania for many months, but did not succeed in stamping out whatever had existed of a Lithuanian nationalistic movement. After the Russian Revolution in 1917, when the old Russia began to split up into separate nationalities, Lithuania asserted and maintained its right to its previous national independence.

With the military collapse of Russia in the European War, the forces of Germany overran Lithuania without opposition, and the entire country fell definitely under German influence. On December 12, 1917, the Lithuanian Landsrat announced the restoration of Lithuania as an independent state allied to the German power, bound by alliances and military and economic conventions. The independence of the country was officially proclaimed by Germany in May, 1918.

Litigation, measures to prevent delay and unnecessary cost of, 7692.

Little & Brown, contract with, for proposed edition of treaties, etc., referred to, 2273.

Little Belt, The. (See *President,* The.)

"Little Group of Wilful Men," denounced for impeding armed neutrality legislation in crisis, 8218.

Little Osage Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Little Rock, Ark., road from Cantonment Gibson to, referred to, 932.

Little Russia and Little Russians. (See Ukraine.)

Live-Oak Timber, quantity of, in United States, referred to, 1097.

Livonia. (See Baltic Provinces.)

Lizzie Major, The arrest of, by Spanish frigate, discussed, 3986.

Lizzie Thompson, The, claim arising out of capture of, 3353.

Loans (see also Bonds; Debt, Public):
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Adams, J. Q., 870, 924.
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Referred to, 1960.
To Mexico, discussed, 3264, 3282.
War-revenue act of 1898, authorizing, 6314.

Loans and Sinking Fund, Commissioner of, office of, should be abolished, 1382.

Lobby.—In political usage, the persons who frequent the halls of Congress or state legislatures—especially the lobbies and committee rooms, for the purpose of meeting legislators and persuading them to support measures desired by the principals employing the lobbyists. Their means of persua-

sion are usually mere arguments and appeals, but, in isolated instances, money or other valuable considerations are utilized. So long as the lobby confines itself to legitimate arguments, it is not properly objectionable, but is a means of carrying out the American right of petition.

Lobos Islands:

Controversy regarding, referred to, 2696, 2837, 2900.

Sovereignty of Peru over, acknowledged, 2703.

Local Government.—Sometimes written local and self-government. The regulation and administration of the local affairs of a city or district by the people of it, as distinguished from such regulation and administration by authority of the state or nation at large. The state was an institution of the Roman Empire, but the Teutonic tribes or nations developed a local government of their own, and gave the name "town" to language and the idea of "township" to constitutional law. As to whether the first English colonists in America derived the subdivision of the county known in England as town or township from the mother country there was no question until recently, when respectable authority was adduced for the statement that the Plymouth and Massachusetts Bay colonists, especially the former, who came directly from Holland, borrowed their local government system and several other institutions of high value from the Dutch Republic. Certain it is, nevertheless, that when the first settlements were made in this country England had well-developed forms of local government which served as a pattern, beyond doubt, for the Jamestown Colony, Va., and for some other colonies as well. The colony was subdivided into counties, the counties in some cases into hundreds, and the hundreds into parishes or townships. At the time of the colonization the parish of England had generally superseded the township. In the Southern colonies, where the plantation system prevailed and the people were scattered over a large area, the colonists, on their separation from England, retained the county system as being best suited to their population. In the New England Colonies, where population was more compact, the township government was retained. Thus two distinct types of local government prevailed in the United States—the township system in New England and the county system in the South. In the middle colonies a system of local government was instituted which combined the county and township system. This is now generally in use in the Western States.

Local Offices, elimination of, from politics, 7698.

Local Option.—A principle of law established in some of the United States by which the determination as to whether or not any licenses to sell intoxicating liquors shall be granted is submitted to a vote of the people of a town or other minor political community. If the people of any locality decide upon prohibition, it becomes a part of the state law for that community. Local option by states was suggested as a solution of the slavery question, and the Kansas-Nebraska law contained a provision to this effect.

Local Option. (See Prohibition.)

Lockouts. (See Labor Arbitration and Strikes.)

Loco-Focos.—The radical faction of the Democratic party in New York in 1835-1837. The Equal Rights faction was opposed to the granting of bank charters and special privileges to favorites of the Government, and the Tammany men supported the Administration. At a meeting held in Tammany Hall, New York, Oct. 29, 1835, the regular Tammany Democrats tried to gain control, but finding themselves outnumbered they turned out the lights and left the hall. The Equal Rights men produced candles and lighted them by the aid of "loco-foco" matches and continued the meeting. The word, at first used in derision of this faction, was later adopted by the Democratic party as an emblem of promptitude in an emergency, and it was also applied to the party sometimes in derision by their opponents.

Loewe vs. Lawlor et al.—Loewe & Co., hat manufacturers, of Danbury, Conn., brought suit against the United Hatters of North America to restrain the latter from prosecuting a boycott against the plaintiff's hats. The manufacturers had declared an open shop and discarded the use of the union label, whereupon their employees, belonging to the Hatters' Union, induced the latter to institute a boycott throughout the United States. The Supreme Court of the United States, overruling two lower courts, unanimously found in favor of the plaintiff company.

The contention was that the boycott, so called, constituted a combination in restraint of trade, and was, therefore, a violation of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law of 1890. The decision was based on Sec. 1 of that act, which declares "every contract combination in the form of a trust or otherwise, or conspiracy, in restraint of trade" to be illegal, and fixes punishment for violation at not more than $5,000 fine, or imprisonment for one year, or both; and on Sec. 2, which forbids monopoly and fixes similiar punishments; and Sec. 7, which provides that any person who is injured in his business through any act forbidden by this law may sue to recover threefold damages.

The court held that the trade union boycott was a "combination in restraint of trade among the several States" in that it obstructed the free flow of commerce and restricted the right of the plaintiff to engage in business, by trying to compel him to do business only in the way the union imposed. As the plaintiff company was able to show losses aggregating $80,000, as the result of the boycott, it was authorized to sue for $240,000.

Jan. 5, 1915, the Supreme Court for the third time confirmed the decision of the lower courts, granting damages to Loewe & Co. of $252,000, to be paid by the United Hatters.

Log-Cabin and Hard Cider Campaign.—A campaign slogan used by the Whigs during the candidacy of William Henry Harrison for President in 1840,—originated by the fact that a part of his house was originally a log-cabin, and that he served cider on his table instead of wines. This campaign is sometimes referred to as "The Hard Cider Campaign."

Log Rolling.—A term used with reference to legislative bodies where measures become laws as the result of trading votes. That is, where two or more members desire a measure in which no one else is interested, each supports all the measures proposed by the other or others in order to obtain suffi-

cient votes for his own. A noted example of "log rolling" is found in our early history: Hamilton wanted his financing plan approved in Congress, but cared less about the location of the Capitol; Jefferson wanted the Capitol located on the Potomac, but cared less about the financing plan. Each of them threw his support to the other, and each was successful.

London, England:
Exhibition in, works illustrative of, referred to, 2761.
Industrial exhibition to be held in, in 1862, discussed, 3233, 3254.
Circulars, etc., regarding, 3261.
Vessels to transport American exhibits recommended, 3262.
International Fisheries Exhibition to be held in, 4688.
International Inventions Exhibition to be held in, 4827.
International Penitentiary Congress at, 4162.
Smoke Abatement Exhibit at, 4695.

Lookout Mountain (Tenn.), Battle of.—The arrival of the two corps under Hooker and the army of Sherman at Chattanooga increased the strength of Grant's command to 80,000 men. At this critical time Longstreet, with 16,000 men, was detached from the Confederate army and sent to besiege Burnside at Knoxville, leaving Bragg with only about 5,000 men to hold the position. Nov. 24, 1863, to cover Sherman's crossing the Tennessee River and securing a position, Hooker, with 10,000 men, made an attack on the western slope of Lookout Mountain. During a heavy mist he pressed up the mountain side and attacked the position in front and rear, capturing about 1,000 prisoners. The Confederates retired from the mountain to Missionary Ridge.

Loose Constructionist.—The individual or political party construing the Constitution liberally and flexibly; the Federalists and the Whigs and the modern Republicans advocated loose or broad construction of the Constitution. (See Strict Constructionist.)

Lopez Expedition, pardon and release of members of, by Spain, 2678.

Lord Nelson, The, claim of James Crooks against the United States for seizure of, 4975, 5662.

Lorimer Case.—The right of William Lorimer, Republican, of Chicago, to hold his seat in the United States Senate, to which he had been elected by a combination of Democrats and Republicans in the Illinois legislature was challenged Jan. 9, 1911. The Committee on Privileges and Elections reported that the charges were not sustained. Senator Beveridge of the committee made a minority report contending that if only one case of bribery were established it invalidated the whole election. "The testimony is overwhelming," he declared, "not only that four members of the general assembly were bribed, but that three of their fellow members paid them their money. But these seven were not all of the tainted votes cast in the putrid transaction. The testimony shows that at least three additional corrupt votes were cast." After a long debate the Beveridge resolution was lost, March, 1911. The action of the Senate in affirming the legality of Lorimer's election was followed by official protest and public and private criticism from all parts of the country. The Illinois State Senate then made an investigation and found that Lorimer would not have been elected had it not been for bribery and corruption. Senator La Follette, of Wisconsin, reopened the case in the United States Senate April 6, 1911, and another investigation was carried on, both in Washington and Chicago, and Lorimer was expelled from the Senate in the spring of 1912.

Lottery.—The Continental Congress tried to raise money by lottery in 1777. As early as 1612 the Virginia Company was authorized by its charter to hold lotteries for the benefit of its colonization schemes. In the eighteenth century lotteries were extremely popular in America. Legislatures authorized them for building churches, schools and all sorts of public improvements. Faneuil Hall, in Boston, having been destroyed by fire in 1761, was rebuilt by lottery. The Louisiana State Lottery was the last authorized institution of the kind in the United States. Popular opinion has undergone a change regarding lotteries. They were forbidden in 1890 by act of Congress to use the mails. This act resulted in closing the Louisiana Lottery.

Lottery.—Continental Congress recommendations regarding, 5479, 5515.
Passage of act regarding, discussed, 5551.

Louisa, The, proceedings of court regarding, 895.

Louisiana.—One of the southern group of states; nickname, "The Pelican state"; motto, "Union, Justice and Confidence." It extends from the Gulf of Mexico northward to the thirty-third parallel of north latitude and from the eighty-ninth to the ninety-fourth meridian west longitude. It is bounded on the north by Arkansas and Mississippi, on the east by Mississippi (separated by the Mississippi River) and the Gulf of Mexico, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west by Texas (separated in part by the Sabine River). The area of the State is 48,506 square miles. Louisiana is the leading sugar state of the Union, besides which are exported cotton, rice, and corn.

Louisiana was explored by De Soto in 1541, by Marquette in 1673, and by La Salle in 1682. It was settled by the French under Iberville and Bienville about 1700, was ceded by France to Spain in 1763, retroceded to France in 1800, was purchased by the United States in 1803, and was made the Territory of New Orleans in 1804. The portion east of the Mississippi River was annexed in 1810. The State was admitted to the Union in 1812. Jan. 26, 1861, it seceded and joined the Southern Confederacy. It was readmitted by act of Congress June 25, 1868 (3856). (See also Louisiana Purchase.)

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 120,546, comprising 10,439,481 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $301,220,988. The average value of farm land per acre was $17.99, as compared with $17.74 in 1900. The value of domestic animals, poultry, etc., was $44,699,485, including 804,795 cattle, valued at $11,605,354; 181,286 horses, $11,789,695; 131,554 mules, $15,624,962; 1,327,605 swine, $3,824,046; 178,287 sheep, $343,046.

The latest figures for the annual agricultural production are as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Cotton	1,532,000	300,000a	$52,500,000
Corn	1,850,000	32,375,000	48,562,000
Rice	560,000	19,710,000	53,420,000
Potatoes	25,000	1,600,000	3,520,000
Hay	250,000	450,000b	10,350,000
Sweet Potatoes	70,000	6,300,000	7,245,000

a-bales; b-tons.

In 1918-9, the cane sugar production was estimated at 250,800 tons.

The latest figures show 215,000 horses, valued at $23,000,000; 166,000 mules, $27,224,000; 230,000 sheep, $1,242,000; 1,512,000 swine, $21,622,000; 378,000 cows, $25,326,000; 725,000 other cattle, $21,242,000. The last annual wool clip was 612,000 pounds.

The fisheries are important, especially the oyster fisheries, there being more than 7,000 acres suitable for oyster planting.

Of recent years, the annual mineral production has been around $25,000,000 in value. The chief product is petroleum, the last annual production being some 11,400,000 barrels. There are also rich sulphur deposits, which are worked. Another important mineral is rock salt.

In 1914, there were 2,211 manufacturing establishments, employing 77,665 persons, representing an investment of $260,000,000, and paying annually in wages some $40,000,000. The chief manufacturers are concerned with sugar (including molasses), cotton-seed, rice and lumber.

The population in 1910 was 1,656,388. According to the report of the 1920 census, it was 1,797,798.

Of the population in 1910 about 43% was negro. The white population is chiefly descended from the early French settlers, and, in contradistinction to the other Southern states, is largely Catholic. In 1910, there were some 52,000 foreign-born, of whom more than 20,000 were Italians. In 1910, 30% of the population was urban.

Recent figures show that the white school population was 310,500, of whom 222,073 were in attendance; and the negro school population was 227,500, of whom 98,000 were in attendance. There were 6,248 white teachers and 1,370 negro teachers. There are 3,023 public elementary schools and 197 high schools.

Louisiana (see also Confederate States; New Orleans):
Accession of, to United States, discussed and referred to, 346, 348, 350, 669, 853, 929, 957, 3255, 6346.
Effect of, discussed, 2878.
Appropriation for, 382.
Authority to grant or dispose of lands of Spain in, referred to, 651.
Boundaries of, 372, 377, 960.
Branch mint in, referred to, 1383, 1495.
Cession of, to France, referred to, 331, 338.
Colonel-commandant of, commissioned, 364.
Commission to, instruction of President Hayes to, 6341.
Constitution of, referred to, 3831.
Division of, into subordinate districts, 363.
Elections in, and complications growing out of, discussed, 4161, 4166, 4250, 4259.
Federal interference in, discussed, 4259.
Proclamations regarding, 4177, 4230.
Electors in, letter of John Sherman and others regarding canvass of vote of, referred to, 4367.
France, cession of, referred to, 331, 338.
Fourteenth amendment to Constitution ratified by, 3837.
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Assumed by Governor Claiborne, 355.
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Indians inhabiting, referred to, 386.
Lands granted to, in aid of railroads, referred to, 3580.
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Proclamation regarding sale of, 1058.
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Restoration of, into Union, discussed, 3123, 3452.
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Support of, referred to, 382.
Title to, objections to validity of, withdrawn, 358.
Transfer of, to United States disagreeable to Spain, 376.
Unlawful combinations in, discussed and proclamations against, 4161, 4166, 4177, 4230, 4250, 4259.

Louisiana, District of.—That part of the Louisiana Purchase which is not included in the present State of Louisiana. It was erected into a district and the capital was established at St. Louis in 1804. In 1805 it was given a separate government as the Territory of Louisiana. In 1812 the name of the Territory was changed to Missouri.

Louisiana Lottery Co. discussed, 5515.

Louisiana, Province of. (See Louisiana.)

Louisiana Purchase.—A name applied to the territory west of the Mississippi River purchased from France in 1803. It was the most important sale of territory ever executed in favor of the United States. President Jefferson desired the acquisition of New Orleans in order to obtain control of the mouth of the Mississippi and offered to guarantee to Napoleon the territory to the west of the river in exchange. Napoleon, being at that time at war with Great Britain and greatly in need of funds, and being desirous moreover to foil England's aspirations for more territory in the United States, consented to the transfer of the so-called province of Louisiana to the United States for the sum of $15,000,000. The territory thus acquired embraced all the present State of Louisiana lying west of the Mississippi River, together with New Orleans and the adjacent district east, comprising Mississippi and Alabama below the thirty-first parallel; Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, a portion of Idaho and Minnesota, all of the Dakotas, most of Kansas, all of Nebraska and Indian Territory, part of Colorado, most of Wyoming, and the whole of Montana. In 1904, the Louisiana Purchase Exposition was held at St. Louis, Mo., to commemorate the acquisition of this important territory.

Louisiana Purchase:
- Discussed and referred to, 346, 348, 350, 669, 853, 929, 957, 3255.
- Effects of, discussed, 2878.

Louisiana Purchase Exposition was held at St. Louis, Mo., between April 30 and Dec. 1, 1904, to celebrate the centennial of the Louisiana Purchase. It was the largest World's Fair ever held, and the third of its kind in America; its grounds covered 1,240 acres, of which 250 acres were roofed over. The total amount expended upon the Exposition by the Exposition Company, the various states, foreign governments, and the concessionaries, amounted to about $44,500,000; while the total receipts came to about $25,000,000; and the Exposition closed free from debt. In point of attendance it fell below the Paris Exposition of 1900 with its 50,000,000 entrances and the World's Fair at Chicago with 27,500,000 entrances, as its attendance only totalled 18,700,000.

Louisiana Purchase Exposition:
- Opened by proclamation of President Roosevelt, 6686.
- Relations of United States Government to, 6675, 6681, 6729, 6732, 6736, 6740, 6771, 6798, 6825, 6857, 6862, 6865, 6866, 6932.

Louisiana vs. Jumel.—An important Supreme Court case defining the liability of State officers. Jumel held bonds issued under an act of the Louisiana legislature of 1874 and the constitutional amendment adopted in that year. He demanded payment of these bonds in 1880. Payment was refused solely on the ground of obedience to the Louisiana State debt ordinance of the new constitution adopted July 23, 1879, and the law of 1880, carrying out provisions contained in this new constitution. This act, in the language and spirit of the ordinance, recited that coupons of consolidated bonds falling due in January, 1880, were remitted. Suit was brought against officers of the State. The Circuit Court of the State decided for the defendant, and its decision was affirmed by the United States Supreme Court on the ground that relief could not be awarded against officers obeying the supreme power of the State; that the money is the State's property, not held in trust by the officers except in the capacity of her servants. "The political power of the State," said Chief Justice Waite in the opinion of the court, "can not be ousted of its jurisdiction and the judiciary set in its place." Dissenting opinions were rendered by Justices Field and Harlan.

Louisville and Portland Canal Co., act for subscription of stock in, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 1071.

Louisville, Ky., Southern Exposition at, discussed, 4773.
- Board on behalf of Executive Departments designated, 4819.
- Instructions to, 4820.

Lower Brulé Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Loyal Legion, Military Order of.—The Military Order of the Loyal Legion of the United States was organized by officers and ex-officers of the army, navy and marine corps of the United States, who took part in the War of 1861-65. Membership descends to the eldest direct male lineal descendant, according to the rules of primogeniture. There are 21 commanderies, each representing a state, and one commandery representing the District of Columbia. The total membership of the Loyal Legion is 8,880.

Loyalists.—Those of the American colonists who opposed the Revolutionary War and in some instances took up arms against their countrymen in the struggle for independence. They were also called Tories. As early as 1688 parties favorable to the Crown were exerting an influence in all the colonies. As the revolutionary movement grew their opposition to it increased. In no colony was there an overwhelming desire for independence, and in some the advocates of revolution were in the minority. Many of the most respected and eminent men of the middle colonies were loyal to the Crown. During the progress of the war they were treated with great harshness. Their property was confiscated or destroyed; they suffered social ostracism, and some were tarred and feathered. Legislative assemblies banished them from some of the colonies. When the British troops withdrew at the close of the war the Tories found life in the states unendurable and thousands retired to Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, the Bahamas, and other West Indies. In the treaty of peace in 1783 the British asked to have provision made for recompensating the dispossessed Loyalists, but all they received was a promise to submit the matter to the states, and they refused relief.

Lubeck:
Minister of, received by United States, 949.
Treaty with, 988, 991, 2686, 6294.
Vessels of, discriminating duties on, suspended by proclamation, 642.

Lubeck, Treaty with. (See Hanseatic Republics.)

Lucayos Islands. (See Bahama Islands.)

Luckett and Tyler (assignees of William T. Cheatham), act for relief of, vetoed and reasons assigned, 4334.

Ludlow's Code.—Named for Governor Roger Ludlow, and being a set of laws for the regulation of the New Haven Colony.

Lumber Business, symptoms of monopolization of, 7539.

Lumber.—The Lumber Industry was surveyed in the last federal census of manufactures. The report was made as of 1919, but not published until 1922. A summary follows, the figures including also custom sawmills:—

Number of establishments	37,964
Persons engaged	702,555
Wage-earners, average	613,519
Capital	$1,836,026,964
Salaries	93,129,862
Wages	620,259,811
Cost of materials	873,908,924
Value of products	2,071,290,609

There were 15 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 93, from 500 to 1,000; 330, from 250 to 500; and 895 from 100 to 250. There were 315 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each; 576, at from $500,000 to $1,000,000; and 3,108, at from $100,000 and $500,000.

The stumpage value averaged $5.02 for the whole United States. It was $2.59 in 1904.

The pulp-wood consumed amounted to 5,477,832 cords, mainly spruce and hemlock. There were 258 pulp-wood mills.

The leading state in value of products was Washington, followed by Louisiana.

The value of separate products follows:—

Logging camps, sawlogs	$ 94,749,320
Other timber products	38,670,774
Contract logging	7,828,214
Sawmills, rough lumber, lath and shingles	701,966,802
Tight and slack cooperage	46,624,549
Veneers	45,414,437
Other sawmill products	9,017,022
Contract or custom sawing	10,364,493
Planing mills, independent	500,438,258
Operated with sawmills	432,233,873
Box factories	177,818,454
Miscellaneous, other than lumber and timber products	601,929

The percentage of lumber cut was distributed as follows:—Northeastern states, 7½%; Central states, 9%; Southern states, 37%; North Carolina, South Carolina, Virgina, 10%; Michigan, Minnesota, Wisconsin, 8%; Pacific states, 25½%; Rocky Mountain states, 4%.

The number of mills operating was 26,879.

Waste in the logging industry in the United States amounts to 15 to 20 per cent of the timber cut, or about a billion and a half cubic feet of wood annually. Sawmill waste also amounts to several billion cubic feet of wood, although not all of it is absolute waste.

The following table gives the production of timber by states, as reported by the United States Forest Service, for the last year for which figures are available:—

	M feet
Northeastern Group:—	
Pennsylvania	520,000
Maine	505,600
New York	410,900
New Hampshire	248,600
Vermont	164,500
Massachusetts	139,200
Connecticut	71,600
Delaware, New Jersey, Rhode Island	52,000
Lake Group:—	
Wisconsin	1,059,900
Michigan	749,800
Minnesota	576,300
Central Group:—	
Tennessee	779,800
West Virginia	697,600
Kentucky	421,100
Missouri	274,200
Indiana	258,300
Ohio	247,400
Illinois	56,900
Pacific Group:—	
Washington	5,525,000
Oregon	3,317,000
California and Nevada	1,513,000
Southern Group:—	
Louisiana	3,120,000
Mississippi	2,224,000
Arkansas	1,452,200
Alabama	1,439,200
Texas	1,328,800
North Carolina	1,246,700
Virginia	1,014,400
Florida	1,000,900
Georgia	761,800
South Carolina	610,500
Oklahoma	163,400
Maryland	85,600
Miscellaneous Group:—	
Idaho	970,000
Montana	410,000
Arizona	121,160
New Mexico	112,240
Colorado	70,000
South Dakota	45,100
Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, Utah, Wyoming	34,100

Red gum is produced mostly in Arkansas, Mississippi, and Louisiana; *yellow poplar* in West Virginia and Tennessee; *chestnut* in West Virginia and Pennsylvania; *yellow pine* in Louisiana, Mississippi, Texas, North Carolina, Alabama, and Arkansas; *sycamore* in Arkansas, Indiana, and Tennessee; *lodgepole pine* in Colorado and Wyoming; *balsam fir* in Maine, Minnesota, and Michigan; *walnut* in Missouri and Indiana; *sugar pine* in California; *hickory* in Arkansas and Tennessee; *cottonwood* in Mississippi and Arkansas; *white fir* in California, Nevada, and Idaho; *ash* in Arkansas, Wisconsin, Louisiana, and Tennessee; *basswood* in Wisconsin, Michigan, and West Virginia; *elm* in Wisconsin and Michigan; *cedar* in Washington, Oregon, and Idaho; *beech* in Michigan, Pennsylvania, Indiana, West Virginia, and New York; *tupelo* in Louisiana, Alabama, and Virginia; *redwood* solely in California; *larch* in Montana and Idaho; *birch* in Wisconsin, and Michigan; *cypress* in Louisiana, and Florida; *maple* in Michigan, Wisconsin, West Virginia, and New York; *spruce* in Maine, Washington, West Virginia, Oregon, Vermont, and New Hampshire; *Western yellow pine* in California, Oregon, Idaho, Washington, Montana, Arizona, and New Mexico; *white pine* in Minnesota, Idaho, Maine, Wisconsin, New Hamp-

shire, and Massachusetts; *hemlock* in Wisconsin, Michigan, Washington, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Maine, and New York; *Douglas fir* in Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada, Idaho, and Montana; *oak* in West Virginia, Arkansas, Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, Mississippi, and Ohio.

The following table shows the kinds, amount and value per thousand feet of the chief woods produced in the most recent year for which figures are available, according to the figures of the U. S. Forest Service:—

Kind	*M feet*	*Value*
Douglas Fir	6,960,000	$ 34.59
Oak	2,500,000	46.88
Western Yellow Pine	2,290,000	38.73
Hemlock	1,850,000	32.05
White and Norway Pine	1,500,000	41.49
Yellow Pine	1,091,000	35.89
Maple	875,000	50.16
Gum, Red and Sap	850,000	35.24
Spruce	825,000	38.94
Cyprus	625,000	51.02
Redwood	476,500	46.90
Chestnut	475,000	42.48
Total, All woods	33,798,800	$ 38.42

After chestnut, the chief woods produced in order were Birch, Larch, Yellow Poplar, Beech, White Fir, Cedar, Elm. The average price may be compared with $14.04, the average price in 1915.

In the same year, there were produced 353,825,000 tight, 348,812,000 sawed tight and 1,121,324,000 slack staves; 24,274,177 sets of tight and 87,381,000 sets of slack heading; 140,772,000 slack hoops; 1,952,983,000 pieces of lath and 6,156,416,000 shingles. There were 1,290 lath mills and 1,133 shingle mills.

During a recent year, the production of wood pulp was placed at 3,821,704 short tons, at an average value of $72.20. Of this, 1,583,914 was mechanical, 1,585,834 was sulphite, 463,305 was soda and 188,651 was sulphate. Less than one-third of the total was steamed or bleached.

The growth of the lumber industry in the United States may be seen from the following figures for lumber cut in the United States, as computed by the Census Bureau and the U. S. Forest Service:—

Year	*M feet, b. m.*
1869	12,755,543
1889	23,842,230
1899	35,077,595
1909	44,509,761
1914	37,346,023
1916	39,807,251
1918	31,890,494
1919	34,552,076
1920	33,798,800

The total stand of timber on the national forests is estimated at about 570,000,000,000 board feet. (See Forests, National.)

Lundy's Lane (Canada), Battle of.—After his defeat at Chippewa in 1814 Gen. Riall retired by way of Queenston toward the head of Lake Ontario. He was soon reenforced, and returned to attack the Americans under Brown, who had pursued him as far as Queenston. Hearing of the British reenforcements, Brown retreated to the Chippewa River, and on July 24, 1814, encamped on the south bank, where he had defeated Riall on the 5th. On the 25th Gen. Scott, with about 1,200 men, went forward to reconnoiter and came upon the British army, 4,500 strong, near Niagara Falls, on Lundy's Lane, a road leading from the Falls to the end of Lake Ontario. Soon the entire American force was engaged, the battle lasting from sunset till midnight. The American forces numbered about 2,500 men. During the engagement Gen. Scott and Lieut.-Col. Miller distinguished themselves for daring and efficiency. The British were finally driven back and forced to abandon their artillery, ammunition, and baggage. Both armies claimed the victory, though both left the field. The American loss was 171 killed, 571 wounded, and 110 missing—a total of 852 out of an army of 2,500. The British lost 84 killed, 559 wounded, 193 missing, and 42 prisoners—a total of 878 out of an army of 4,500. Generals Brown and Scott were among the wounded. (See illustration opposite 587.)

Lüneburg, convention with, for acquiring and inheriting property, 2826.

Luquillo Forest Reserve, 6778.

"Lusitania," sinking of, 8062, 8290. (See also illustration opposite 8060.)

Lussia, island of, disposition of, referred to, 8837.

Luther vs. Borden.—In 1841 a portion of the people of Rhode Island framed a new government and elected Thomas W. Dorr governor in opposition to the charter government. (See Dorr's Rebellion.) Governor King declared the State under martial law and Luther's house was searched, he being implicated in the armed conspiracy against the established government. Luther pleaded the constitutionality of the new government. The circuit court gave judgment against him, and the Supreme Court of the United States affirmed this decision in 1842. It was decided that under martial law suspected persons might legally be subjected to search and arrest by State authority, and that the question of the constitutionality of a State government was one with which Congress rather than the courts should deal.

Luxemburg.—The territory of the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg lies between 49° 27'-50° 18' N. altitude and 5° 45'-6° 30' E. longtitude, with a total area of 2,586 square kilometers (998,216 square miles). It is bounded on the west by the Luxemburg Province of Belgium, on the north and east by the Rhine Province of Prussia, and on the south by the French Department of Lorraine and the French Department of the Meuse.

Physical Features.—The northern districts are crossed in all directions by outrunners of the Belgian Ardennes, and in the south are hills which form part of the plateau of Lorraine; but there are extensive valleys and plains in the north, and the southern districts are mainly low lands in the basin of the Moselle, which forms its southeastern boundary. The only considerable rivers of Luxemburg are the Moselle and its tributaries, the Our and the Sure.

History.—In 1831 the territory known as Luxemburg was divided at the Conference of London into the present Grand Duchy and the Belgian Province of Luxemburg, and from 1831 to 1890 the Grand Duchy was ruled by the Kings of the Netherlands. At the death of King William III, the operation of the Salic law transferred the sovereignty to Adolphus, Duke of Nassau, who was succeeded by his son William. By an amendment of the constitutional law of 1848, the succession was secured to the daughter of the Grand Duke William.

By the Treaty of London, May 11, 1867, Luxemburg was declared neutral territory and its integrity and independence were

guaranteed by the signatories. However, at the outbreak of the World War in 1914, Germany violated its neutrality by marching troops across it on the road to France.

Government.—The government is that of a constitutional monarchy, the territory being declared neutral by the Great Powers of Europe by the Treaty of London (May 11, 1867). The Grand Duchy formed part of the Germanic Confederation, under the hegemony of Austria, from 1815-1866, and the impregnable fortress of Luxemburg was garrisoned by Prussian troops. By the Treaty of London the garrison was withdrawn and the fortress dismantled. The population according to the figures of 1916 was 263,824. Present ruler: Her Royal Highness Charlotte, Grand Duchess of Luxemburg, born on January 23, 1896. There is a Council of State (Staatsrat) of fifteen members and a Chamber of Deputies of forty-eight members, elected by direct vote of the Cantons for six years, one-half renewable every three years. All inhabitants of twenty-one years are eligible as electors.

There are courts in each Canton, and District Courts at Luxemburg and Diekirch, with a Supreme Court at the Capital.

Education and Religion.—Education is compulsory and free, and is widespread. Practically all of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics, there being only 4,000 Protestants and 1,300 Jews. The Bishop of Luxemburg is appointed by the See of Rome.

After the World War, the annual budget rose to some 150,000,000 francs. The debt amounts to about 130,000,000 francs, the franc being equal to $0.193 in United States currency.

Production and Industry.—The country is rich in iron ore, the last annual production of iron being 3,705,000 tons and of steel, 732,000 tons. There are 330 miles of railway; 565 miles of telegraph, with 1,521 miles of wire and 360 telegraph stations; 872 miles of telephone system, with 5,667 miles of wire; and 140 postoffices. Luxemburg in 1921 formed an economic union with Belgium.

Luxemburg, fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 4782.

Luxemburg, Treaty with. (See Extradition Treaties.)

Lynching.—The term covers punishment of alleged offenders, generally without trial, by unauthorized persons and without due process of law. Lynch law, it is said takes its name from Charles Lynch, a Virginia planter and Quaker, and his associates, who during Revolutionary days seized British sympathizers and hanged them by the thumbs till they shouted "Liberty forever."

Outside of a few recent outbreaks in Germany, Hungary and Russia as a result of the World War, the United States holds the unenviable position of being the only advanced nation in which lynching occurs on a wide-spread scale. In the thirty years from 1889 to 1918, both inclusive, 3,224 persons were killed by lynching mobs in the United States, in addition to 181 reported lynched, but whose deaths could not be verified. Of these 3,224, 702 were white and 2,522 were negroes. Of the whites, 691 were men and 11 were women; of the negroes, 2,472 were men and 50 were women. Of the total amount, the South is responsible for 2,834.

The annual total of lynchings was greater in the years preceding 1900 than in the subsequent years. From 1889 to 1903, the annual number of lynchings was above 100, with the exception of two years. (In 1892, it was 226.) Since 1903, it has reached 100 in only one year, 1908. During the 30-year period, the greatest number of lynchings occurred in the following states:

Georgia	386	Kentucky	169
Mississippi	373	South Carolina	120
Texas	335	Oklahoma	96
Louisiana	313	Missouri	81
Alabama	276	Virginia	78
Tennessee	196	North Carolina	53
Florida	178		

Contrary to general opinion, the cause for lynching in the majority of cases is not rape. The following table shows the number of cases by offense:—

Offense	*Number Lynchings* *Negroes*	*Whites*
Murder	900	319
Rape	477	46
Attacks upon Women*	237	13
Other crimes against the person	253	62
Crimes against property	210	121
Miscellaneous crimes	303	135
Non-criminal acts**	142	6

*Under this head are included attacks in which it is not clear from accounts if rape was consummated or only attempted.

**Under this head are such acts as testifying against whites, suing whites at law, wrong man lynched, race feeling, etc.

In 1919, there were 84 lynchings in the United States, in which 78 of the victims were negroes. Of these 31 were shot, 24 were hanged, 14 were burned (3 after death) and 11 were killed in manner unknown. The chief causes were murder (27), rape (14), attempted rape (5), insulting white women (8), shooting white man (7). The leading states in lynchings in this year were Georgia (22), Mississippi (12), Arkansas (10), Louisiana (8), Alabama (8).

Lynchings:
Deplored, 7029.
Discussed and indemnities suggested for, 5767, 6248, 6277, 6371, 6430, 6459, 6461.
Ending of, urged, 8946.

Lynn, Mass., act for erection of postoffice building at, vetoed, 5150.

Macao. (See Portugal.)

McCall, E. & Co., agents to receive installments from Peru, 2587.

McCulloch vs. Maryland.—A case brought before the Supreme Court of the United States in 1819, in which the right of a State to interfere with the execution of Federal laws was denied. McCulloch was cashier of the Baltimore branch of the Bank of the United States, which had been incorporated by an act of Congress in 1816 and had headquarters in Philadelphia. The action brought by the State of Maryland against McCulloch was one of debt, he, it was averred, having refused to comply with an act of the Maryland general assembly of 1818 which imposed a tax upon all banks or branches of banks doing business in Maryland and not chartered by the State legislature. The court of appeals of Maryland decided against the plaintiff. The Supreme Court reversed this decision, declaring that the act under which the bank was chartered was constitutional, and that therefore the act of the Maryland legislature of 1818 was contrary to the Constitution of the United States, and therefore void, because States have no power, by taxation or otherwise, to impede or control the operations of constitutional laws enacted by Congress to carry into execution any of the powers of the Federal Government.

Mace.—Originally a club about five feet long with a thick knob at the end, and a valuable weapon for attack in hand-to-hand conflicts. The mace accordingly came to signify power, and is used as the insignia of authority in many legislative bodies. It is used as such particularly by the Lord Chancellor of England and the Speaker of the English House of Commons and the Speaker of the United States House of Representatives. The latter's mace ends in a globe representing the world, on which is perched an American eagle with wings outstretched.

Macedonia.—A section of southeastern Europe, west and south of the Rhodope Mountains and north and northwest of the Aegean Sea. It corresponds almost exactly to the former Turkish vilayet of Salonikí, with the eastern portion of the former Turkish vilayet of Monastir. The population is extremely mixed, composed of Bulgars, Serbs, Greeks, Mohammedan Roumans, Turks and Albanians. However, the predominant race is generally agreed to be the Bulgars.

Turkish persecutions and oppression in Macedonia were marked throughout the nineteenth century, and were largely responsible for the Balkan Wars of 1912-13. (See Balkan Wars.) Because of the defeat of Bulgaria in the Second Balkan War, much of Macedonia was given to Greece in 1913, although the principle of nationality would have seemed to favor Bulgaria; and with the defeat of Bulgaria in the World War, Greece was granted by the Peace Conference most of the remainder of Macedonia, cutting off Bulgaria from access to the Mediterranean.

"Macedonian."—A British gun boat, captured by the gun boat *The United States* in the War of 1812.

Macedonian, The, 1822, 3015, 3064.
Award of arbiter referred, 3381.
Capture of, 506.
Claims for, adjusted, 2116.
Second claim discussed, 2193.
Payment of, 3445.

Machine Guns, development of, recommended, 7235.

Machinery, Production of.—This industry was surveyed in the last federal census of manufactures and the chief findings are covered in the statistics following. The figures refer to the year 1919, but the report was not published until 1922.

The value of the products of the several branches of the industry follows:—

Adding and calculating machines.$53,993,200
Air compressors 18,650,074
Pennsylvania 5,229,202
Blowers and Fans 12,141,346
Bottling machinery 10,468,479
Cash registers and parts..... 31,574,453
Concrete mixers 10,450,344
Wisconsin 4,642,360
Condensers 21,216,404
Cotton gins 10,175,936
Georgia 2,436,326
Alabama 2,268,669
Confectioners' machinery 9,341,394
Cranes 52,534,022
Electric 27,324,864
Ohio 17,062,240
Steam and hydraulic... 13,972,133
Ohio 7,526,891
All other 11,237,025
Ohio 6,496,914
Dairy machinery 34,278,793
New York 14,795,315
Wisconsin 4,359,774
Pennsylvania 2,073,216
Elevators and elevator machinery 70,187,299
Electric 29,607,380
New York 7,900,864
Illinois 6,439,300
Pennsylvania ..5,292,787
New Jersey 5,279,647
All other 40,579,919
Illinois 8,642,341
Ohio 6,915,589
Pennsylvania ..5,122,951
Minnesota 4,022,122
New York 3,708,753
Wisconsin 3,587,651
Flour and grist-mill machinery. 19,980,816
Illinois 2,907,758
Pennsylvania 2,745,080
Ohio 2,332,783
New York 1,576,693
Laundry machinery 13,891,288
Power 10,800,948
Illinois 5,834,261
Other 3,090,340
New York 1,531,916
Metal-working machinery, other than machine tools..... 57,541,482
New York 10,770,554
Ohio 10,192,199
Illinois 9,445,316
Pennsylvania 9,413,411
Connecticut 6,993,973
Meters, gas and water..... 27,764,884
New York 6,468,607
Pennsylvania 5,731,811
Mining (not oil-well) machinery 51,243,489
Ohio 11,833,544
Pennsylvania 10,534,940
Oil-well machinery 28,351,371
Pennsylvania 6,715,013
Oklahoma 5,456,607
Texas 4,044,161
Oil-mill machinery 11,306,359
Ohio 4,957,587
Paper and pulp-mill machinery.. 27,420,666
Paper-mill 11,294,812
Massachusetts ..3,373,357
New York 1,782,940
Pennsylvania ..1,285,355
Pulp-mill 1,385,332

Paper-making machinery, other. 14,740,522
New York 4,185,995
Massachusetts 4,132,239
Ohio 2,570,401
Printing machinery 53,324,973
Presses 18,433,839
Illinois 5,396,309
New York 5,388,583
Typesetting machines ..14,878,337
Other 20,012,797
New York 6,518,091
Illinois 5,969,275
Pennsylvania ..3,828,345
Pumps and pumping machinery. 66,456,444
New Jersey 14,216,368
Massachusetts 10,502,421
New York 9,527,016
Pennsylvania 7,159,779
Refrigerating machinery 30,667,050
Ice-making 15,664,736
Pennsylvania ..3,846,857
Ohio 2,365,136
Other 15,002,314
Road-making machines 15,777,652
Illinois 6,256,329
Rubber-working machinery 17,001,919
Ohio 5,898,439
New Jersey 3,437,085
Connecticut 3,179,072
Sewing-machines and parts..... 43,694,919
Shoe machinery 16,260,941
Massachusetts 12,828,311
Steam shovels 12,453,763
Ohio 5,048,759
Sugar-mill machinery 14,847,346
Typewriters 43,313,309
Connecticut 16,961,254
New York 15,760,668
Washing machines 42,895,929
Illinois 14,657,190
Wood-working machinery 36,763,375
Sawmill 15,038,945
Oregon 3,204,590
Wisconsin 3,165,393
Planing-mill 6,732,247
Other 14,992,183

Textile Machinery.—Detailed figures were presented for the manufacture of textile machinery, as follows:—

Number of establishments.....	432
Persons engaged	36,126
Capital	$129,797,903
Salaries	8,098,770
Wages	36,528,729
Cost of materials.....	45,636,628
Value of products.....	122,089,264

The leading state was Massachusetts, which employed 55% of the wage-earners and accounted for 54% of the value of product. Rhode Island and Pennsylvania employed 12% of the wage-earners each and produced 12% of the total value of product, each.

There were 6 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 7, from 500 to 1,000; 10, from 250 to 500; and 31, from 100 to 250.

There were 26 establishments with annual product of over $1,000,000; 20, from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 100, from $100,000 to $500,000.

Machine Tools.—Separate figures for the manufacture of machine tools follow:—

Number of establishments.....	403
Persons engaged	61,762
Capital	$231,039,843
Salaries	18,216,825
Wages	66,178,969
Cost of materials.....	59,034,308
Value of products.....	212,400,158

The leading state was Ohio, which employed 26% of the wage-earners and produced 29% of the total value of product. It was followed by Massachusetts (12%, 11%); Rhode Island (13½%, 10½%); Connecticut (10%, 9%).

There were 6 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 21, from 500 to 1,000; 25, from 250 to 500; 52, from 100 to 250; 65, from 50 to 100; 85, from 20 to 50.

There were 52 establishments with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each; 41, from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 134, from $100,000 to $500,000; 110, from $20,000 to $100,000.

Machine Tools should be defined before being put on free list, 7751.

Mackinaw, Mich.:
Extension of civil authority over, recommended, 190.
Lands ceded for post of, discussed, 421, 426.
Proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2859.
Reduction of, discussed, 534.

McKinley, William.—March 4, 1897-Sept. 14, 1901.

(FIRST TERM, 1897-1901.)

Twenty-eighth Administration—Republican.

Vice-President—Garret A. Hobart.

Secretary of State—
John Sherman.
William R. Day.
John Hay.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Lyman J. Gage.

Secretary of War—
Russel A. Alger.
Elihu Root.

Attorney-General—
Joseph McKenna.
John W. Griggs.

Postmaster-General—
James A. Gary.
Charles E. Smith.

Secretary of the Navy—
John D. Long.

Secretary of the Interior—
Cornelius N. Bliss.
Ethan A. Hitchcock.

Secretary of Agriculture—
James Wilson.

McKinley was elected by the Republican party at the elections of 1896 and 1900. At the Republican National Convention at St. Louis, June 16, 1896, he was nominated on the first ballot, overwhelmingly defeating Reed and Quay, his closest rivals.

Platform.—The platform on this occasion caused much discussion over the money plank, and Senator Teller's resolution seeking to commit the party to an endorsement of gold and silver, with free coinage on a basis of 16 to 1, was defeated. The platform as adopted severely arraigned the Democratic administration; blamed it for the period of financial depression through which the country had just passed; confirmed the party's allegiance to the doctrine of protection; advocated a continuance and revival of reciprocity; favored the restoration of discriminating duties; stood unreservedly for sound money; opposed the debasing of currency by free coinage; pledged ample provisions for veterans; urged the control of Hawaii by the United States, the building of the trans-Isthmian canal, and the purchase of the Danish West Indies; condemned the Armenian massacres; reasserted the Monroe Doctrine; urged the restoration of peace to, and the securing of in-

dependence for Cuba, by the United States; insisted upon rigid enforcement of immigration laws; supported civil service reform; condemned lynching; recommended a Board of Arbitration to adjudicate between labor and capital; urged free homestead laws upon Congress; favored the extension of statehood to the remaining territories, and proper recognition of Alaska; sympathized with temperance; and recognized the rights of women.

Opposition.—The Democratic National Convention at Chicago, July 7, 1896, nominated William J. Bryan on the fifth ballot, over Bland and Pattison. The People's party, or Populists, in convention at St. Louis on July 22, 1896, agreed to support Bryan, and nominated Watson as Vice-President. The National Silver party, at the same place and time, agreed to support Bryan for President and nominated Sewall for Vice-President. The sound-money Democrats in convention at Indianapolis, on Sept. 2, 1896, nominated General John W. Palmer and General Simon B. Buckner as their candidates. The National Prohibition party was split over the money question into "Narrow Gaugers," who wanted the platform confined to Prohibition, and the "Broad Gaugers," who wanted free coinage and other national issues incorporated. The Narrow Gaugers nominated Joshua Levering and Hale Johnson as candidates. The Broad Gaugers nominated Rev. Charles E. Bentley and James A. Southgate. The Socialist Labor Party, at New York, on July 4, 1896, nominated Charles H. Matchett and Matthew Maguire as their candidates.

Vote.—The popular vote gave McKinley 7,111,607; Bryan, 6,509,052; Palmer, 222,583; Levering, 134,645; Bentley, 13,968, and Matchett, 36,373. The electoral vote gave McKinley 271, Bryan 176.

(SECOND TERM—MARCH 4, 1901-SEPT. 14, 1901.)

Twenty-ninth Administration—Republican.

Vice-President—Theodore Roosevelt.

Secretary of State—
John Hay (continued).

Secretary of the Treasury—
Lyman J. Gage (continued).

Secretary of War—
Elihu Root (continued).

Attorney-General—
Philander C. Knox.

Postmaster-General—
Charles E. Smith (continued).

Secretary of the Navy—
John D. Long (continued).

Secretary of the Interior—
E. A. Hitchcock (continued).

Secretary of Agriculture—
James Wilson (continued).

The Republican National Convention held at Philadelphia in June, 1900, nominated President McKinley for a second term.

SECOND TERM—Opposition.—The Democratic National Convention, at Kansas City, Mo., nominated William J. Bryan. The People's party, or Fusionists, at Sioux Falls, S. D., endorsed Bryan's candidacy; while the "Middle-of-the-Road" Anti-Fusionist faction of the People's party, at Cincinnati, nominated Wharton Barker. The Prohibitionists, at Chicago, nominated John G. Woolley. The Socialist Labor party, in New York City, nominated Joseph F. Malloney. The Social Democratic party, at Indianapolis, nominated Eugene Debs. The United Christian party, at Rock Island, Ill., nominated Silas C. Swallow. The Silver Republican Convention, at Kansas City, endorsed Bryan. The National party, in New York City, nominated Donelson Caffrey of Louisiana, but he declined the nomination.

Vote.—The popular vote ran: McKinley, 7,207,923; Bryan, 6,358,133; Woolley, 208,914; Barker, 50,373; Debs, 87,814; Malloney, 39,379. The electoral vote stood: McKinley, 292; Bryan, 155.

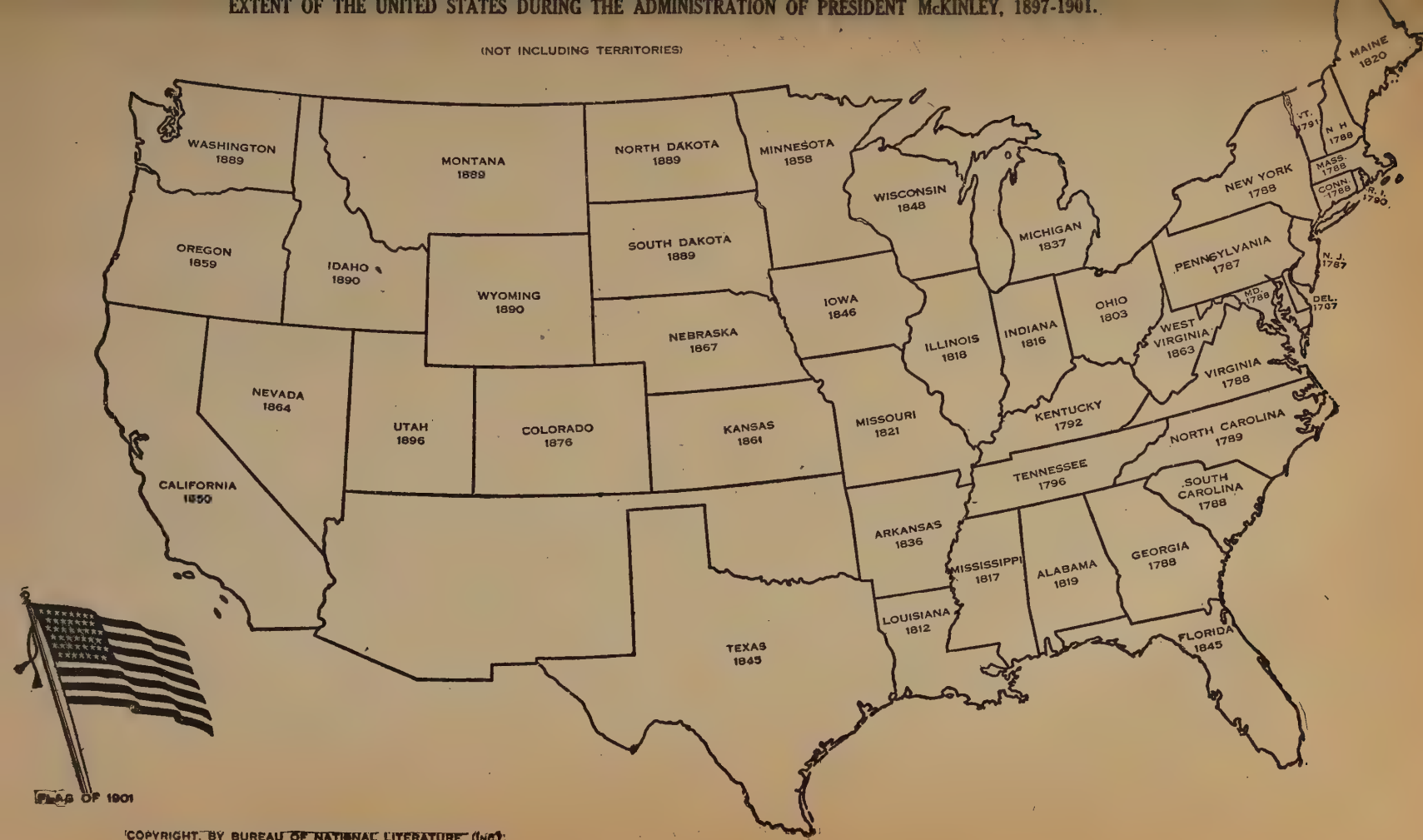
Party Affiliation.—From his youth William McKinley was an ardent Republican. After his return from the war, he was admitted to the bar, and settled in Canton, Ohio, then an opposition county, where his political ability had abundant scope and where he quickly attained considerable political prominence. In 1867, he favored negro suffrage, a most unpopular topic in his neighborhood; in 1875, at the height of the greenback craze, he spoke for sound money and the resumption of specie payment. In Congress, in 1878, he opposed the Wood Tariff Bill; in 1879 and 1880, he opposed the repeal of the Federal election laws; in 1882, he advocated the protective policy in Congress and the tariff commission; in 1884, he opposed the Morrison Tariff Bill; in 1884, he supported Blaine for the Presidency; in 1886, he favored arbitration between labor and capital; in 1887, he conducted a brilliant campaign against the Mills Bill, which was supposed to embody Cleveland's policy and ideas on the tariff; his final address in Congress on this bill has been characterized as "the most effective and eloquent tariff speech ever heard in Congress." This speech served as a textbook of the campaign. On April 16, 1890, Major McKinley introduced the tariff bill since known by his name, which became a law on Oct. 6, 1890. Defeated for Congress in 1890, he was elected Governor of Ohio. His inauguration as Governor took place shortly before the commencement of the Presidential campaign.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States for the years to which President McKinley was elected to serve stood as follows: July 1, 1897, $986,656,086.14; 1898, $1,627,085,492.14; 1899, $1,155,320,235.19; 1900, $1,107,711,257.89; 1901, $1,044,739,119.97; 1902, $969,457,241.04; 1903. $925,011,637.31; 1904, $967,231,773.75.

Tariff.—In his Inaugural Address (page 6238) President McKinley took up the tariff question. He said: "Nothing was ever made plainer at a general election than that the controlling principle in the raising of revenues from duties on imports is zealous care for American interests and American labor. The people have declared that such legislation should be had as will give ample protection and encouragement to the industries and development of our country. . . . To this policy we are all, of whatever party, firmly bound by the voice of the people—a power vastly more potential than the expression of any political platform." Further, he says: "In the revision of the tariff especial attention should be given to the re-enactment and extension of the reciprocity principle of the law of 1890, under which so great a stimulus was given to our foreign trade in new and advantageous markets for the surplus of our agricultural and manufactured products." In his message at the special session (page 6246) he said: "The necessity of the passage of a tariff law which shall provide ample revenue, need not be further urged. The imperative demand of the hour is the prompt enactment of such a measure." In his Third Annual Message (page 6439) the President said: "I recommend that the Congress at its present session reduce the internal revenue

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT McKINLEY, 1897-1901.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)



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taxes imposed to meet the expenses of the war with Spain in the sum of thirty millions of dollars. This reduction should be secured by the remission of these taxes which experience has shown to be the most burdensome to the industries of the people." In his Second Inaugural Address (page 6465) the President said: "Now I have the satisfaction to announce that the Congress just closed has reduced taxation in the sum of $41,000,000."

Foreign Policy.—In his First Inaugural Address (page 6241) President McKinley summed up the foreign policy of his administration in these words: "We want no wars of conquest; we must avoid the temptation of territorial aggression. War should never be entered upon until every agency of peace has failed; peace is preferable to war in almost every contingency. Arbitration is the true method of settlement of international as well as local or individual differences." In a special message to Congress (page 6277) the President announces the destruction of the battleship *Maine* in Havana waters and the conclusion of the court of inquiry. His special message (page 6281) deals with the revolution in Cuba and its effects upon the United States. In it he says: "The issue is now with Congress. It is a solemn responsibility. I have exhausted every effort to relieve the intolerable condition of affairs which is at our doors. Prepared to execute every obligation imposed upon me by the Constitution and the law, I await your action." By act of Congress, April 25, 1898, a state of war was declared to exist between the United States of America and the Kingdom of Spain. President McKinley's proclamation of war (page 6474) followed on April 26, 1898. The President discussed the future relations which should exist between the United States and Cuba in his Second Inaugural Address (page 6467). As to the war in the Philippines, the President said: "Our countrymen should not be deceived. We are not waging war against the Philippine Islands. A portion of them are making war against the United States. . . . We will not leave the destiny of the loyal millions in the islands to the disloyal thousands who are in rebellion against the United States."

Civil Service.—In his Inaugural Address (page 6241) the President said: "Reforms in the civil service must go on; but the changes should be real and genuine, not perfunctory, or prompted by a zeal in behalf of any party simply because it happens to be in power." Among the reforms instituted, the President lays especial stress upon dismissals, and says: ". . . a distinct advance has been made in giving a hearing before dismissals upon all cases where incompetency is charged or demand made for the removal of officials in any of the Departments." In his Fourth Annual Message (page 6455) the President recommends the extension of such parts of the Civil Service regulations as may be practicable to the Philippines.

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McLeod Case.—In 1840 Alexander McLeod, a Canadian sojourning in New York, boasted of having taken part in the seizure of the steamer *Caroline* during a rebellion in Canada a few years previously. He was arrested and indicted for murder in Lockport, N. Y. The British minister demanded his release on the ground that McLeod had acted under orders and that the New York State courts had no jurisdiction in a case that lay only between the two Governments of Great Britain and the United States. The Federal Government admitted the justice of the British contention, but held that McLeod could only be released by operation of the law. The Attorney-General instituted *habeas corpus* proceedings, but the court held that there was no ground for releasing him. McLeod finally proved an alibi in October, 1841, and was acquitted.

Macomber vs. Eisner.—A case under the income tax law, in which the Supreme Court decided, by a vote of 5 to 4, in a decision handed down on March 8, 1920, that dividends paid in the form of stock instead of in cash are not income and hence are not taxable as such by virtue of clause 4 of Section 9 and clause 3 of Section 2 of Article I of the Constitution. The case was argued in the Supreme Court on April 14, 1919 and was reargued on October 17 and 20, 1919.

Macon Bill No. 2.—A bill introduced in Congress by Nathaniel Macon and passed in May, 1810, to relieve American commerce from the depredations of English and French cruisers and privateers. It provided that commerce should be free and carried on under sanction of the Berlin and Milan decrees of France and the orders in council of England, but that if either of these nations should withdraw from these conventions commerce should be prohibited with the nation which retained them. (See Berlin and Milan Decrees.)

Madagascar.—A French colony in the Indian Ocean off the southeast coast of Africa. It is the sixth largest island in the world, surpassed in size only by Australia, Greenland, New Guinea, Borneo and Baffin Land. Its length is 980 miles and its greatest breadth is 360 miles, the total area being 228,000 square miles. The latest figures show an estimated population of about 3,545,000.

The most important of the native tribes is the Hova, whose dialect, akin to the Malayan and Oceanic tongues, is understood over most of the island. The natives are divided into many clans, which seldom intermarry. The slave trade was abolished in 1877 and slavery itself in 1896.

The central and eastern sections are very mountainous, the western and southern sections being low. The good harbors are chiefly on the northwest coast. The most important ports are Tamatave, Majunga, Diego Suarez and Tulear. The chief town is Antananarivo in the interior, with a population of 63,115.

Madagascar was known to Arab traders by the twelfth century. In the fifteenth century, the French, Portuguese and English made settlements, but were driven off by the natives. In the seventeenth century, the French succeeded in holding a settlement for some years before being driven out. In 1815, France regained some settlements which she had made at the end of the eighteenth century and which she had lost to England during the Napoleonic Wars. Later in the nineteenth century, some British settlements managed to hold on while the relations with the rulers of the Hova tribe remained friendly. Toward the end of the century, France determined to conquer the island, and in 1895 the conquest of Madagascar was completed. In 1890, the French protectorate was recognized by Great Britain and in 1895 by the native rulers. In 1896, France officially declared Madagascar a French colony. The island is ruled by a Governor-general. There is no native elected assembly recognized in the Government, but native officials are employed to an extent in the administration.

Latest figures show almost 3,000,000 acres of land under cultivation, 260,000 by Europeans. The chief products are rice, sugar, coffee, manioc, cotton, cacao, vanilla, tobacco, butter beans, cloves and rubber. There are extensive forests of valuable timber and there is an average annual production of some 35,000 metric tons of graphite.

Besides agriculture, attention is devoted chiefly to cattle-raising. Latest figures show almost 7,000,000 cattle, 310,000 sheep, 200,000 goats, 545,000 pigs, 3,000 horses and 700 ostriches. There is also weaving of silk, cotton and straw hats. Factories are being established for the preparation of meat, sugar, rice, etc. There are also mineral deposits of value.

Latest figures show exports from Madagascar of $15,000,000 and imports of $25,000,000. The chief imports are clothing, cotton, beverages, machinery and metals.

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT MADISON, 1809-1817.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)

FLAG OF 1817

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The chief exports are hides, wax, fibre, gold dust and rice. The trade is chiefly with France and French colonies.

There are few roads and only some 250 miles of railroad open to traffic. There is postal and telegraph service.

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Madison, James.—1809-1817.

(FIRST TERM, 1809-1813.)

Sixth Administration—Democratic-Republican.

Vice-President—George Clinton.

Secretary of State—
Robert Smith.
James Monroe.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Albert Gallatin (continued).

Secretary of War—
William Eustis.
John Armstrong.

Secretary of the Navy—
Paul Hamilton.
William Jones.

Attorney-General—
Cæsar A. Rodney (continued).
William Pinkney.

Postmaster-General—
Gideon Granger (continued).

Nomination.—Madison was elected by the Democratic-Republicans in 1808 and 1812. Virginia, in separate caucuses, nominated James Madison and James Monroe as Presidential candidates to succeed Jefferson. But the Congressional Republican caucus, by an almost unanimous vote, chose Madison for President and George Clinton for Vice-President. Monroe had many supporters, but reconciled them to the choice of Madison by the suggestion that Monroe should succeed Madison. The Federalists held no caucus and made no formal nomination; but they accepted C. C. Pinckney and Rufus King. The election was held Nov. 8, 1808, and seventeen States took part in it.

Vote.—The electoral vote, counted Feb. 8, 1809, gave Madison 122 votes and Clinton 113 votes, against 47 each for Pinckney and King. The New England Federalists by a determined effort, redeemed some of their lost States. The votes of New York, North Carolina, and Maryland were divided.

(SECOND TERM, 1813-1817).

Seventh Administration—Democratic-Republican.

Vice-President—Elbridge Gerry.

Secretary of State—
James Monroe (continued).

Secretary of the Treasury—
Albert Gallatin (continued).
G. W. Campbell.
Alex. J. Dallas.

Secretary of War—
John Armstrong (continued).
James Monroe (acting).
Wm. H. Crawford.

Secretary of the Navy—
William Jones (continued).
B. W. Crowninshield.

Attorney-General—
William Pinkney (continued).
Richard Rush.

Postmaster-General—
Gideon Granger (continued).
Return J. Meigs.

SECOND TERM—Nomination.—In the election of 1812, Madison was nominated by the Republican Congressional caucus, at which New York State was represented by only one member. The other New York members formed a faction which nominated DeWitt Clinton. The Federalists, at a caucus held in New York City, agreed to support DeWitt Clinton for President and Jared Ingersoll for Vice-President.

Vote.—The federal election was held Nov. 3, 1812, and the electoral vote, which was counted Feb. 13, 1813, gave Madison 128, against 89 for Clinton; and Gerry 131, against 86 for Ingersoll. Eighteen States took part, for Louisiana was admitted in 1812. Maryland's was the only divided vote, and it was cast 6 to 5.

Party Affiliation.—In the early construction of the Government, Madison was a pronounced Federalist. He played a most important part in carrying the Constitution through the Virginia Assembly, despite the well-organized opposition of such leaders as Patrick Henry and Lee. His work in the First National Congress included tariff resolutions, creation of executive departments, and the proposal of amendments to the Constitution. He did not support Hamilton's financial measures and it was not long before he became one of the leaders of the new Republican party. Especially did he oppose the assumption of state debts and the institution of a national bank. While he sympathized with the French Revolutionists he did not go so far in this direction as did Jefferson. He led the debates in opposition to Jay's treaty with Great Britain. In 1798 he drew up the resolutions passed by the Virginia Assembly denouncing the Alien and Sedition Acts.

Political Complexion of Congress.—The Eleventh Congress (1809-1811) was made up of a Senate of 34 members, of whom 10 were Federalists and 24 Democrats; and the House, of 141 members, of whom 46 were Federalists and 95 Democrats. In the Twelfth Congress (1811-1813) the Senate, of 36 members, was made up of 6 Federalists and 30 Democrats; the House, of 141 members, was made up of 36 Federalists and 105 Democrats. In the Thirteenth Congress (1813-1815) the Senate, of 36 members, was made up of 9 Federalists and 27 Democrats, and the House, of 182 members, was made up of 67 Federalists and 115 Democrats. In the Fourteenth Congress (1815-1817) the Senate, of 38 members, was made up of 12 Federalists and 26 Democrats; and the House, of 183 members, was made up of 61 Federalists and 122 Democrats.

Foreign Policy.—In his First Inaugural Address, Madison outlines his foreign policy (page 451): "To cherish peace and friendly intercourse with all nations having corresponding dispositions; to maintain

strict neutrality toward belligerent nations; to prefer in all cases amicable discussion and reasonable accommodation of differences to a decision of them by an appeal to arms; to exclude foreign intrigues and foreign partialities, so degrading to all countries and so baneful to free ones; to foster a spirit of independence too just to invade the rights of others, too proud to surrender our own, too liberal to indulge unworthy prejudices ourselves, and too elevated not to look down upon them in others; to hold the union of the states as the basis of their peace and happiness. . . ." The embargo act of 1807 was repealed and the non-intercourse act substituted in 1809. This proved ineffectual and was repealed in 1810, but was revived against Great Britain in 1811. Great Britain conceded the rights of neutrals, but refused to accommodate the impressment of sailors, to the satisfaction of the United States.

War with England.—During 1811, hostilities began on land and sea. By proclamation of June 19, 1812, Madison (page 497) declared war against Great Britain, and this followed closely upon his special message of June 1, 1812 (page 484), in which he reviewed the acts of hostility and offense of which Great Britain had been guilty. Throughout the several messages the progress of the war is discussed. It is generally conceded that the conduct of the war was feeble on the part of the United States. So far as Madison's connection with it is concerned, it may be remembered that he was essentially a man of peace and that the war, so important in the annals of the country and in the life history of those who bore themselves valiantly in defense of their country, becomes a mere incident in Madison's life. Eventful as his administration was, the part which he contributed was slight in comparison with his preeminently brilliant record before he reached the highest office.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the Madison administration stood as follows: Jan. 1, 1810, $53,173,217.50; 1811, $48,005,587.76; 1812, $45,209,737.90; 1813, $55,962,827.57; 1814, $81,487,846.24; 1815, $90,833,660.15; 1816, $127,334,933.74; 1817, $123,491,965.16.

Tariff.—July 1, 1812, there was passed a tariff act for imposing "additional duties upon all goods, wares, and merchandise, imported from any foreign port or place, and for other purposes." By this act, the duties were increased 100 per cent., and an additional tax of 10 per cent. was levied on all goods imported in foreign vessels. Feb. 25, 1813, a duty was imposed on the importation of iron wire; and July 29 of the same year the duty was imposed on imported salt, a bounty was granted on pickled fish exported, and certain vessels employed in the fisheries were entitled to allowances. In his Seventh Annual Message (page 552) Madison brings up the question of tariff for protection: "In adjusting the duties on imports to the object of revenue, the influence of the tariff on manufactures will necessarily present itself for consideration. However wise the theory may be which leaves to the sagacity and interest of individuals the application of their industry and resources, there are in this as in other cases exceptions to the general rule. Besides the condition which the theory itself implies of a reciprocal adoption by other nations, experience teaches that so many circumstances must concur in introducing and maturing manufacturing establishments, especially of the more complicated kinds, that a country will remain long without them, although sufficiently advanced and in some respects even peculiarly fitted for carrying them on with success."

Slavery.—In his Second Annual Message (page 470) President Madison says: "Among the commercial abuses still committed under the American flag, and leaving in force my former reference to that subject, it appears that American citizens are instrumental in carrying on a traffic in enslaved Africans, equally in violation of the laws of humanity and in defiance of those of their own country. The same just and benevolent motives which produced the interdiction in force against this criminal conduct will doubtless be felt by Congress in devising further means of suppressing the evil."

Commerce.—The commercial status of the United States in the year 1810 was as follows: Area, 1,999,775 square miles; population, 7,239,881; population per square mile, 3.62; gold coined, $501,435; silver coined, $638,774; money in circulation, $26,500,000; imports, $85,400,000; exports, $66,757,970; vessels built, 127,575 tons; vessels in foreign trade, 984,269 tons; vessels in coastwise trade, 440,175 tons; post-offices, 2,300.

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Madison Papers, reasons for applying pocket veto to resolution to distribute, 1745.

Madrid, capital of Spain, exposition at, to celebrate four hundredth anniversary of discovery of America, 5622.
Report of United States commissioners to, transmitted, 5988.

Mafia.—A Sicilian secret order which aims to substitute its own authority for that legally constituted by the state. It first became prominent in 1860. It depends upon community of sentiment rather than thorough organization for its strength, and its members are bound neither to seek redress at law nor give evidence in court. The boycott and blackmail are the usual means of offense, but violence is often resorted to. Members of the society emigrating to the United States have established branches in New York, New Orleans and elsewhere. On the night of Oct. 15, 1890, David C. Hennessy, chief of police of New Orleans, was assassinated before his own house by members of the Mafia to whose band he had traced a number of crimes. The officer received six wounds. Eleven Italians were arrested charged with the murder. By the 15th of the following March several of the prisoners had been acquitted, and, despairing of convicting any of them, on account of their disregard of oaths, a mob of enraged citizens, headed by a lawyer named Parkerson, broke into the jail and put to death the eleven prisoners, including those who had been acquitted. In consequence of the delay in bringing to justice the perpetrators of this deed the Italian Government made a protest against this violation of the rights of Italian citizens, and the United States arranged the matter amicably by paying an indemnity to the families of the murdered Italians.

Magazines. (See Arsenals and Magazines.)

Magicienne, The, appropriation to pay claims of owners of, recommended, 3580.

Maha Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mail Matter.—Mail matter is divided into four classes, as follows: First Class—Postal cards and private mailing cards, one cent each; letters and other sealed matter, two cents each ounce or fraction of ounce. "Drop" letters not involving delivery may be mailed for one cent each. Letters may be mailed also to Great Britain for two cents each, and at the same rate to Germany, provided that they take the direct ocean route to the latter country. Second Class—Newspapers and periodicals. When mailed by the publisher in bulk, one cent per pound. Singly, one cent each for four ounces or fraction thereof. Delivery in the county in which second-class matter is published is free. Third Class—Comprises all other printed matter, and may be mailed at the rate of one cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof. Fourth Class—All other mailable matter, including parcel post (q. v.). Mail carried for the Government is free, as is mail sent under the frank of a member of Congress. (See Post-Office Department.

Mail Matter. (See Postal Service.)

Mail Routes (see also Star Routes; Cumberland Road):
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Fillmore, 2625, 2670.
Harrison, Benj., 5633, 5756.
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Wheeling, W. Va., to point on Mississippi River, 652, 683.
Zanesville, Ohio, to seat of government of Missouri, 993.

Mail Service. (See Postal Service; Railway Mail Service.)

Mail Steamers. (See Postal Service.)

Mail Subsidy urged for steamships to South America, 7374, 7435, 7503. (See also Postal Service.)

Mails, Foreign, transmission of, through United States, referred to, 2175. (See also Postal Service.)

Maine.—One of the New England states; nickname, "The Pine Tree State"; motto, "Dirigo" ("I direct"). The most northeasterly state of the Union. It extends from lat. 43° 4′ to 47° 28′ north and from long. 66° 57′ to 71° 7′ west. It is bounded on the north by the Province of Quebec, on the east by New Brunswick, on the southeast and south by the Atlantic, and on the west by New Hampshire and Quebec. The area of the State is 33,040 square miles.

Settlements were made by the French under Du Monts in 1604 and by the English in 1607. The first permanent settlement dates from 1623. Maine was a part of the province of Massachusetts Bay in 1691 and became a separate state in 1820. The Webster-Ashburton treaty of 1842 settled the long-standing dispute regarding its northeastern boundary.

The products of Maine are chiefly those derived from forestry, fishing, farming and quarrying. The most fertile portion, the Aroostook Valley, is well adapted for the growing of fruits and vegetables.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 60,016, comprising 6,296,859 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $199,271,998. The average value of farm land advanced from about $8 an acre in 1900 to $14 an acre in 1910.

The figures for the last annual agricultural production are as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Potatoes ..	102,000	24,480,000	$34,270,000
Corn	20,000	1,100,000	2,145,000
Hay	1,120,000	1,456,000*	27,227,000
Wheat ...	12,000	228,000	500,000
Oats	170,000	5,745,000	5,285,000

*Tons.

At latest reports, the state's farms contained 107,000 horses, valued at $16,478,000; 179,000 cows, $14,141,000; 143,000 other cattle, $5,134,000; 180,000 sheep, $1,710,000; and 116,000 swine, $2,842,000. The last annual wool clip was 935,000 pounds.

The mineral products are relatively unimportant, although Maine is the leading state in the production of feldspar. Other mineral products are granite and mineral waters.

There are 2,144 miles of steam railway and 383 miles of electric line in the State. The population was 742,371 in 1910.

Of the total population in 1910, 110,133 were foreign-born, of whom some 76,000 were Canadians. The largest religious body is the Roman Catholic.

In 1920, the population was 768,014.

The school population (ages 5 to 21) is 228,489. Of these, 149,268 are enrolled in school, with an average daily attendance of 112,885. There are 5,697 teachers in the public school system.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Maine having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 3,378. The amount of capital invested was $233,744,000, giving employment to 90,758 persons, using material valued at $117,655,000, and turning out finished goods worth $200,371,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $50,525,000.

Maine:
Claims of, presented, 1496, 1687.
Controversy with New Brunswick referred to, 1805.
Depredations in, committed by lawless men from British provinces, 1733.
Correspondence regarding, 1738, 1784, 1785, 1791.
Northeastern boundary correspondence regarding. (See Northeastern Boundary.)
Usurpation of jurisdiction within, by New Brunswick, 990.

Maine, The.—One of the second-class battleships of the United States Navy. This vessel was sent to Havana, Cuba, in January, 1898, on a peaceful mission. She was received by the Spanish forts and naval vessels in the harbor with the courtesies usually extended to visiting war ships of a friendly power. Her anchorage was selected by the Spanish authorities. On the night of Feb. 15, 1898, the *Maine* was destroyed by a submarine mine (6277). It was believed that the Spaniards, who at the time were very much incensed at the interest Americans were taking in the Cuban insurrection, had maliciously destroyed the vessel and crew. Two officers and 258 sailors and marines lost their lives by the explosion (6296). An investigation failed to place the responsibility for the catastrophe, and Spain hastened to send a message of regret at what she called an "incident." The blowing up of the *Maine* was among the causes of the war with Spain, begun soon afterwards. A new battleship has since been added to the navy bearing the name Maine. (See illustrations opposite 5603. 5886, 5918.)

Maine, The, destruction of, in Havana Harbor, Cuba, 6277, 6290, 6308.
Findings of court of inquiry, discussed, 6277, 6290.
Number of lives lost in, report on, 6296.
Proposition of Spain to investigate causes of, referred to, 6290.

Removal of wreck of, appropriation for, recommended, 7630.

Makah Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Malay Archipelago.—The largest and most important island group or congeries of groups in the world, stretching from lat. 25° north to 12° south and from long. 93° to 105° east. It is bounded on the north by the China Sea, on the east by the Pacific Ocean, and on the south and west by Australia and the Indian Ocean. The principal groups are the Sunda Islands, including Sumatra, Java, Bali, Sumbawa, Flores, Sandalwood, Timor, and several smaller ones; the Philippines in the north; Celebes and the Salayer Islands, north of Flores; the Moluccas and others east of Celebes. The chief islands for trade are Java, Sumatra, Borneo, and the Moluccas. The Dutch division of Papua is considered a part of the Malay Archipelago. The Philippines were taken by the United States from Spain in 1898. Great Britain is in possession of Singapore, Penang, Malacca, and Labuan. Native rajas rule most of the islands. The Dutch East Indies, including Sumatra, Borneo, Java, and the Celebes, comprise the greater and richer portion of the archipelago, having rights of suzerainty over the active princes.

Malefactors of Great Wealth.—A phrase used by President Roosevelt, (7138), and afterwards popular in political discussions as denoting men of riches who defied the law.

Malefactors of Wealth and Position, attitude of Roosevelt administration toward, 7137.

Proceeded against by the Department of Justice, 7085.

Malta.—An island in the central Mediterranean south of Sicily. It has belonged to Great Britain since 1814. It is the headquarters of the British Mediterranean fleet, and is strongly fortified and garrisoned. The area is 91½ square miles and the population, about 225,000. The chief town and port is Valetta, with some 45,000 inhabitants. The chief agricultural products are potatoes, lemons, oranges and other fruits; onions and other vegetables; grain, and a little cotton. The latest figures show annual imports of $10,400,000 and exports of $3,000,000. The British crown colony of Malta includes also the islands of Gozo, 26 square miles, and Comino, 1 square mile. To the whole colony, the United States sent in the last calendar year goods valued at $622,000, as against $50,000 imports from Malta. A large proportion of vessels, especially of the British vessels, plying between the East and Western Europe stop at Malta.

Malvern Hill (Va.), Battle of.—The last of the Seven Days' Battles before Richmond. On the morning of July 1, 1862, the Second, Third, and Sixth corps of McClellan's army, under command of Keyes, Franklin, Sumner, Heintzelman, and Porter, were united on Malvern Hill, a plateau near the James River. The approaches to the position were commanded by about 70 guns, several of them heavy siege cannon. The Confederate attack, under D. H. Hill and Magruder, was made about 3 P. M., and it continued until 9 P. M. The assailants were repulsed. During the night McClellan continued his retreat to Harrison's Landing. (See illustration opposite 3167.)

Mammoth Cave.—This, the largest cavern in the world, is situated in a region in which caverns abound. Scientists explain the existence of these phenomena of nature in that region by the action of rain water, which from the earth collects chemicals of dissolving properties.

Mammoth Cave is in Kentucky, near Green River, and about one hundred miles southwest of Lexington. It was discovered by a hunter in 1809. The entire cave has never been explored, but its length is about nine miles. It consists of series of chambers, domes and pits; and contains many rare and beautiful phenomena. There are several underground streams running through it, and there is some fish life. The longest avenue is Cleveland Avenue, which extends for two miles, and the largest individual chamber is 450 feet long and 130 feet wide.

Management, Government and Private. (See Government Management.)

Manassas (Va.), Battle of. (See Bull Run (Va.), Battle of.)

Manassas (Va.), or Bull Run, Second Battle of.—On the morning of Aug. 30, 1862, the day after the battle of Groveton, the conflict between the forces under Pope and those under Jackson was renewed. The latter, having been reenforced, massed his forces on the left of the Federal army with the intention of turning Pope's flank and securing a position on the road to Centerville, in Pope's rear. The fiercest fighting of the day took place about 5 o'clock in the afternoon on the ground where the battle of Bull Run had been fought July 21, 1861. By night the left wing of the Union army had been driven back about half a mile, the right not so far. Pope, being defeated, retreated to Centerville. Federal loss, about 15,000; Confederate, 8,400. (See also Groveton (Va.), Battle of.)

Manassas, Va.:

Army manœuvers at, 6927.
Encampment at, 6774.

Manchuria.—The northeastern section of China. It is north of Korea, east of Mongolia, south and west of Siberia, from which it is separated by the Amur River on the north and the Usuri River on the east. Its area is estimated at 364,000 square miles and its population at 13,000,000. Before the World War, Russia and Japan were in competition to wrest Manchuria from China, and with the overthrow of the Tsarist Government of Russia in 1917, Japan renewed her endeavors to gain control of the country.

Manchuria:

Railroads in, internationalization and neutralization of, 7497.
Russo-Japanese agreement regarding, 7498.

Mandan Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mandatory Principle in the League of Nations Covenant discussed, 8673, 8793. (For text of the arrangements concerning mandatories, see pages 8679 *et seq.*)

Manila Harbor (Philippine Islands), Battle of.—Prior to the beginning

of the war with Spain the Asiatic Squadron of the United States had been lying for several weeks at Hongkong, under the command of Commodore (later Admiral) George Dewey. Upon the issuance of the colonial proclamation of neutrality, the usual 24 hours', notice having been given, Dewey repaired to Mirs Bay, near Hongkong. From there he proceeded, under telegraphic orders, to capture or destroy the Spanish fleet then assembled at Manila, capital of the Philippine Islands, a Spanish possession off the southeast coast of Asia. At daybreak May 1, 1898, the American fleet entered Manila Bay and before noon effected the total destruction of the Spanish fleet, consisting of 10 warships and a transport, besides capturing the naval station and forts at Cavite. Thus at one blow, in a few hours, was annihilated Spain's naval power in the Pacific. Nor was this all. The victory secured to the American commander complete control of the bay of Manila, with the ability to take the city at will. Not a life was lost on the American ships. The wounded numbered only seven. The Spanish loss was 412 officers and men killed and wounded. Aug. 15, after a brief assault upon the works of Manila by the land forces under Gen. Merritt, in which the squadron assisted, the last scene of the war was enacted at its starting place, resulting in the unconditional surrender of the city.

Manila, Philippine Islands (see also Philippine Islands):

Cable communications with, recommended, 6348, 6373, 6449.

Expeditions to, under command of Gen. Merritt, 6315.

Gen. Otis directed to avoid conflict with insurgents, 6584.

Victory of—

American squadron over Spanish fleet in bay of, discussed, 6297, 6315.

Commander of American squadron—

Appointed acting rear-admiral, 6297, 6568.

Sword to be presented to, and medals to men under, 6302.

Thanks of Congress to, and men under, 6298.

Recommended, 6297.

Reply of, 6302.

Thanks of President tendered, 6568.

Referred to, 6297.

Commander of the *Hugh McCulloch* in, recognition of services of, recommended, 6305.

American squadron and land forces at, discussed, 6319.

Thanks of President tendered commanders and men, 6579.

Mann Law. (See White Slavery.)

Manor.—In English law a freehold estate held by the lord of the manor, who is entitled to maintain a tenure between himself and copyhold tenants, whereby a sort of feudal relation is kept up between them. Manors closely resemble the feudal estates held in Scotland by all proprietors of land. Manors of the English type were granted in the United States in several of the Colonies on such terms that property right carried right of jurisdiction. In 1636 the proprietor of Maryland ordered that every grant of 2,000 acres should be made a manor.

Manual of Parliamentary Practice.—The manual prepared by Thomas Jefferson after he was elected Vice President in 1796 was the first such in this country, and it still holds the premier position as a guide for deliberative bodies, and is usually referred to as the Jefferson Manual.

Manufactory Bank. (See Bank, Manufactory.)

Manufacturers, Association of.—In order to combat the encroachments of organized labor and offset the growing tendency of public opinion and state legislatures to acquiesce in the demands of labor men, no matter how ruinous to employers, the National Association of Manufacturers was formed. A platform of ten principles for the guidance of members in dealing with the labor question was formulated, as follows:

1. Fair dealing is the fundamental and basic principle on which relations between employees and employers should rest.

2. The National Association of Manufacturers is not opposed to organizations of labor as such, but it is unalterably opposed to boycotts, blacklists and other illegal acts of interference with the personal liberty of employer or employee.

3. No person should be refused employment or in any way discriminated against on account of membership or non-membership in any labor organization, and there should be no discriminating against or interference with any employee who is not a member of a labor organization by members of such organizations.

4. With due regard to contracts, it is the right of the employee to leave his employment whenever he sees fit, and it is the right of the employer to discharge any employee when he sees fit.

5. Employers must be free to employ their work people at wages mutually satisfactory, without interference or dictation on the part of individuals or organizations not directly parties to such contracts.

6. Employers must be unmolested and unhampered in the management of their business in determining the amount and quality of their product, and in the use of any methods or systems of pay which are just and equitable.

7. In the interest of employees and employers of the country, no limitation should be placed upon the opportunities of any person to learn any trade to which he or she may be adapted.

8. The National Association of Manufacturers disapproves absolutely of strikes and lockouts, and favors an equitable adjustment of all differences between employers and employees by any amicable method that will preserve the rights of both parties.

9. Employees have the right to contract for their services in a collective capacity, but any contract that contains a stipulation that employment should be denied to men not parties to the contract is an invasion of the constitutional rights of the American

MANUFACTURES, 1919

Number of establishments	290,105
Capital	$44,688,093,771
Salaries and wages	$13,423,971,834
Officers and managers	$1,453,261,706
Clerks, salesmen, etc.	$1,439,109,788
Wage earners	$10,531,600,340
Rent	$212,043,089
Taxes, federal	$1,790,197,060
State	$289,172,297
Cost of materials used	$37,376,380,283
Value of products	$62,418,078,773
Proprietors and firm members	269,137
Salaried employees	1,447,227
Men	1,057,796
Women	389,431
Wage earners, average	9,096,372
Wage earners, December 15	10,160,107
Men	8,017,608
Women	2,008,127
Children under 16	134,372
Coal used, anthracite, l. tons	14,545,300
Bituminous, short tons	203,452,724
Coke used, short tons	42,764,287
Oil used, barrels	92,608,186
Gasoline used, barrels	2,344,469
Gas used, natural, M cu. ft.	305,768,321
Manufactured, M. cu. ft.	38,522,330
Primary horsepower	29,575,242

INDIVIDUAL INDUSTRIES

INDUSTRY	Wage-Earners, Average	Value of Products
Automobile bodies & parts	132,556	$ 692,170,692
Automobiles	210,559	2,387,903,287
Boots and shoes	211,049	1,155,041,436
Brass, bronze, copper goods	75,051	482,312,790
Bread & bakery products	141,592	1,151,896,318
Butter	17,641	583,163,011
Canning, fruits & vegetables	60,865	402,242,972
Cars & repairs by steam r. r. s.	484,437	1,279,235,393
Cars not by steam r. r. s.	52,298	538,222,831
Chemicals	55,586	438,658,869
Clothing, men's	175,270	1,162,985,633
Clothing, women's	165,649	1,208,543,128
Confections & ice cream	95,648	637,209,168
Cotton goods	430,966	2,125,272,193
Electrical machinery, supplies	212,374	997,968,119
Engines, steam, gas, water	77,617	464,774,735
Flour and grist mill products	45,481	2,052,434,385
Food preparations, general	30,365	631,598,150
Foundry & mach. shop gds.	482,767	2,289,250,859
Furniture	138,331	571,356,333
Iron & steel, blast furnaces	41,660	794,466,558
Iron & steel works and mills	375,088	2,828,902,376
Knit goods	172,572	713,139,689
Leather, tanned & finished	72,476	928,591,701
Liquors, malt and cereal	34,259	379,905,085
Lumber & timber products	480,945	1,387,471,413
Lumber, planing-mill gds.	86,956	500,438,258
Oil and cake, cottonseed	26,766	581,244,798
Paper and wood pulp	113,759	788,059,377
Petroleum, refining	58,889	1,632,532,766
Printing & publishing	123,005	597,663,228
Printing & publishing, newspaper & periodical	120,381	924,152,878
Rubber goods, general	119,848	987,088,045
Shipbuilding, steel	344,014	1,456,489,516
Silk goods	126,782	688,469,523
Slaughtering & meat pkng.	160,996	4,246,290,614
Smelting & refining, copper	17,345	651,101,591
Sugar, refining, not beet	43,962	730,986,706
Tobacco, cigars, cigarettes	138,773	773,662,495
Woolen goods	62,957	364,896,590
Worsted goods	103,830	700,537,482

workman, is against public policy, and is in violation of the conspiracy laws. This association declares its unalterable antagonism to the closed shop and insists that the doors of no industry be closed against American workmen because of their membership or non-membership in any labor organization.

10. The National Association of Manufacturers pledges itself to oppose any and all legislation not in accord with the foregoing declaration.

Manufactures.—The Census Bureau collects statistics of the leading manufacturing industries of the country every five years. The last complete census available is that of 1914, but by 1923 there were available preliminary figures of the census taken as of 1919. These figures are subject to slight correction, but are generally regarded as reliable pending the publication of the final figures.

The column to the left gives the preliminary figures for the census of 1919. There are separate articles on the leading trades.

Manufactures. (See also Business and Tariff):
Capital—
Invested in, discussed, 5741.
Should be applied to internal, 443.
Depression in, mentioned, 559.
Encouragement of, recommended, 58, 60, 193, 197, 318, 454, 469, 480, 538, 630, 979.
Increase of, 676, 760, 979, 1108, 3991.
Prosperous condition of, 2404.
Referred to, 95, 175, 361, 456, 667, 979.
Statistics of, referred to, 3066, 3067.
Tariff assistance to, 6713.
Of 1828, effect on, 1012.

"Man Without a Country, The."—The title of a story written in 1863 by Edward Everett Hale, which has been widely read and has made a strong patriotic appeal.

Manzano and Zuni National Forests combined, 7987.

Maps of United States, joint resolution providing for printing of, vetoed, 5292.

Marblehead, The, mentioned, 6317, 6766, 6768, 6769.

Marbury vs. Madison.—The first important case wherein the Supreme Court set aside an act of Congress because of conflict with the Constitution. William Marbury and others had been appointed justices of the peace in the District of Columbia by President John Adams, with the consent of the Senate. Before their commissions were issued Adams was succeeded by Thomas Jefferson and James Madison was appointed Secretary of State. Failing to receive his commission, Marbury moved the Supreme Court to issue a mandamus to Madison commanding him to issue it. The court decided that Marbury was legally entitled to his commission, but that the court had no constitutional authority to issue a mandamus in such a case, thus declaring unconstitutional a portion of the judiciary act of 1789, which purported to grant such authority.

Marietta, The, voyage and arrival of, from San Francisco discussed, 6316.

Marine Conference, International, at

Washington discussed and recommendations regarding, 5180, 5370, 5468, 5493, 5498, 5543.

Marine Corps.—The United States Marine Corps is an independent branch of the military service of the United States, serving generally under the direction of the Secretary of the Navy. The corps may be detached by order of the President for service with the army, and on various occasions parts of the corps have so served.

Marines served on shore and on board vessels of the navy throughout the Revolutionary war, two battalions having been authorized by the Continental Congress Nov. 10, 1775, but the present organization dates from July 11, 1798, when an act of Congress was approved for establishing and organizing a marine corps to consist of one major, four captains, sixteen first lieutenants, twelve second lieutenants, forty-eight sergeants, forty-eight corporals, thirty-two drums and fifes and 720 privates.

The following duties are assigned to the marine corps: To garrison the different navy yards and naval stations, both within and beyond the continental limits of the United States. To furnish the first line of the mobile defence of naval bases and naval stations beyond the continental limits of the United States. To man such naval defences, and to aid in manning, if necessary, such other defences as may be erected for the defence of naval bases and naval stations beyond the continental limits of the United States. To garrison the Isthmian Canal Zone, Panama. To furnish such garrisons and expeditionary forces for duties beyond the seas as may be necessary in time of peace. To serve on board all battleships and armored cruisers of the navy, and such other vessels as may be directed, in detachments of not less than 8 per cent of the strength of the enlisted men of the navy on said vessels. In case of disturbances in foreign countries marines are landed to protect American interests.

The marine corps garrisons the following places:

Naval Proving Ground, Indian Head, Md.

American Legation, Peking, China.

American Legation, Managua, Nicaragua.

Marine Barracks, Washington, D. C., and San Diego, Cal.

Rifle Range, Winthrop, Md.

Navy Yards.—Boston, Mass.; Charleston, S. C.; Mare Island, Cal.; New York, N. Y.; Norfolk, Va.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Puget Sound, Wash.; Portsmouth, N. H.; Washington, D. C.

Recruit Depots.—Mare Island, Cal., and Port Royal, S. C.

Naval Stations.—Cavite, Philippine Islands; Guam, Mariana Islands; Guantanamo, Cuba; Pearl Harbor, Hawaii; Key West, Fla.; Olongapo, Philippine Islands.

Naval Academy.—Annapolis, Md.

Naval Hospitals.—Boston, Mass.; Las Animas, Colo.; New York, N. Y.; Norfolk, Va.; Washington, D. C.

Naval Home.—Philadelphia, Pa.

Staff Offices.—New York, N. Y., San Francisco, Cal., and Philadelphia, Pa.

Naval Magazines.—Dover, N. J.; Fort Mifflin, Pa.; Illingham, Mass.; Iona Island, N. Y.; St. Julien's Creek, Va.

Naval Prisons.—Cavite, Philippine Islands; Mare Island, Cal.; Portsmouth, N. H.

Also 38 vessels of the U S. Navy.

The latest authorized strength of the Marine Corps was 1,093 officers, 100 warrant officers, 42 pay clerks and 27,400 enlisted men. Within this authorized strength were comprised 3 major generals, 9 brigadier generals, 33 colonels, 44 lieutenant-colonels, 124 majors, 329 captains, 276 first lieutenants, 275 second lieutenants, 50 marine gunners, 92 clerks, 73 sergeants major, 368 quartermaster sergeants, 3 drum majors, 413 first sergeants, 399 gunnery sergeants, 1,853 sergeants, 3,303 corporals, 361 drummers and trumpeters, 4,224 first-class privates, 16,335 privates and 67 musicians.

The Marine Corps played a leading part in the activities of the American forces in France during the World War. Its losses were 2,800 dead, of whom 1,614 were killed in action and 860 died of wounds; and 8,793 wounded. These figures should be read in light of a total strength on active duty at the time of the armistice of 72,963, of which 24,555 were in France. The Corps distinguished itself especially in the capture of Belleau Woods, where more than 1,000 deaths were suffered by the Marines and the name of which was later changed by the French Government to Marine Corps Woods (*Bois de la Brigade de Marine.*)

Marine Corps:

Appointment in, referred to, 1965.

Compensation to officers of, referred to, 906, 1097.

Expenditures of, 2670.

Appropriation for, recommended, 1045.

Nominations for, referred to, 2586, 3236.

Plan for peace establishment of, 764.

Rank and position in, discussed, 3235.

Recommendation for, 2502.

Should be merged into artillery or infantry, 1023.

Marine Corps Reserve. (See Naval Reserve.)

Marine Hospitals. (See also Health Service.)

Construction of, referred to, 2747.

Patients treated by, during 1885, 4931.

Plan for, referred to, 1613.

Provision for, recommended, 324.

Service discussed, 4931, 5877.

Sites for, referred to, 1796, 1835.

Appropriation for, recommended, 1953.

Marine Insurance. (See Insurance, Fire.)

Marine, Secretary of.—Up to 1781 the Board of Admiralty had supervision of all naval affairs. Feb. 7 of that year the Continental Congress created the office of Secretary of Marine, whose duties corresponded with those of the present Secretary of the Navy. Before the end of that year, however, the duties of the office were transferred to the Treasury Department.

Marine Signals, international conference at Washington for adoption of system of, etc., 5468.

Marines:
Arrest of, in Mexico, 7934.
Funeral of, in Brooklyn Navy Yard, 7939.

Mariposa Big Tree Grove, presented to Nation by California, 7013.

Maritime Canal Company, referred to, 5623, 6185, 6326.

Maritime Law, declaration concerning referred to, 2917, 2945.
Codification of, and international, conference on, 7411.
(See also World War and International law.)

Maritime Policy, adoption of, by United States recommended 6340.

Maritime Rights, correspondence with foreign powers, regarding, referred to, 7854.

Maritime War, rights of neutrals and belligerents in, discussed, 821.
Uniform action of the powers regarding, 866.

Markets (see also Business, Commerce and Trade):
Domestic, for raw materials, necessary to protect farmers, 578.
Foreign — combinations, competitions and long credits in, 8040.
World, for American goods, 8321.

Markets and Rural Organization Service, Agriculture Department.—A branch office of the Department of Agriculture devoted to the study of the many problems of rural organization, including studies of marketing and distributing farm products and bettering country life. It is not generally appreciated, said Secretary Houston, in his report for 1915, to what extent marketing troubles have their origin in irregularity of production or lack of a stable and balanced agriculture. In years when a destructive disease prevails, the yield from an acreage normally sufficient to supply consuming requirements is insufficient to meet the demand, and high prices follow. High prices also may result from reduced acreage caused by low prices at planting time. High prices one year stimulate heavy planting the next. The solution of evils of this sort was the problem confronting the Markets and Rural Organization Service. Its work was later transferred to other bureaus of the Agriculture Department (q. v.) and the Service abolished as such.

Marmion Case.—The South Carolina legislature in 1822 passed a law providing that any free negroes entering the ports of that State on ships could be imprisoned until the departure of the vessels. This was done in the case of negroes on board the *Marmion*. The district court of the United States in 1823 decided that this law was contrary to the Constitution and incompatible with the international obligations of the United States. The Attorney-General rendered a similar opinion in 1824.

Marque and Reprisal, Letters of.—These are commissions issued by a belligerent state to vessels of private interests, either neutrals or those of its own citizens, authorizing them to fight the enemy at sea. The word *marque* represents the old meaning of "boundary," and is used in this connection because letters of marque and reprisal originally authorized the holder to proceed across the boundaries into an enemy country in order to take reprisals. In 1797 and in 1816, the United States forbade the issuance of letters of marque to neutrals, but allowed the practice for its own private citizens until the middle of the nineteenth century. The Declaration of Paris, in 1856, forbade letters of marque and reprisal, but that declaration was not ratified by the United States because it did not exempt innocent commerce from capture at sea. Accordingly, the United States is still technically free to issue letters of marque and reprisal to its own citizens.

Marriage:
Collection of statistics of States by Director of Census, recommended, 6942.
Discussed, 7048.

Marriage and Divorce, statistics of. (See Divorce.)

Marriages of American citizens abroad, recommendations regarding, 4246, 4301, 4360.

Marseillaise.—The French National Hymn. Composed in Strassburg in 1792 by a young officer, Claude Joseph Rouget de Lisle, it was sung by volunteers coming from the city of Marseilles when they entered Paris during the French Revolution, and later was shouted aloud with glee at the attack upon the King's Palace. First called the Hymn of the Marseillians, the title soon was shortened to the Marseillaise. The hymn is decidedly stirring in both words and music, and is distinctively republican in its import, as is shown by the fact that it was prohibited during the later French empire and monarchy, and also by the fact that it has received recognition as the official hymn of the Socialist and of other revolutionary movements.

Marshals, United States:
Acts making appropriations to pay fees of, vetoed, 4493, 4497, 4543, 4544.
Appropriations for maintenance of service of, recommended, 4474, 4525.
Necessity for, referred to, 4535.
Compensation to, discussed, 2666, 2714, 4770, 4836, 4939, 5103.
Referred to, 91.

Martha's Vineyard, Mass., lands designated by proclamation for lighthouses on, 1221.

Martial Law.—A system of government under the direction of military authority. It is an arbitrary kind of law, proceeding directly from the military power and having no immediate constitutional or legislative sanction. It is only justified by necessity and supersedes all civil government. Sir Matthew Hale said: "Martial law is built on no settled principle, but is arbitrary, and, in truth, no law, but sometimes indulged, rather than allowed, as law." Suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus* is essentially a declaration of martial law. "In this case," says Blackstone,

"the nation parts with a portion of liberty to secure its permanent welfare, and suspected persons may then be arrested without cause assigned."

Martin vs. Hunter's Lessee.—In 1791 Martin brought suit of ejectment against the defendant in the district court of Virginia for the recovery of certain lands. The court decided for the defendant. The court of appeals of Virginia reversed this decision, and their judgment was reversed by the United States Supreme Court in 1816. The court of appeals of Virginia refused to execute this judgment, declaring that the "appellate power of the Supreme Court of the United States does not extend to this court under a sound construction of the Constitution of the United States," and that the "act of Congress to that effect is not in pursuance of said Constitution." The Supreme Court overruled this decision and thus established its jurisdiction upon such points.

Martinique.—A French colony in the Lesser Antilles, with an area of 385 square miles and a population of 195,000. The chief town is Fort-de-France. The main products are sugar, rum, cacao, coffee, tobacco, and cotton. There are some 15 sugar works and a number of other factories. Latest figures show exports of $16,000,000 and imports of $11,000,000.

Martinique, Island of:

Tonnage on American vessels at, referred to, 1123.

Volcanic eruption on, detroying St. Pierre, formerly populated by 26,000, 6679.

Mary Lowell, The, seizure of, by Spanish authorities, referred to, 3986.

Mary, The, capture and sequestration of, by Netherlands, 1612.

Claims arising out of, 1693.

Maryland.—One of the thirteen original states of the Union; nickname, "Old Line State;" motto, "Fatti maschii; parole femine" ("Deeds are men; words are women"). It was founded by Lord Baltimore in 1634 and named in honor of Henrietta Maria, wife of Charles I. Maryland extends from lat. 37° 53′ to 39° 43′ north and from long. 75° 4′ to 79° 33′ west. It is bounded on the north by Pennsylvania, on the east by Delaware and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Chesapeake Bay, on the southwest by Virginia and West Virginia (separated by the Potomac), and on the west by West Virginia. It is divided into two parts by the Chesapeake Bay, and has an area of 12,327 square miles.

Maryland was first settled at St. Marys in 1634 as a proprietary colony of the Calvert family, but was governed as a royal province from 1691 to 1716. The Mason and Dixon line was established as the boundary between Maryland and Pennsylvania about 1766.

The fisheries of the State are important, the oysters of Chesapeake Bay being widely famous. Other fishery products are shad, bass, perch, and shell fish. Agriculture is an important pursuit, about 82 per cent of the area being in farms, and these mostly worked by their owners.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 49,923; comprising 5,057,140 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $286,167,028. Native white farmers operated 40,669 farms, about one-eighth of the farmers being negroes.

The latest figures for the annual agricultural production are as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	693,000	28,413,000	$39,778,000
Wheat	790,000	10,665,000	22,930,000
Hay	450,000	630,000*	15,120,000
Tobacco	29,000	19,575,000†	5,872,000
Potatoes	55,000	5,170,000	6,721,000
Sw. Potatoes	12,000	1,680,000	2,234,000
Oats	65,000	1,820,000	1,492,000

*Tons; †Pounds.

The last figures for farm animals gave 168,000 horses, valued at $17,136,000; 25,000 mules, $3,350,000; 180,000 cows, $16,020,000; 138,000 other cattle, $6,955,000; 250,000 sheep, $2,725,000; 461,000 swine, $8,759,000. The last annual wool clip was 812,000 pounds. The fruit crop also is particularly important.

The most important mining industry is that of coal, in the western part of the state. The last annual coal production was 4,760,000 tons. Maryland ranks eighth among the states in total manufacturing, first in fertilizer, eighth in tobacco, second in iron shipbuilding, third in clothing, tenth in iron and steel, and thirteenth in cotton goods.

In 1910, the population was 1,295,346. In 1920, it was 1,449,610. The city of Baltimore accounts for more than half of the total number of inhabitants. Of the population in 1910, 232,250 were negroes and 104,174 were foreign-born. Of the foreign-born, 36,650 were from Germany and 25,532 were from Russia and Russian Poland.

Latest figures show 2,476 public schools, with 6,525 teachers, of whom 975 are colored. There are 235,268 pupils enrolled, of whom 41,395 are colored.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Maryland having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 4,799. The amount of capital invested was $295,934,000, giving employment to 131,333 persons, using material valued at $238,982,000, and turning out finished goods worth $377,764,000. Salaries and wages paid aggregate $71,829,000. This report showed a decrease in the number of establishments since the last report, which was in 1909, but an increase in the amount of capital invested. The number of employees also increased.

Maryland (see also Baltimore):

Act of general assembly of, relating to Chesapeake and Delaware Canal Co., 870.

Census of, referred to, 321.

Cession of Government interest in Chesapeake and Ohio Canal to, considered, 1776.

Claims of, against United States for expenditures during War of 1812, 894.

Combinations, unlawful in, discussed and proclamations against, 4400, 4424.

Constitutional amendments received from governor, 63.

District of Columbia, portion of, ceded to Congress by, 92.
Referred to, 86.
Legislature of, arrest and dispersion of members of, would not be justifiable, 3218.
Loan of, to Washington City, payment of, guaranteed by United States, 321.
Ratification of amendment to Federal Constitution by, referred to, 63, 249.
Unlawful combinations in, discussed, and proclamations against, 4400, 4424.

Maryland in Liberia.—A negro colony to the eastward of Cape Palmas, in what is now the Republic of Liberia, Africa, founded by the Maryland State Colonization Society in 1834. Expeditions sent to Monrovia in 1831 and 1832 proved unsuccessful. John Russworm, a citizen of Monrovia, was chosen the first governor in 1836. In 1857 it became part of Liberia.

Mason and Slidell, Confederate envoys to Great Britain and France, removal of, from British steamer *Trent*, 3262, 3263, 3264, 3267, 3268.

Mason and Dixon's Line.—The boundary line between Pennsylvania and Maryland. It is coincident with the parallel of 39° 43′, beginning at the Delaware River and running 244 miles to the westward, and was laid out by two eminent English mathematicians and astronomers, Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, about 1766. Lord Baltimore and William Penn having disputed the boundary between their adjoining grants, the case was taken to London for adjudication and the parties to the suit were ordered to have the line run. The surveyors marked the line with boundary posts, having on one side the arms of Penn and on the other those of Lord Baltimore. The line became famous in later days as marking in part the boundary between free and slave states. During the discussion in Congress on the Missouri compromise John Randolph of Roanoke made free use of this phrase, which contributed to its more popular use as such dividing line.

Masonic, The, confiscation of, attempted by Spain, discussed, 4626, 4759.
Indemnity for, awarded, 4919.

Massachusetts.—One of the thirteen original states of the Union; nickname, "The Old Bay State"; motto, "Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem" ("With the sword she seeks quiet peace under liberty"). It was named from the Massachusetts Indians, who occupied the eastern part of the territory. The name means "At the Great Hills." Massachusetts extends from lat. 41° 14′ to 42° 53′ north and from long. 69° 53′ to 73° 32′ west. It is bounded on the north by Vermont and New Hampshire, on the east by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, Rhode Island and Connecticut, and on the west by New York, and has an area of 8,266 square miles.

Massachusetts chartered the first college in America. It has produced more eminent literary men than any other state in the Union. It is the leading state in the manufacture of boots and shoes and cotton and woolen goods. It was visited by Gosnold in 1602 and settled at Plymouth in 1620. This was the third in the order of settlement of the British Colonies in America. Later settlements were made at Salem and Boston in 1628 and 1630. A Confederate union of the Massachusetts, Plymouth, New Haven, and the Connecticut Colonies existed from 1643 to 1684 for defensive purposes. Massachusetts took an important part in the Revolutionary War and the organization of the Government. It was the scene of Shay's Rebellion in 1786-1787.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 36,917, comprising 2,875,941 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $226,474,025. The average value of land per acre was $36.69, as compared with $27.62 in 1900.

The figures for the last annual agricultural production are as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay	410,000	656,000*	$17,712,000
Tobacco	10,000	15,400,000†	7,130,000
Corn	44,000	2,640,000	4,540,000
Potatoes	33,000	2,970,000	6,645,000

*Tons; †Pounds.

Latest figures show within the state 52,000 horses, valued at $8,060,000; 159,000 cows, $16,695,000; 102,000 other cattle, $4,570,000; and 176,000 pigs, $4,752,000.

Massachusetts is primarily a manufacturing state and about three-fourths of its population is urban.

The 1917 census of manufactures showed that the total amount of capital invested in manufactures was $2,239,848,630. The average number of wage-earners was 708,421 and their wages, $537,144,629. The raw material used in manufacture was valued at $1,782,440,354 and the value of the finished products was $3,020,557,545. The four leading industries, in rank of value, were the cotton goods; woolen, felt and worsted goods; boots and shoes; and foundry and machine shops. There is very little mining, the chief mineral products being quarry and clay products.

In 1917, there were 151 National Banks in operation in the state, with assets of $766,982,000. There were 196 savings-banks, with assets of $1,113,887,000; 184 co-operative banks, with assets of $126,695,000; and 100 trust companies with assets of $775,786,000.

In 1920, the population was 3,852,356. A state census in 1915 showed the population as 3,693,310. Of these 45,600 were negro and 1,152,045 were foreign-born. Of the foreign-born, 210,000 were from Ireland, 122,000 from Italy, 96,000 from Russia, 96,000 from England, 83,000 from Poland.

The latest figures show 19,609 teachers in the public schools, an enrollment of 607,805 pupils and an average daily attendance of 506,478. There are 253 public high schools within the state, and 17 colleges and universities of which 14 are non-sectarian and 5 are for women only.

Massachusetts (see also Boston; Lynn):
Claims of, for services rendered by militia in War of 1812, discussed, 795, 854.
Constitution of United States, ratifi-

cation of certain articles of, evidences of, 166.
Governor of—
Referred to, 65.
Refusal of, to furnish militia for defense of frontier, 501.
Prisoners in, provision for, recommended, 183.

Massachusetts Bay Company.—A colonizing company chartered in England, March 19, 1628, by John Humphrey, John Endicott, and others. The company grew out of the preexisting Dorchester Company, and was the result of imperiled political and religious rights in England under Charles I. The patentees received a grant of land extending from the Atlantic to the "Western Ocean," in width from a line running three miles north of the Merrimac to one running three miles south of the Charles. Endicott headed a colony which settled at Salem in September, 1628. March 4, 1629, a new charter was granted to the governor and company of Massachusetts Bay, and the old officers of the company were succeeded by John Winthrop as governor, with a deputy and eighteen assistants. In 1630 Winthrop, at the head of a large body of settlers, transferred the company headquarters to America and founded Boston. Under this charter Massachusetts carried on her government for fifty-five years.

Massachusetts, The, appropriation to owners for detention of the *Perthshire* by, recommended, 3247.

Massachusetts, The (battleship), mentioned, 6396.

Matanzas, Cuba, harbor and forts shelled by American squadron, 6315.

Mauritius.—A British island possession in the Indian Ocean about 500 miles east of Madagascar. Its area is about 720 square miles and its population, about 385,000. The staple industry is sugar, the annual crop averaging about 250,000 tons. The latest figures show annual imports of $14,000,000 and exports of $20,000,000. About 300,000 tonnage of shipping visits the island annually. The capital is Port Louis, with a population of some 50,000.

Mayflower Compact.—Before the landing of the Pilgrim Fathers the company gathered in the cabin of the *Mayflower*, in Provincetown Harbor, Nov. 11, 1620, and there bound themselves into a body politic and pledged themselves to abide individually and collectively by the laws they should make.

Mayflower Descendants.—Organized in the City of New York, Dec. 22, 1894, by lineal descendants of the *Mayflower* pilgrims, "to preserve their memory, their records, their history, and all facts relating to them, their ancestors, and their posterity." Every lineal descendant over eighteen years of age, male or female, or any passenger of the voyage of the *Mayflower* which terminated at Plymouth, Mass., December, 1620, including all signers of "The Compact," are eligible to membership. The initiation fee is $10 and the annual dues are $5. The Triennial Congress is held in September at Plymouth, Mass. Societies have been organized in New York, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Illinois, District of Columbia, Ohio, New Jersey, Wisconsin, Rhode Island, Michigan, Minnesota, Maine, Colorado, and California.

Maysville, Washington, Paris and Lexington Turnpike Road Co., act authorizing subscription of stock in, vetoed, 1046.

Mazzei Letter.—A private letter written by Thomas Jefferson to an Italian named Mazzei in 1796. The letter was translated and published in an English paper. It aroused much animosity against Jefferson by its supposed allusion to Washington and others as those "Samsons in the field and Solomons in the council" who had formed an Anglican monarchical aristocratic party in America whose avowed object was "to draw over us the substance, as they had already done the forms, of the British Government."

Meat, necessity and regulations for conservation of, 8432. (See also Animals and Animal Products; Food.)

Meat Inspection Law discussed, 7080, 7298. (See also Food and Drugs Act.)

Meat Packing and Slaughtering.—The art of refrigeration has been so perfected in recent years that fresh meat may be shipped thousands of miles and its quality so preserved that it is even more desirable and palatable at its destination than at the point where slaughtered. The present methods of curing and preserving by salting, smoking, etc., differ from the ancient methods only in the extent and system adopted. Preservation in hermetically sealed cans or jars is a comparatively recent process, introduced into the United States in 1873. The utilization of the by-products of slaughtering, such as hides, hoofs, horns, bones, hair, fats, intestines, blood, etc., has broadened the scope of the business and added many dollars per head to the value of animals.

The present day meat packing establishment, with a constant demand, arranges for a constant supply of live animals by maintaining stock yards which are regularly fed by accession from the farmer and herder. Machinery, too, has employed an important part in bringing the modern meat packing establishment to completion. In the up-to-date plant operations are continuous, lighted at night by electricity and surrounded always by the latest sanitary precautions and appliances.

The rise of slaughtering and meat packing as a distinct industry in the United States dates back to 1818, when a packer is recorded as conducting business in Cincinnati. Similar operations were begun in Chicago in 1823, but the packing statistics of the latter city were of small account until 1850, though it is said 9,600 hogs were packed there in 1834. It was not until 1861-62 that Chicago attained pre-eminence as a packing centre.

During the winter of 1832-33 there were several packing establishments in Cincinnati, and it is claimed that 85,000 hogs were slaughtered there that season. The development of the agricultural resources of the Ohio Valley cheapened the cost of raising stock, and the demands of the Eastern and Southern markets caused increased production, particularly of hogs. Cincinnati's pre-eminence in the meat packing industry was maintained up to the beginning of the Civil War, when Chicago took the lead it has since maintained.

	1919 (Pub. 1922)	1914	1909	1899
Number Establishments	1,304	1,279	1,221	882
Persons Engaged	197,392	121,729	105,971	80,000
Capital	$1,176,483,643	$ 534,273,563	$ 378,319,045	$188,800,181
Salaries and Wages.....	269,174,628	89,696,745	70,122,766	43,493,900
Cost of Materials.....	3,782,929,533	1,441,662,658	1,191,438,076	682,096,839
Value of Products.....	4,246,290,614	1,651,965,424	1,355,544,431	783,779,191

Cincinnati's advantage was due to its situation in the centre of the stock-raising region and to its superior banking facilities, for the packing industry demanded that large sums be expended in ready cash. It was also necessary often to employ large gangs of laborers and coopers at short notice and these could be had at Cincinnati. An ample supply of salt was always readily obtainable there. In 1844 there were twenty-six packing houses in Cincinnati, and in 1856, forty-two. During the season of 1848-49 475,000 hogs were slaughtered there.

About 20,000 hogs were killed in Chicago in 1850-51, and since that time the business has steadily increased. The Union Stock Yards were laid out on 320 acres of land in 1865. This area has been doubled since, and the plant is now worth many millions of dollars. The amount of capital invested was given in 1900 as $67,000,000. Within the yards are more than twenty miles of water troughs, seventy-five miles of drainage pipes and one hundred fifty miles of railroad track.

Efforts to shorten the overland journey of live cattle, sheep and hogs from the western farms and ranges where raised to the place of slaughter caused the establishment of yards and packing houses further west.

With the development of the country west of the Mississippi St. Louis took its rise as a packing and slaughtering centre.

The importance of Kansas City as a meat packing centre dates from 1870. The stock yards there cover about 200 acres. There were only three packing houses in the city in 1873. Other meat packing centres are St. Joseph, Mo., and Omaha, Neb.

The industry was surveyed in the last federal census of manufactures, from which the statistics at the head of the page and following are taken. The report, published in 1922, was taken as of 1919.

The following table shows the quantity and value of the industry's chief products for the year covered by the census:

Products	*Pounds*	*Value*
FRESH MEAT—		
Beef	4,832,061,881	$846,794,386
Veal	422,978,820	83,912,942
Mutton & lamb	500,360,124	120,338,355
Pork	2,095,884,557	532,669,835
Other	513,690,210	58,746,059
CURED MEAT—		
Beef	129,960,004	28,359,892
Pork	4,146,117,111	1,217,589,927
CANNED GOODS	305,955,406	96,904,341
SAUSAGE—		
Canned	160,908,986	27,965,155
All other	643,905,181	145,622,246
LARD, OILS, FATS—		
Lard	1,372,869,656	415,817,212
Lard compounds, substitutes..	521,121,914	123,724,098
Oils, gallons..	21,640,698	40,365,831
Tallow	211,188,146	28,591,346
Oleomargarine .	123,538,860	36,777,815
Fertilizers, tons.	382,132	18,314,754
Hides & pelts...	641,923,626	243,561,245
Wool & hair....	90,244,917	24,130,399

The report covers establishments engaged in wholesale slaughtering and meat packing, not retail establishments, nor those engaged exclusively in manufacturing lard or sausage or in dressing and killing poultry. Of the 1,304 establishments covered, 460 reported federal inspection, but the inspection covered almost two-thirds of the animals slaughtered.

The leading state is Illinois, employing 34% of the wage-earners and producing 30% of the total value of products. It is followed by Kansas (11% and 10%), Nebraska (6% and 7%), New York (4% and 6%), Missouri (5% and 6%), Iowa (4% and 5%) and Ohio (3% and 4%).

The leading cities are Chicago, producing 25½% of the value of product in 1919 and 24% in 1914, Kansas City (9% and 8%), Omaha (7% in 1919), New York (4% in 1919 and 6½% in 1914), Indianapolis (2½% and 2%) and St. Louis (2% and 2%).

Of the wage-earners, 89½% were male and 10½% female, as compared with 93½% and 6½% in 1914.

January and December are normally the months of greatest activity in the industry.

There were 38 establishments employing over 1,000 wage-earners each; with 26, from 500 to 1,000; 39, from 250 to 500; 63, from 100 to 250; 92, from 50 to 100; 136, from 20 to 50; 303, from 6 to 20; and 607, less than 6. Most of the wage-earners worked in establishments where the prevailing hours of labor were 48, as compared with 60 in 1914 and 1909.

There were 310 establishments with annual value of products over $1,000,000 each; 121, between $500,000 and $1,000,000; 385, between $100,000 and $500,000; and 338, between $20,000 and $100,000.

Only 582 of the 1,304 establishments were owned by corporations, but they employed 96½% of the wage-earners and produced 95% of the total value of products.

The following table gives statistics of animals slaughtered in the report year:—

	Number	*Cost*
Beeves	10,818,511	$1,055,739,469
Calves	4,395,675	96,449,234
Sheep & lambs...	13,497,300	146,775,993
Hogs	44,520,726	1,757,279,014
Others & materials.....		726,685,823

In addition, there were slaughtered for others—553,839 beeves; 387,692 calves; 269,128 sheep, lambs, goats and kids; and 2,290,539 hogs.

The following table gives the average live cost per pound:—

	1919	*1914*	*1909*	*1899*
Beeves	$.107	$.069	$.047	$.042
Calves	.128	.082	.059	.058
Sheep, lambs ..	.139	.067	.061	.048
Hogs	.180	.082	.071	.042

The following table shows the average weight of the animals slaughtered:—

	Lbs. on hoof	*Lbs. dressed*
Beeves	912	473
Calves	171	104
Sheep, lambs, goats....	78	37
Hogs	219	165

The Department of Agriculture estimated the total meat production in the United States in a recent year as 9,796,929,000 pounds of beef, 558,318,000 pounds of mutton and 13,010,577,000 pounds of pork, a total of 23,365,824,000. Of this total.

20,338,432 pounds were consumed in the United States. The per capita consumption of meat in the United States for 1918 was estimated as follows: Beef, 85.9 pounds; mutton, 5.3 pounds; pork, 102.3 pounds. The total gives 193.5 as the average number of pounds of meat consumed per person in the United States in the course of the year.

Mechanicsville (Va.), Battle of.—One of the Seven Days' Battles before Richmond. On June 26, 1862, Lee massed his troops on his left, A. P. Hill crossing to the north side of the Chickahominy and being supported by Longstreet and D. H. Hill. Jackson joined the Confederate forces later. The Confederate attack on Fitz-John Porter at dawn was repulsed, but the Federal army subsequently retired. According to Federal accounts, the Confederate loss was 1,500, the Union 361. This battle is also called the battle of Beaver Dam Creek.

Mecklenburg Declaration.—A series of resolutions purporting to have been adopted by the citizens of Mecklenburg County, N. C., May 20, 1775, declaring their independence of Great Britain, followed by a second series of resolutions, adopted on the 31st of May, providing for a local government. The independence resolutions were first published in 1819 and created much discussion as to their genuineness. They contained several phrases almost or quite identical with portions of the document adopted at Philadelphia, July 4, 1776. Thomas Jefferson immediately declared them fraudulent. It was admitted that the original Mecklenburg resolutions were burned in 1800 and that those published in 1819 were reproduced from memory by a son of one of the secretaries of the meeting. The North Carolina legislature investigated the matter and secured enough evidence to warrant them in making May 20 a state holiday. The historians are divided in opinion. Hildreth, one of the most critical, admits the validity of the Declaration, but, curiously enough, says it was made May 31. Bancroft contends that only a provisional government was formed, and that on the date of the 31st. There is no dispute as to the fact that a government was organized. In North Carolina, among the Scotch-Irish people, there exists little doubt that the Mecklenburgers declared their independence on May 20, 1775. William A. Graham, Secretary of the Navy from 1850 to 1852 and candidate of the Whigs for vice-president in 1852, was the son of Joseph Graham, who was present at the meeting in Charlotte which declared independence, and testified to the fact.

Mecklenburg-Schwerin:

Treaty with, 2417, 2479.

Vessels of, discriminating duties on, suspended by proclamation, 1365.

Medal of Honor Legion.—Composed of officers and enlisted men of the United States army and navy who have been awarded medals of honor for most distinguished gallantry in action during any war in which the United States has been engaged. At the present time it has 440 such members.

Medals.—Congress has from time to time awarded gold and silver medals for distinguished services in the army and navy. Since the civil war most of the medals have been awarded for heroic rescues from dangers at sea. Under resolutions of 1874, 1878 and 1882 several hundred medals of honor have been awarded by the Secretary of the Treasury for life saving. Among the recipients of the latter have been eight women.

The following is a list of persons who have been awarded medals by Congress for distinguished services in the army and navy:

Gen. George Washington, (gold medal) for the Capture of Boston.

Brig.-Gen. Horatio Gates, (gold) Defeat of Burgoyne.

Maj.-Gen. Anthony Wayne, (gold) Storming of Stony Point.

Lieut.-Col. De Fleury, (silver) Storming of Stony Point.

Maj. John Stewart, (silver) Storming of Stony Point.

Maj. Henry Lee, (gold) Surprise of Paulus Hook.

John Paulding, (silver) Capture of Andre.

David Williams, (silver) Capture of Andre.

Isaac Van Wart, (silver) Capture of Andre.

Brig.-Gen. Daniel Morgan, (gold) Victory of Cowpens.

Lieut.-Col. William A. Washington, (silver) Victory of Cowpens.

Lieut. John E. Howard, (silver) Victory of Cowpens.

Maj.-Gen. Nathaniel Greene, (gold) Victory at Eutaw Springs.

Capt. John Paul Jones, (gold) Capture of the *Serapis* 1779.

Capt. Thomas Truxtun, (gold) Action with the *Vengeance* (fr).

Com. Edward Preble, (gold) Tripoli.

Capt. Isaac Hull, (gold) Capture of the *Guerriere.*

Capt. Jacob Jones, (gold) Capture of the *Frolic.*

Capt. Stephen Decatur, (gold) Capture of the *Macedonian.*

Capt. William Bainbridge, (gold) Capture of the *Java.*

Lieut. Edward R. McCall, (gold) Capture of the *Boxer.*

Com. Oliver H. Perry, (gold) Victory on Lake Erie.

Capt. Jesse D. Elliott, (gold) Victory on Lake Erie.

Capt. James Lawrence, (gold) Capture of the *Peacock.*

Com. Thomas Macdonough, (gold) Victory on Lake Champlain.

Capt. Robert Henley, (gold) Victory on Lake Champlain.

Lieut. Stephen Cassin, (gold) Victory on Lake Champlain.

Capt. Lewis Warrington, (gold) Capture of the *Empervier.*

Capt. Johnston Blakely (to the widow), (gold) Capture of the *Reindeer.*

Maj.-Gen. Jacob Brown, (gold) Victory of Chippewa, etc.

Maj.-Gen. Peter B. Porter, (gold) Victory of Chippewa, etc.

Brig.-Gen. E. W. Ripley, (gold) Victory of Chippewa, etc.

Brig.-Gen. James Miller, (gold) Victory of Chippewa, etc.

Maj.-Gen. Winfield Scott, (gold) Victory of Chippewa, etc.

Maj.-Gen. Edmund P. Gaines, (gold) Victory of Erie.

Maj.-Gen. Alexander Macomb, (gold) Victory of Plattsburg.

Maj.-Gen. Andrew Jackson, (gold) Victory of New Orleans.

Capt. Charles Stewart, (gold) Capture of *Cyane* and *Levant*.

Capt. James Biddle, (gold) Capture of *Penguin*.

Maj.-Gen. William H. Harrison, (gold) Victory of the Thames.

Gov. Isaac Shelby, (gold) Victory of the Thames.

Col. Geo. Croghan (22 yrs. after), (gold) Defence of Fort Stephenson, 1813.

Maj.-Gen. Zachary Taylor, (gold) Victory on Rio Grande.

Maj.-Gen. Zachary Taylor, (gold) Capture of Monterey.

British, French and Spanish officers and crews, (gold and silver) Rescuing Crew of the U. S. Brig-of-war *Somers* before Vera Cruz, Dec. 7, 1846.

Maj.-Gen. Winfield Scott, (gold) Mexican Campaign.

Maj.-Gen. Zachary Taylor, (gold) Victory of Buena Vista.

Capt. Duncan N. Ingraham, (gold) Release of Martin Koszta.

Dr. Frederick H. Rose of the British Navy, (gold) Humanity—care of yellow fever patients from Jamaica to N. Y. on the U. S. S. *Susquehanna*.

Maj.-Gen. Ulysses S. Grant, (gold) Victories of Fort Donelson, Vicksburg, Chattanooga.

Cornelius Vanderbilt, (gold) Gift of ship *Vanderbilt*.

Capts. Creighton, Low and Stouffler, (gold) Rescuing 500 passengers from the S. S. *San Francisco*, July 26, 1853.

Cyrus W. Field, (gold) Laying the Atlantic Cable.

George Peabody, (gold) Promotion of Education.

Capt. Crandall and others, Long Island lighthouse keeper and crew, (gold) Saving passengers from the *Metis* of the N. Y. and Providence Line, Aug. 31, 1872.

George F. Robinson, (gold) Saving William H. Seward from assassination Apr. 14, 1865. Besides the medal $5,000.

Under resolutions of July 12, 1862, and March 3, 1863, 2,000 army medals of bronze were provided for non-commissioned officers and privates for gallantry in action. All the members of the twenty-seventh Maine volunteers received these medals for remaining in service for the battle of Gettysburg after their terms had expired.

Naval medals were authorized in 1861 and 1862 to be bestowed on petty officers, seamen and marines for gallantry in action. Two hundred were issued.

In 1905, the New Medal of Honor was authorized. During the World War, the Distinguished Service Medal was awarded by the War Department in a number of shining cases of meritorious service.

By the beginning of 1920, 78 medals of honor in the Army and 10 in the Navy had been awarded for service during the World War. Distinguished Service Medals and Crosses were still being awarded months after the conclusion of actual hostilities. By a ruling of the War Department, the D. S. M.'s were not available to enlisted men. By the beginning of 1920, the Army had awarded 1,181 D. S. M.'s, of which 641 went to United States Army officers and 434 to foreign officers. Of the awards to United States Army officers, some 75% were for service abroad and 25% for service at home. Distinguished Service Crosses had been awarded to some 4,500 enlisted men and some 1,000 officers. Four enlisted men had received certificates of merit. The Navy had awarded some 144 Distinguished Service citations to officers and men, but that number was later considerably increased.

At the end of August, 1922, the time limit expired, by statute, for members of the Army of the United States to receive, other than by special act of Congress, military decorations from Powers with which the United States was associated during the World War. In all, 17,787 foreign decorations had been awarded to the personnel of the United States Army, to members of American welfare organizations and to American citizens connected with the American and Allied armies and war commissions.

By that time, the United States had awarded 7,812 decorations, of which 703 were presented to members of foreign armies and to foreign citizens. The Congressional Medal of Honor had been awarded to 80 persons, all in the United States Army. The Distinguished Service Cross had been awarded to 5,782 persons, of whom 5,618 were in the United States Army. The Distinguished Service Medal had been awarded to 1,519 persons, of whom 885 were in the United States Army, 29 in the Navy and 5 in the Marine Corps.

Oak leaf clusters, Distinguished Service Cross, had been conferred in 104 instances, 102 to members of the United States Army. Silver star citations were given in 327 cases, 325 of which represented members of the United States Army.

Medals, Life-Saving, government grant of, 6896.

Medals of Honor for men of Army and Navy, 6927.

Mediation and Conciliation, Board of.—(Created by act of Congress approved July 15, 1913.) The purpose for which the Board of Mediation and Conciliation was established was to settle by mediation, conciliation and arbitration such controversies as to wages, hours of labor or conditions of employment as might arise between common carriers engaged in interstate transportation and their employees engaged in train operation or train service. The Board might proffer its services, whenever its judgment so prompted, in a serious interruption of traffic. If appealed to by either party in such a controversy, the Board was required to use its best efforts to bring about a settlement. If unsuccessful, the Board endeavored to induce the parties to the controversy to submit to arbitration and made the necessary arrangements for such, if the offer was accepted. In 1920, the Board was made ineligible to handle cases falling under the jurisdiction of the Railway Labor Board. (See Railroads; also Labor Arbitration.) During the first six years of its existence, it used its services in 148 cases, involving 586 railroads and 620,000 employees.

Mediation and Conciliation, work of Bureau of Labor concerning, commended, 7540.

Mediation Proposals in World War. (See World War.)

Medical Corps, enlargement of, and increase in, recommended, 6935, 7000, 7111, 7117. (See also Army.)

Medical Department of the Army. (See Army and War Department.)

Medical Museum, Army, building for, recommended, 4572, 4780, 4833.

Medicine and Surgery, Bureau of, Navy Department. (See Bureau of Medicine and Surgery.)

Medicines, Patent, Druggists' Preparations, Perfumery and Cosmetics. — The last federal census of manufactures surveyed this industry as of 1919, which year is covered in the statistics below, although the report of the Census Bureau was not made public until 1922.

DRUGGISTS' PREPARATIONS

Number of Establishments	524
Persons Engaged, Total	22,569
Wage-earners in above class	15,568
Capital	$102,129,257
Salaries	13,318,486
Wages	12,161,925
Cost of Materials	55,138,475
Value of Products	114,593,486

There were 3 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 2, with from 500 to 1,000; 8, with from 250 to 500; 8, with from 100 to 250; 66, with from 50 to 100; 179, with from 20 to 50. There were 19 establishments with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each; 23, at from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 97, at from $100,000 to $500,000; and 144, at from $20,000 to $100,000.

The total value of products was distributed as follows:—Biological serums, vaccines, toxins, etc., $15,876,358; Tinctures, fluid extracts, sirups, etc., $38,679,454; Pills, tablets, powders, etc., $37,803,903; Alkaloids, coal-tar medicinals, pharmaceutical metals and their salts, etc., $24,736,513.

In order of value of products, the leading states were Michigan, New York, Pennsylvania, Indiana.

PATENT MEDICINES AND COMPOUNDS

Number of Establishments	2,467
Persons Engaged	31,970
Wage-earners in above class	17,444
Capital	$143,498,611
Salaries	24,736,212
Wages	13,748,813
Cost of Materials	88,819,417
Value of Products	212,162,255

There were 2 establishments with over 500 wage-earners each; 3, from 250 to 500; 21, from 100 to 250; 29, from 50 to 100; 109, from 20 to 50. There were 42 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each; 44, at from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 258, at from $100,000 to $500,000; and 551 at from $20,000 to $100,000.

In order of value of products, the leading state was New York, followed at considerable distance by Illinois, Missouri, Michigan, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Ohio.

PERFUMERY AND COSMETICS

There were 3 establishments with from 250 to 500 wage-earners; 5, with from 100 to 250; 15, with from 50 to 100; 24, with from 20 to 50. There were 13 with annual product valued at more than $1,000,000 each; 12, at from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 73, at from $100,000 to $500,000; and 158, at from $20,000 to $100,000.

Number of Establishments	569
Persons Engaged	9,446
Wage-earners in above class	5,405
Capital	$32,666,633
Salaries	6,430,011
Wages	3,983,016
Cost of Materials	26,147,026
Value of Products	56,613,391

The leading state was New York, followed at considerable distance by Illinois. About 60% of the persons engaged were females.

ALL THREE GROUPS ABOVE

For all three groups above, 51% of the establishments were under the corporation form of management, but they employed 86½% of the wage-earners and produced 87½% of the total value of products.

The alkaloids and alkaloid materials purchased were valued at $9,759,061 and the 3,731,000 gallons of alcohol, at $14,379,871.

Among the separate articles produced for sale were the following:—

	Pounds	*Value*
Quinine	237,944	$3,929,606
Cocaine	6,781	1,021,423
Caffeine	18,742	379,528
Opium products—		
Morphine	37,047	5,906,201
Heroin	6,933	1,310,883
Codein	3,295	473,322
Strychnine	26,029	986,702
Other alkaloids	121,228	1,408,363

DRUG GRINDING

In addition, there were 31 establishments engaged in the business of drug grinding, with 1,661 persons engaged, capital of $14,991,135, salaries and wages of $2,323,779, cost of materials of $11,556,480 and value of products of $16,937,698.

For valuation and enumeration the census classifies under "Patent Medicines" many patent compounds and druggists' preparations. The Patent Office has a list of synthetical chemicals, the formulas of which are protected by letters patent, but most of the special remedies are protected only in the use of their distinctive names. The value of patent medicines manufactured in the United States as ascertained in 1910 amounted to $141,942,000. This figure represents the wholesale price, indicating that the public spends about $200,000,000 in retail purchases. The census of 1900 gave the value of the annual product at $59,611,355. Comparison of these figures shows the rapid growth of the business in recent years.

The cost of material entering into the manufacture of patent medicines is smaller in proportion to the retail price than that of perhaps any other business. The profits to the manufacturers, however, are largely reduced by the discounts allowed dealers and the cost of advertising, upon which the success of the business largely depends. Patent medicine manufacturers are among the largest general advertisers in the country.

"Druggists' preparations" include all materials for use by druggists in compounding medicines to be dispensed upon physicians' prescriptions or orders. These comprise tinctures, fluid extracts, medicinal sirups, and other liquid preparations; pills, tablets, powders, etc.; alkaloids and derivatives (cocaine, codein, morphine, quinine, and strychnine); synthetic medicinal preparations, such as acetanilid, acetphenetidin, phenolphthalein, saccharin, methylsalicylate, etc.;

medicinal metals and their salts (bromides, acetates, citrates, bismuth, etc.); and biological products, such as serums, vaccines, toxins, etc.

"Patent and proprietary medicines" are those sold under the protection of a patent, copyright, or trademark, or prepared according to a secret formula; and "patent and proprietary compounds" include all such compounds not intended for medicinal use, such as fire-extinguisher compounds, household ammonia, insecticides, etc.

Mediterranean Sea:
Naval force in, should be increased, 333, 356, 826.
Piracies in, 929.
Trade with, 75, 77, 78.
Vessels sent to, for protection of commerce, 314, 347, 358, 631, 826, 874, 928, 1008.

Mediterranean Squadron, referred to, 1905, 1953.

Medium of Exchange. (See also Currency):
Augmentation of, discussed, 643.
Discussed by President—
Buchanan, 2968.
Grant, 3983, 4198, 4239.
Johnson, 3769, 3877.
Madison, 550, 563.
Monroe, 643.
Tyler, 1897, 1935, 2119.
Gold and silver—
Hope expressed that use of, for, will become general, 1383.
To take place of bills below $20 recommended, 1385.
Paper used as, discussed, 1897, 1935.
Restoration of uniform system of, recommended, 563.

Mee-sée-qua-guilch Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Melbourne, Australia:
International exhibition at, to celebrate centenary of founding of New South Wales, 5176.
International Exhibition of Arts and Industries at, discussed, 4519, 4559, 4625.

Melilla. (See Spain.)

Melton, Miss, assailants of, in Turkey, conviction of, discussed, 5962.

Members of Congress. (See Congress.)

Memorial and Remonstrance. (See Religious Freedom.)

Memorial Day, observance of, proclaimed, 8963. (See also Cemeteries, National.)

Memorial Day Address by President Wilson, 7946, 8265, 8720.

Memphis (Tenn.), Capture of.—After the evacuation of Corinth, Miss., by Beauregard, Fort Pillow, forty miles above Memphis, was useless, as the Union army could take it from the rear. The Confederates therefore spiked the guns, burned the barracks, and what supplies they could not take away and in their gunboats dropped down the river to Memphis. The Confederate fleet consisted of 8 vessels, mounting 28 guns, commanded by Commodore Montgomery. On June 6, 1862, Commodore Davis, with 5 Union gunboats and 2 rams, appeared before the city, and Montgomery went forth to give him battle. After one hour and twenty minutes of fierce fighting the Confederate fleet was defeated. Col. Ellet, who built the rams, was the only person injured on the Federal side. The number of killed and wounded on the Confederate side is not known, but was probably between 80 and 100.

Memphis, Tenn., navy-yard to be established at, 2202.
Proposition of city authorities of, relative to, 2829.

Mensheviki. (See Bolshevism.)

Mercantile Marines of France, Germany, Great Britain, and Italy, referred to, 4978.

"Mercedes," destroyed, view of, opposite 6325.

Merchant Marine.—The British navigation acts, beginning in 1645, prohibited importations into the Colonies except in English or colonial built ships. Though seriously restricting commerce, these acts served to stimulate the shipbuilding interest.

Between 1789 and 1797 the registered tonnage of United States commercial ships increased 384 per cent. From 1837 to 1857 the tonnage increased from 810,000 to 2,268,000, and in 1861 the aggregate tonnage of American registered vessels reached 5,539,813. This high tonnage very nearly equaled the combined tonnage of all other nations excepting Great Britain, which alone was slightly in excess of it. For various reasons American shipping fell off after the Civil War, until it became quite insignificant.

One of the reasons for the decline of American shipbuilding after the Civil War lay in the successful British experiments with large iron ships. England's iron industry was much further advanced than that of the United States, and with her great coal deposits, she began to defeat the United States in the competition for shipbuilding. The foreign demand for American wooden sailing vessels fell off. In 1855, the tonnage built in American yards was 583,450; in 1860, it was but 214,797. In addition, the great period of railroad building and other industrial development in the United States after the Civil War attracted much of the capital which had previously been attracted to shipbuilding. In 1858, about 75% of United States trade was carried in United States ships. In 1861, this figure had fallen to 65%; in 1872, to 29%; in 1881 to 16½%.

The construction and completion of the Panama Canal revived the interest in American shipbuilding, but its great boom was due to the World War and especially to the entrance of the United States into the struggle. Figures for the losses of shipping during the War and for the great American achievements in shipbuilding from 1917 to 1919 are given in tables in the article under World War, which should be consulted. From June, 1914, to June, 1919, the tonnage of United States shipping increased from 7,929,000 to 12,907,000, including the Great Lakes vessels. This was an increase of some 65%; but the increase in seagoing tonnage was more than 500%. During this period, the entire

tonnage of the world increased but 5½%, from 45,404,000 to 47,897,000. In 1914, the United States merchant marine was but 9% of the world's total; in 1919, it was 25%.

The following table gives the total United States Merchant Marine gross tonnage for significant years:

	Foreign Trade	*Total*
1790, Jan. 1	124,000	201,562
1801	667	972,000
1811	981,000	1,425,000
1831	538,000	1,192,000
1840, Sept. 30	763,000	2,181,000
1850, June 30.	1,440,000	4,247,000
1860	2,379,000	5,354,000
1870	1,449,000	4,247,000
1890	928,000	4,424,000
1900	817,000	5,165,000
1910	783,000	7,508,000
1914	1,066,000	7,929,000
1915	1,863,000	8,389,000
1916	2,185,000	8,470,000
1917	2,441,000	8,871,000
1918	3,599,000	9,925,000
1919	6,665,000	12,907,000
1920	9,925,000	16,324,000
1921	11,077,000	18,282,000
1922	10,720,000	18,463,000
1923	9,069,000	18,285,000

The following table shows the tonnage of vessels of the United States merchant marine for significant years:—

Date	*Sailing*	*Steam*
1789, Dec. 31	201,562	.....
1810	1,424,783	.....
1830	1,127,304	64,472
1850, June 30	3,009,507	525,947
1870	3,171,412	1,075,095
1880	2,856,476	1,211,558
1890	2,565,409	1,859,088
1900	2,507,042	2,657,797
1910	2,607,721	4,900,361
1915	2,445,619	5,943,810
1920	2,500,575	13,823,449
1923	2,463,233	15,821,401

The number of vessels on some of the dates above was as follows:—

Year	*Sail*	*Steam*	*Year*	*Sail*	*Steam*
1870	25,474	3,524	1910	13,288	12,452
1880	19,995	4,717	1915	10,753	15,948
1890	17,502	5,965	1920	9,369	18,814
1900	16,280	7,053	1923	8,071	18,946

Lloyd's Register for 1923-4 gives the following statistics of world tonnage of merchant marine. The figures contain many vessels in process of construction. Steamers under 100 tons gross and sailing vessels under 100 tons net are not included, nor are vessels on the Caspian Sea, wood vessels on the Great Lakes, most sailing vessels of Greece, Turkey and southern Russia and Japanese sailing vessels. The tonnage is gross.

Flag	*Steam and Motor*	*Total*
British	21,695,074	22,058,112
United Kingdom	19,115,178	19,281,549
United States	15,684,787	16,945,363
French	3,452,940	3,737,244
Japanese	3,604,147	.....
Italian	2,880,776	3,033,742
Netherlands	2,607,210	2,625,741
German	2,509,768	2,590,073
Norwegian	2,375,970	2,551,912
Spanish	1,198,716	1,260,206
Swedish	1,135,612	1,207,727
Total, World	62,335,373	65,166,233

Merchant vessels of over 100 gross tons were launched as follows in 1922:—

Country	*Number*	*Tons*
British Empire	274	1,093,846
United Kingdom	235	1,031,081
Germany	187	525,829
France	62	184,509
Holland	60	163,132
United States	59	119,138
Italy	42	101,177
Japan	49	83,419
World total, 1922	852	2,467,084
1921	1,377	4,341,679
1920[1]	1,759	5,861,666
1919[1]	2,483	7,144,549
1913	1,750	3,332,882
1910	1,277	1,957,853

[1]Excluding Germany.

On June 30, 1923, there were 2,543,856 gross tons of shipping under construction, of which 1,382,960 was British (1,337,759, United Kingdom); 301,199, German; 170,886, French; 141,543, Italian; 133,660, American; 99,821, Dutch; 72,767, Japanese.

The following table shows the percentage of United States imports and exports carried in American vessels for years specified:—

1821	89%	1870	36%	1910	9%
1840	83	1880	17	1915	14
1850	72½	1890	13	1920	43
1860	66½	1900	9	1923	33½

The number and gross tonnage of each class of documented vessels of the United States merchant marine was as follows on June 30, 1923:—

	No.	*Tons*
Wooden—		
Sailing	2,955	1,000,248
Steam	3,839	1,288,316
Gas	10,644	212,385
Canal	361	41,862
Barge	4,249	962,661
Total wooden	22,048	3,505,472
Metal—		
Sailing	159	313,167
Steam	4,193	14,131,015
Gas	206	125,489
Barge	406	205,287
Total metal	5,009	14,777,004
Grand total	27,017	18,284,734

The merchant marine was documented by location as follows:—

	Steam		*Total*	
	No.	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*
Atlantic	4,864	9,890,256	16,313	11,892,210
Lakes	1,351	2,506,070	2,719	2,758,401
Pacific	1,260	2,925,955	6,244	3,495,751
W. Rivers	585	103,559	1,741	138,372

The following table shows the number of vessels in the merchant marine by size:—

Tons	*Steam*	*Sailing*	*Gas*
5-49	1,313	1,583	10,130
50-99	1,171	257	470
100-499	1,847	286	206
500-999	442	473	25
1,000-2,499	673	400	39
2,500-4,999	1,369	58	10
Above 5,000	1,245	2	5

There are 470 vessels, of 34,882 gross tons, engaged in the cod and mackerel fisheries, of which 33 are sailing, 54 are steam and 383 are gas vessels. There are 23 vessels, of 3,721 tons, engaged in the whale fisheries.

In the year ending June 30, 1923, the number of officers and men shipped and reshipped on American merchant vessels by shipping commissioners and collectors and deputy customs collectors was as follows:—

Nationality	*Officers*	*Men*
American, native	25,912	103,488
Naturalized	14,453	31,056
American, total	40,365	134,544
British	366	26,310
Spanish	5	19,814
German	139	14,395
Total	41,338	263,397
Total, Officers and Men		304,735
Shipped by American consuls abroad		29,794
Grand total		334,529

For *Shipbuilding*, see that heading. For value and kind of imports and exports, see *Commerce*. For all *Shipping* to and from the United States, see that heading.

Merchant Marine (see also Shipbuilding, Ship Purchase Law, Ships):
- Aid to, by subsidies, urged, 7503.
- Commission, report of, 7005.
- Condition of, discussed by President—
  - Adams, John, 246,
  - Coolidge, 9345.
  - Harding, 8942, 9022, 9106.
  - McKinley, 6239, 6241, 6338, 6359, 6381, 6436, 6460, 6653.
  - Madison, 480, 540.
  - Roosevelt, 6653, 6654, 6788, 6914, 7005, 7049.
  - Taft, 7503, 7674, 7789.
  - Washington, 75, 78.
  - Wilson, 8016, 8028, 8072, 8110, 8151, 8209, 8716.
- Corporation tax remission urged to aid, 9107.
- Defensive arms asked for, 8209.
- Encouragement of, discussed, 75, 6914, 7049, 7789, 8018.
- Foreign markets dependent upon, 6653.
- Immigration should aid, 9107.
- Insurance rates on, 9106.
- Loan fund for, referred to, 9107.
- Maintenance of, pledged, 8942, 9022.
- Naval armament limitation and, 9109.
- Naval reserve, creation of, urged, 9107.
- Objections to encouragement of, 7049.
- Railroads and, cooperation urged between, 9106.
- Re-creation of, urged, 7789, 8151.
- Right of, to arm for defense, 8122.
- Ships, purchase of, recommended, 8018, 8028, 8110.
- Subsidy for, discussed and urged by President—
  - Cleveland, 4938.
  - Grant, 4151, 4306.
  - Harding, 9100, 9158, 9210.
  - Johnson's Postmaster General, 3561.
  - Taft, 7374, 7435, 7503.
- Tariff, protective, will hinder use of, 8919.

Merchant Marine Act of 1920. (See Shipping Act of 1920.)

Merchant Vessels:
- Claims resulting from destruction of United States vessels by Confederate vessels, referred to, 3964.
- Condition of American, 6653, 6654, 7005.
- Discussed, 6239, 6241, 6338, 6359, 6381, 6436, 6460, 6653.
- Foreign-built, admitted to American entry, 8006, 8354.
- Naval force for protection of, in Mexican ports, etc., recommended, 3100.

Meridian Conference, International:
- At Washington, discussed, 4718, 4800, 4827, 4841, 5180.
- Invitation of Italian Government to attend, 5546.

Merit System (see also Civil Service):
- Consular and diplomatic corps, in, 7768.
- Government service, in, 6728.
- Porto Rico and the Philippines, for, 6673.

Merrimac, The (Confederate ram), engagement of, with—
- *Cumberland*, 3345.
- *Monitor*, 3313.
- See Hampton Roads (Va.), Battle of, and illustrations opposite 3199 and 3200.

Merrimac, The.—This vessel, a two-masted iron steamship of 5,000 tons, was used by the United States in the Spanish-American War as a collier. During the month of May, 1898, the Spanish fleet under Admiral Cervera took refuge in the harbor of Santiago. The city of Santiago is well located within the harbor, about five miles from the ocean proper. The channel leading from the harbor out to the ocean is at certain points very narrow and comparatively easy to obstruct. This channel was well covered by Spanish batteries on shore, so that it was deemed unwise on the part of the American officers to attempt to enter the harbor with war ships. The American commander decided to attempt to block the channel, and for this purpose concluded to sink the *Merrimac* at a narrow point. It followed necessarily that such an undertaking would be exceedingly dangerous to those who were to steer the unarmed vessel within the channel, and then at the proper moment sink it and endeavor to escape by swimming ashore or reaching a lifeboat.

Assistant Naval Constructor Richmond P. Hobson was chosen at his own request to execute the hazardous undertaking. Volunteers were called for to accompany and assist him. Fifteen hundred officers and men responded, gallantly tendering services, and begged that they be accepted. Six only were chosen, whose names were Daniel Montague, chief master-at-arms of the *New York;* George Charette, gunner's mate of the *New York;* John Murphy, cockswain of the *Iowa;* Francis Kelly, water tender; George F. Phillips, machinist, and Cockswain O. W. Deignan, the last three of the *Merrimac*. Randolph Clousen, cockswain of the *New York*, was during the delay of one day added to the company. On the morning of June 3, 1898, at about half past three o'clock, Hobson steered straight into the channel under a heavy fire from Spanish guns on both sides. As the *Merrimac* reached the spot that had been picked out

for her sinking he gave orders to explode the torpedoes. Two of them only exploded. Amid the tremendous fire from the shore batteries, the firing of 8 electric mines in the channel, and torpedoes from two Spanish vessels, the collier sank, her masts and smokestack showing above the water, obstructing but not blocking the fairway. As the ship went down the Spaniards sent up a cheer, believing they had sunk some large war vessel. Hobson and his men held on to a catamaran belonging to their sunken ship for about an hour. Just after sunrise a steam launch came down the harbor with Admiral Cervera on board. Hobson and his men were taken on board the launch, were courteously treated by their captors, and placed in prison. They were all exchanged July 6.

The sinking of the *Merrimac* was an act of heroism which challenged the admiration of the world. The President, in a message to Congress, speaking of the incident, said: "This enterprise, demanding coolness, judgment, and bravery amounting to heroism, was carried into successful execution in the face of a persistent fire from the hostile fleet as well as from the fortifications on shore" (6305). Rear-Admiral Sampson said: "I cannot myself too earnestly express my appreciation of the conduct of Mr. Hobson and his gallant crew. I venture to say that a more brave and daring thing has not been done since Cushing blew up the *Albemarle*" (6306). The President recommended that a vote of thanks be given Hobson by Congress. He and his crew were subsequently promoted.

Merrimac, The (United States collier), sinking of, in Santiago Harbor, Cuba, by Lieut. Richmond P. Hobson, 6305, 6316.
Naval Cadet Powell to be made ensign for attempting to rescue force of, 6306.
Thanks of Congress to Lieut. Hobson and promotion of, recommended 6306.

Merryman Case.—Merryman, a citizen of Maryland, was arrested at his home in 1861 by order of an officer of the United States Army, and charged with treason. He was imprisoned in Fort McHenry. Chief Justice Taney granted a writ of habeas corpus, which the officer in charge of the prisoner refused to execute on the ground that the President had suspended the writ. The case was taken before the Supreme Court, which decided that the power to suspend the writ of habeas corpus was not vested in the President, Congress alone having that privilege, and that a military officer has no right to arrest a person not subject to the rules and articles of war, except in aid of judicial authority. (See also Habeas Corpus and Milligan Case.)

Mesa Verde National Park. (See Parks, National.)

Mesopotamia.—The name roughly applied to that section of Asia Minor and southwestern Asia lying between the Tigris and the Euphrates Rivers and extending between Syria and Arabia on its west and Persia on its east from Armenia to the Persian Gulf. In ancient days, it was one of the most famous seats of civilization, and under the rule of the Assyrians, Chaldeans and Persians attained a high degree of culture. Tradition maintains that it was the site of the Garden of Eden.

After the fall of the Persians, Mesopotamia (literally, the land between the rivers) fell under the sway of the Roman Empire and became a Roman province. After the fall of Rome, native Arab rulers held power until the land was conquered by the Osmanli Turks in the sixteenth century, A. D. By the middle of the seventeenth century, Mesopotamia was securely a part of Turkey. For administrative purposes, the country was divided into the vilayets of Basra, Bagdad and Mosul. As thus constituted, its area was about 145,000 square miles and its population, some 2,000,000. However, the native Arabs largely ruled themselves, as the Turkish administration was both loose and inefficient.

History records that Mesopotamia was once highly fertile, but today the fertility has disappeared and the land is largely a desert. However, valuable petroleum deposits have been found, particularly in the vicinity of Mosul. This fact induced Great Britain to occupy the country as a mandatory after the World War and the consequent collapse of Turkey. Great Britain was influenced in this action also by the fact that the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railroad (q. v.) ran through Mesopotamia and by the fact that possession of Mesopotamia was necessary for the protection of the Baku oil district in the Caucasus, which British forces had also occupied. However, the native inhabitants of the country stood by the principle of the self-determination of nationalities, claiming that Great Britain possessed no legal or moral claim to Mesopotamia, and resisted the British occupation with vigor.

Mesopotamia, disposition of, discussed, 8841.

Messages and Papers of the Presidents, resolution authorizing compilation of, and requesting Hon. James D. Richardson to take charge of the work of preparing the same. (See Prefatory note of first volume.)

Messages, Presidential.—A written communication by the President to Congress. At the beginning of each session an annual message is transmitted, going into details of our standing as a Nation and recommending such action by the House and Senate as may be deemed necessary to the progress of the country or the correction of abuses. Special messages are sent from time to time to either or both Houses, submitting treaties or correspondence, or in answer to a request from either branch for particular information, or to recommend specific or immediate legislation. Veto messages are sent with the returned bills which the President disapproves, in which he states his reasons for such disapproval. After pointing out wherein a bill fails to meet the requirements of the case he usually suggests the way to an effective measure that may receive Executive sanction. Article II., section 3, of the Constitution declares that the President "shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the Union and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient." Washington and John Adams read their annual messages to Congress. Jefferson inaugurated the custom, long followed by his successors, of sending messages in writing to Congress (313). They were carried by the private secretary of the President, who is received at the door of the Senate or House, and whose presence is formally announced by an officer of the

body, whereupon he delivers the message to the clerks.

President Wilson in 1913 revived the custom of Washington and Adams of orally addressing Congress.

Messages, Presidential. (See Annual Messages; Special session messages; Veto messages, under the several Presidents.)

Metals and Mining—

Metallic Elements and Mining.—Chemically considered, a metal is an element which has the power to replace the hydrogen of acids and form salt; in other words, it forms a base by combining with a hydroxyl group or groups. It is usually hard, heavy, lustrous, malleable, ductile, tenacious, and a good conductor of heat and electricity. Only six or seven metals were known to ancient alchemists, whereas under the modern definition quoted above some forty-five elements are properly called metals. No sharp line can be drawn between metals and non-metals, however, since some of the elements belong to both classes. Though weight is one of the most common properties of metals, a few such as lithium, sodium, potassium, etc., are lighter than water. Metals are distinguished from minerals in that the latter are either the uncombined elements in a native state, or compounds of these elements formed in accordance with chemical laws, and have, therefore, a definite

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The following table shows the quantity and value of the mineral production of the United States in a recent year. In some instances, the figures are preliminary or estimated.

METALLIC

Product	*Quantity*	*Value*
Aluminum		$ 41,375,000
Antimonial lead[1]	s. t. 12,535	1,963,255
Antimony[2]	s. t. 2,785	173,450
Bauxite	l. t. 521,308	3,247,345
Cadmium	lbs. 129,283	151,261
Chromic Iron ore	l. t. 2,502	44,113
Copper (sales)	lbs. 1,209,061,040	222,467,000
Ferroalloys	l. t. 399,900	46,995,000
Gold, coining value, troy oz.	2,395,017	49,509,400
Iron—Ore[2]	l. t. 69,558,000	290,607,000
Pig	l. t. 35,683,234	1137,926,882
Lead, refined	s. t. 476,849	76,296,000
Manganese ore[3]	l. t. 94,000	2,385,000
Manganiferous ore[3]	do. 673,000	2,091,000
Nickel	lbs. 698,000	275,120
Platinum, etc.	troy oz. 41,544	4,679,722
Quicksilver	lbs. 980,250	1,041,156
Silver	troy oz. 56,564,504	57,420,325
Tin[4]	lbs. 40,000	20,100
Titanium ore[5]	s. t. 102	20,400
Tungsten ore[6]	s. t. 216	77,760
Uranium, vanadium		2,363,500
Zinc	s. t. 450,045	72,907,000
Total value, metallic		$1,724,300,000

Notes—[1]From both domestic and foreign ores. [2]Values not included in total values. [3]Manganese ore containing 35% or more manganese; manganiferous containing 5% to 35%. [4]Metallic equivalent. [5]Rutile. [6]60% concentrates. [7]Figures for an earlier year than other minerals.

NON-METALLIC

Product	*Quantity*	*Value*
Arsenious Oxide	s. t. 11,502	$ 2,021,356
Asbestos	s. t. 1,710	1,154,000
Asphalt	s. t. 886,500	13,219,000
Barytes (crude)	s. t. 207,700	1,946,800
Borates	s. t. 120,320	2,173,000
Bromine	lbs. 1,160,584	745,381
Calcium magnesium chloride	s. t. 58,604	2,045,851
Cement, bbls. (376 lbs.)	96,944,000	194,513,000
Clay—Products		364,220,000
Raw[2]	s. t. 3,159,000	12,094,000
Coal–Anthracite	l. t. 78,653,751	364,926,000
Bituminous	s. t. 556,563,000	1,950,000,000
Coke[2,7]	s. t. 56,478,372	382,324,368
Diatomaceous earth and tripoli	s. t. 83,000	832,000
Emery	s. t. 2,327	21,685
Feldspar	s. t. 71,054	585,200
Fluorspar	s. t. 186,000	4,544,000
Fuller's earth	s. t. 128,488	2,506,189
Garnet (abrasive)	s. t. 5,476	434,425
Gems, precious stones		107,500
Graphite, amorphous	s. t. 4,694	49,758
Crystalline	lbs. 9,632,360	576,444
Grind and pulpstones	s. t. 53,484	1,707,004
Gypsum	s. t. 3,130,305	24,542,512
Lime	s. t. 3,350,000	33,321,000
Magnesite, crude	s. t. 303,767	2,748,150
Mica—scrap	s. t. 3,258	58,084
Sheet	lbs. 1,545,709	483,567
Millstones		61,676
Mineral paints, zinc and lead pigments	s. t. 155,648	25,810,671
Mineral waters	gal. 40,000,000	5,000,000
Natural gas	M cu ft. 735,000,000	162,000,000
Gasoline	gal. 340,647,000	63,608,900
Peat	s. t. 73,204	921,732
Oilstones, etc.	s. t. 1,144	231,747
Petroleum, bbls. (42 gal.)	443,402,000	1,360,000,000
Phosphate rock	l. t. 4,103,982	25,079,572
Potash (K_2O)	s. t. 41,444	7,463,026
Pumice	s. t. 41,841	114,433
Pyrite	l. t. 275,000	1,450,000
Salt, bbls. (280 lbs.)	49,751,343	30,539,168
Sand—Glass	s. t. 2,144,000	4,722,000
Moulding, building, etc. & Gravel	s. t. 75,743,000	57,972,000
Sand-lime brick	1000s 162,289	2,364,470
Silica (quartz)	s. t. 22,000	233,000
Slate		8,726,442
Stone	s. t. 68,500,000	120,500,000
Sulphur	l. t. 1,517,625	30,000,000
Talc & Soapstone	s. t. 222,724	3,052,038
Total value, non-metallic		$4,977,500,000
Value unspecified minerals		$5,200,000
GRAND TOTAL		$6,707,000,000

chemical composition and molecular structure. Rocks are commonly referred to as minerals, and the process of extraction from the earth, mining.

The principal metals mined in the United States are, in the order of their importance: Iron, gold, copper, silver, lead, ferromanganese, zinc, aluminum, quicksilver, antimony, molybdenum, tungsten, ferromolybdenum, ferrotungsten, platinum. The principal minerals in the order of their importance are: Coal, bituminous and cannel, clay products, coal (anthracite), petroleum, iron ore, natural gas, cement (Portland and natural), salt phosphate rock, calcium borate, copper sulphate, limestone, zinc white, silica, sand, ochre, pyrites, and talc.

The whole number of mines and quarries in the United States, including the territories of Alaska, Hawaii and Porto Rico, was reported by the census of 1910 to be 27,260. To this may be added 166,448 petroleum and gas wells, as the other statistics of mines and mining do not separate oil and gas wells from solid mining. As there are always some of the enterprises non-productive, the following figures relate only to those in operation at the time the enumeration was made. The amount of capital employed in the industry was $3,380,525,841; there were 1,139,332 persons engaged, and they received $640,167,630 for their services. The value of the aggregate product was $1,238,410,322. Coal led in the value of products with $577,142,935, or 46.6 per cent. of the total. Next in value came petroleum and natural gas with 15 per cent. of the whole value, or $185,416,684. Copper led the metals with $134,616,987, nearly 11 per cent. of the whole amount. The only other product of the mines that exceeded $100.000.000 in value was iron, which yielded $106,947,082. The precious metals and structural materials made up the balance.

Meteorological Observatory, establishment of, at Fort Myer, Va., recommended, 4792.

Metric System.—A system of weights and measures invented by the French. Its merit is its similarity to the decimal system, so that the different ratios are multiples of 10.

In 1790, a committee of the French Academy of Sciences was appointed by the National Assembly, with the approval of the King; and the metric system reported by them, after some years of labor, was adopted in 1799 by that country, although its use was not made compulsory until 1837. At the present time the metric system is compulsory in France, Germany, Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Spain, Greece, Italy, Mexico, Norway, Sweden, the Netherlands, Peru, Portugal, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, Siam and Uruguay.

The use of the system in other countries is constantly growing, especially as commercial and scientific relations tend more and more to become international instead of purely national. In the United States the use of the metric system is legal (since 1866).

Among the chief items of the metric system are the following:

1 meter equals 39.37 inches.

1 kilometer equals 1,000 meters or .621 mile.

1 hectometer equals 100 meters or 328 feet, 1 inch.

1 decameter equals 10 meters or 393.7 inches.

1 decimeter equals 1-10 meter or 3.937 inches.

1 centimeter equals 1-100 meter.

1 millimeter equals 1-1000 meter.

—

1 centare equals 1 square meter or 1,550 square inches.

1 hectare equals 10,000 square meters or 2.471 acres.

1 liter equals 1 cubic decimeter or 1.057 liquid quarts or 61 cubic inches.

1 kiloliter equals 1,000 liters.

1 milliliter equals 1-1000 liter or .061 cubic inch or .27 fluid dram.

—

1 gram equals weight of 1 cubic centimeter of water or 15.432 grains.

1 quintal equals 100,000 grams or 220.46 pounds.

1 milligram equals 1-1000 gram.

To reverse the process:—1 acre is equal to 4,047 square meters; 1 bushel equals 36 liters; 1 foot equals 30 centimeters; 1 gallon equals 3.8 liters; 1 mile equals 1.6 kilometers; 1 peck equals 8.8 liters; 1 ton of 2,000 pounds equals .91 metric ton.

Mettakahtla Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mexican Boundary Commission. (See Mexico.)

Mexican Cotton Boll Weevil, report on, 6949.

Mexican War.—The Mexican War grew out of the annexation of Texas by the United States. March 2, 1836, Texas seceded from Mexico and declared her independence, which she maintained by the defeat of Santa Anna in the battle of San Jacinto, April 21, 1836. The United States, England, France, and Belgium recognized the new Government as independent. Dec. 29, 1845, Texas was annexed to the United States. A dispute as to the boundary induced President Polk to order Gen. Taylor to take a position in the disputed territory on the left bank of the Rio Grande. Here (near Matamoras) he was attacked April 23, 1846, by Mexicans under Arista, and a portion of his army was captured. Taylor advanced into the north of Mexico, leaving garrisons at Corpus Christi and at Fort Brown, opposite Matamoros, and after the battles of Palo Alto (May 8, 1846), Resaca de la Palma (May 9, 1846), Buena Vista (Feb. 22, 23, 1847), and a number of lesser fights, in which the Mexicans were defeated, he obtained control of all northern Mexico. Gen. Scott, landing at Vera Cruz, advanced to the City of Mexico, defeating Santa Anna at Cerro Gordo (April 17, 18, 1847), Contreras (Aug. 19, 20, 1847), Churubusco (Aug. 20, 1847), and Molino del Rey (Sept. 7, 8, 1847), causing the surrender of the capital and the termination of the war Sept. 14, 1847. During these operations in Mexico Gen. Kearny and Lieut. Frémont occupied California and New Mexico with American troops. Under the treaty of peace signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo (2423), Mexico, upon the payment by the United States of $15,000,000 and of private claims which amounted to $3,250,000, ceded to the latter the territory

now comprising Nevada, Utah, most of Arizona, a large part of New Mexico, portions of Colorado and Wyoming, and all of California (2437).

Mexican War:
American blood shed on American soil, 2292.
American forces—
Gallantry of, referred to, 2490.
General officer to take command of, required, 2358.
Increase in, recommended, 2358.
Kind of money paid to, inquired into, 2360.
Movement of, referred to, 2290, 2334.
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American territory invaded by Mexican forces, 2292.
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Buena Vista, 2385.
Cerro Gordo, 2386.
Churubusco, 2386.
City of Mexico, 2391.
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Monterey, 2342.
Palo Alto, 2295, 2300, 2342.
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Vera Cruz, 2385.
Bounty lands for soldiers in, recommended, 2365.
Charge that American army invaded territory of Mexico refuted, 2332.
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Existence of, proclaimed by—
Mexico, 2292.
United States, 2320.
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Loan necessary to meet, 2347, 2555.
Mexico should be held responsible for, 2348, 2373, 2387.
Forces of United States in, 2490.
Increase of, recommended, 2358.
Gen. Arista in command of Mexican forces, 2291.
Gen. Scott in command of American troops, 2298.
Assignment of command to, discussed, 2298.
Correspondence with, referred to, 2298.
Recall of, referred to, 2299, 2431.
Gen. Taylor in command of American troops, 2291.
Assignment of command to, referred to, 2299.
Brevet rank of major-general conferred upon, referred to, 2299.
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General officer to take command of American forces required, 2358.
Government established in Mexico by American army officers discussed, 2356.
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Imposition of duties as war measure proposed, 2352, 2366.
Increase in army recommended by President Polk, 2358.
Invasion threatened by Mexico because of annexation of Texas, 2290, 2292.
Letters of marque and reprisal against Mexican vessels recommended, 2346.
Liberal provision for sustaining military forces recommended, 2293.
Means of transmitting letters to and from American army in Mexico, 2359.
Measure for raising additional force recommended, 2354.
Mexican general considers hostilities begun, 2291.
Military contribution levied upon Mexico. (See Mexico.)
Not provoked by United States, 2322.
Operations of American army near Matamoros referred to, 2293.
Peace concluded, 2437.
Pirates commissioned by Mexico, 2345.
Ports of Mexico in possession of American forces ordered to be opened, 2373, 2379.
Proclaimed by—
Mexico, 2292.
United States, 2320.
Referred to, 2384.
Proclamations concerning, 2319, 2371, 2477, 2539.
Public debt of United States increased in consequence of, 2441.
Recognition of, by Congress recommended, 2293.
Results of, respecting military strength of United States discussed, 2481.
Success of American troops referred to, 2295, 2300, 2342, 2384, 2391.
Suspension of hostilities after battles of Contreras and Churubusco referred to, 2419.
Termination of, 2437.
Threatening aspect of, 2113.
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Treaty of Peace—
Proclaimed, 2477.
Transmitted, 2437.
Volunteer force discussed, 2293, 2365.
Increase in, recommended, 2399.
Promptness of, in rushing to the field, 2323.
Report regarding, transmitted, 2359.

Mexico.—Mexico occupies the southern portion of the North American Continent, and extends between 15°-32° 30′ N. latitude and 87°-117° W. longitude. The United States forms a northern boundary, while its territories touch Guatemala and British Honduras in the south; on the east it is bounded by the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

Physical Features.—The two great ranges of North America, the Sierra Nevada and Rocky Mountains, are prolonged from the north to a convergence towards the narrowing Isthmus of Tehuantepec, their course being parallel with the west and east coasts. The surface of the interior consists of an elevated plateau between the two ranges, with steep slopes both to the Pacific and Atlantic (Gulf of Mexico). In the west is the Peninsula of California, with a mountainous surface, separated from the mainland by the Gulf of California. The Sierra Nevada, known in Mexico as the Sierra Madre, terminates in a transverse series of volcanic peaks, from Colima on the west side to Citlaltepete on the east, the intermediate and highest peaks being Ixtaccihuatl (17,879 feet) and Popocatepetl (19,784 feet). The low-lying lands of the coasts form the Tierra Caliente, or tropical regions (below 3,000 feet), the higher levels form the Tierra Templada, or temperate region (from 3,000 to 5,000 feet), and the summit of the plateau with its peaks is known as Tierra Fria, or cold region (above 5,000 feet).

The only considerable rivers are the Rio Grande del Norte, which forms part of the northern boundary, and is navigable for about seventy miles from its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, and the Rio Grande de Santiago, which runs from Lake Chapala to the Pacific. The remaining streams are governed by the formation of the land, and run in mountain torrents between deep-cut cañons or "barrancas." The largest fresh-water lakes are Chapala, some fifty miles in length, and Patzcuaro and Xochimilco. In the northwest are saline lakes amid bare and dry regions.

The climate of Mexico varies according to the altitude. Yellow fever sometimes occurs at Merida, Yucatan.

History.—The earliest invaders, or Toltecs, gave place in the thirteenth century to the Aztecs, who were conquered in the sixteenth century by Spanish adventurers under Hernando Cortes. Spanish rule was established at Tenochtitland, a fourteenth century Aztec city (now Mexico), and Mexico remained a Spanish dominion until its freedom was asserted by a revolutionary war, 1810 to 1827. From 1837 to 1848 the province of Texas gave rise to hostilities with the United States, terminating in a three years' war and a cession of the disputed territory to the victorious northern state. In 1810 a Republic was proclaimed, but Iturbide declared himself Emperor in 1821. He was shot in 1824, and a Republic was again established. In 1862 the French troops came to Mexico, and in 1864 an Empire under Ferdinand Maximilian of Austria was declared. (See illustration opposite 4576.)

In 1867 the downfall of the Empire and the death of the Emperor gave rise to the new Republic, under President Juarez, who, during the whole of these three years, had the seat of the Republican Government in the north of the country, chiefly at Chihuahua. From 1876-1911 (with the exception of four years, 1880-84, when General Manuel Gonzalez was President) the executive power was in the hands of General Porfirio Diaz, who was elected President for eight successive terms of four years. Diaz maintained his power only by resort to dictatorial and despotic measures, and resistance to his rule was put down with an iron hand.

However, at the end of 1910 the revolutionary sentiment against Diaz became stronger when it fell under the leadership of Francisco Madero. Throughout the early months of 1911, Madero's revolt became more and more serious, until the revolutionists' military successes forced Diaz to abdicate on May 10, 1911. Madero took over the control of Mexico, and on November 6 was inaugurated President.

But revolts against Madero broke out almost immediately upon his accession to power. Rebel leaders such as Zapata and Felix Diaz caused much trouble through the latter part of 1911 and throughout 1912. In February, 1913, at a critical military juncture, the leader of the Governmental forces, General Huerta, deserted to the revolutionists, with the result that Madero was forced to resign on February 19. Four days later, he was murdered while under Governmental guard.

The vicissitudes of Mexican affairs and the dangers to and destruction of American property and lives in Mexico had compelled the United States intimately to interest itself in the political situation of the country. President Wilson refused to recognize Huerta's authority, claiming that it was held only by force and had been flagrantly abused in the murder of Madero. A serious revolt against Huerta broke out in the north, under the leadership of Venustiano Carranza, and the United States placed an embargo upon the importation of arms into Mexico for either faction. Huerta assumed the powers of a dictator where they had been surrendered by Porfirio Diaz, dissolving the Mexican Congress and in October calling an election in the territory under Federal control. The election gave Huerta the Presidency, but President Wilson maintained that the election was null, void and fraudulent, and still insisted that Huerta must eliminate himself. The United States President declared that Huerta's power was crumbling, and that a policy of "watchful waiting" on the part of the United States would be the most serviceable method of bringing about the fall of the Mexican dictator.

This prediction seemed to be fulfilled early in 1914, when the successes of the revolutionists, chiefly under the leadership of Carranza, Villa and Zapata, became more pronounced. President Wilson got the cooperation of all the great Powers in placing a strict financial boycott upon Huerta's government, with the result that the latter's difficulties increased many-fold. Meanwhile, the situation was complicated by the so-called Tampico incident. On April 9, 1914, a party of American sailors, who had landed from the U. S. S. Dolphin, at Tampico,

were arrested there by the Mexican authorities. Although their arrest lasted but a few hours and although an apology was tendered for it, Admiral Mayo, commanding the American fleet in Mexican waters, demanded that atonement be rendered by an official salute by Mexico to the United States flag. This demand was refused. On April 21, United States marines and sailors occupied Vera Cruz with the loss of 17 United States lives in order to prevent a consignment of arms for the Mexican Government from being landed. War between the countries became imminent; but Argentina, Brazil and Chile intervened, and through their mediation war was finally prevented, although the demand for the salute of the United States flag was never met. (See A. B. C. Arbitration.)

By the summer of 1914, Huerta's power had definitely waned, until in July he was compelled to abdicate. In August, Carranza assumed control of the Government, but was immediately confronted by a quarrel with Villa, as a result of which Villa led a revolt against his former chief. Mexico was thus still in the throes of civil warfare, which continued throughout the remainder of 1914 and through much of 1915.

In the summer of 1915, a number of the American Republics joined the United States in attempting peaceful mediation between Carranza and Villa. But although Villa was willing to accept such mediation, Carranza was not, and the attempt came to naught. After investigation by personal representatives in Mexico, President Wilson, supported by the other mediators, decided that Carranza was worthy of support, and in October he was officially recognized by the United States and by the other American republics. The United States immediately permitted arms to be imported for the Carranzistas, or Governmental forces, with the result that in the latter months of 1915 Villa's forces were defeated on several occasions and his power materially weakened.

The recognition of Carranza by the United States incensed Villa, and he turned his attention to attacks upon United States citizens and towns. In January, he murdered a number of United States citizens near Santa Ysabel; and on March 9, 1916, the border town of Columbus, New Mexico, was raided by a band of some 1,500 Villistas, reported under the leadership of Villa himself. The United States at once decided to dispatch a punitive expedition into Mexico after Villa, and a body of United States troops under General John J. Pershing crossed the border into Mexico on March 15. The situation was rendered peculiarly difficult by the refusal of General Carranza to grant general assent to the expedition. Several skirmishes were fought with Villista bands, but the pursuit itself accomplished little. Indeed, on April 13, a body of United States troops was attacked near Parral by Mexicans not under Villa.

Views of the United States forces for service in Mexico in 1914 and 1915 are shown opposite pages 7620, 7652, 7716.

In May, Carranza demanded the immediate withdrawal of the United States forces from Mexico; but Villa raided other border towns, and President Wilson called out the National Guard for police duty along the border. The United States troops remained in Mexico. On June 21, a body of Government Mexican troops opened fire on and put to rout, with sharp losses, a smaller body of United States troops, at Carrizal. War appeared more immient than ever before, but Carranza finally yielded to the United States' demand that the prisoners taken at Carrizal be released, and a readjustment of the United States battle-line in Mexico brought the United States forces nearer the border, so that better feeling was restored. Finally the two Governments met in a Joint Commission, at the end of the summer and the beginning of the fall of 1916, but with no success until the end of November, when a *modus operandi* on the border situation was reached.

However, President Carranza (he had been elected President in the elections held in October) refused assent to the protocol agreed upon by the Joint Commission, although he did not definitely reject it. As a result of the Joint Commission, the withdrawal of the United States' forces from Mexico began and was completed early in February, 1917. In January, 1917, a new Constitution was adopted by Mexico. It contained many liberal social welfare provisions, many of them more radical than those of the United States Constitution. Among them may be mentioned equal suffrage, the free administration of the law, popular election and recall of judges, minimum wage, eight-hour working day, six-day working week, compulsory profit-sharing, severe political restrictions upon the clergy. In addition, all natural resources were declared to be the property of the state, thus attacking the foreign business and financial interests which had obtained valuable concessions in Mexico.

With the entrance of the United States into the World War in April, 1917, the movement in the United States for armed intervention in Mexico temporarily died down. Those favoring intervention claimed that it was necessary to protect United States lives, rights, property and honor in Mexico; and that only by the armed intervention of the United States could order and a stable government finally be restored in the land south of the Rio Grande. The opponents of intervention, on the other hand, insisted that intervention would accrue only to the benefit of the big business interests financially involved in Mexico, that it would be a cloak for further annexation, that it would increase the animosity against the United States and suspicion of United States motives current throughout Central and South America, and that intervention would so unite Mexico against the United States that it would require five years of time, one billion dollars of money and thousands of lives to conquer the country and keep it pacified and policed. Since President Wilson had opposed intervention, on the whole the Democratic Party opposed intervention, in which stand it was supported by the American Federation of Labor and other radical forces in America; whereas although the Republican Party did not openly favor intervention in its platforms of 1916 and 1920, yet it declared for a firm policy toward Mexico, in which stand it was generally supported by the more conservative forces in the United States.

Throughout 1918 President Carranza continued in power in Mexico. However, protests continued against the discrimination by his government against foreign capital in Mexico, especially against the oil interests; and border raids by bandits continued. In 1919, sporadic killings of United States citizens in Mexico by bandits

and attacks on United States property interests in that country continued. It was estimated that 217 United States citizens had been killed in Mexico since 1911, and some 100 of these since the accession of Carranza to power. With the end of hostilities in the World War, the movement in the United States for armed intervention in Mexico again became strong, but was still resisted vigorously by the Democratic administration. In October, 1919, the relations between the two countries were almost broken when an American consular agent, Jenkins, at Puebla, Mexico, was kidnapped by bandits and held for ransom. The ransom was paid, but in November, the Mexican Government formally arrested Jenkins on the charge that he had been in collusion with the bandits. A strong note of protest was sent the Mexican Government by Secretary of State Lansing, which came close to being an ultimatum. (See page 8807.) Mexico replied by a note vigorously assailing the United States' position as being unwarranted by international law, but on December 4, Jenkins was finally released.

In the spring of 1920, a revolution against Carranza assumed threatening proportions, and after some severe fighting he was driven from the capital and was killed by his enemies on May 22, 1920. Mexico then fell under a provisional Government headed by Adolfo de la Huerta. In September, 1920, General Alvaro Obregon was elected President.

AREA AND POPULATION

States and Territories	Area in English Sq. Miles	Population, 1910
Aguas Calientes	2,969	118,978
Campeche	18,086	85,795
Chiapas	27,222	436,817
Chihuahua	89,974	405,265
Coahuila	63,728	367,652
Colima	2,273	77,704
Durango	42,265	436,147
Guanajuato	10,948	1,075,270
Guerrero	24,996	605,437
Hidalgo	8,575	641,895
Jalisco	33,486	1,202,802
Mexico	8,949	975,019
Michoacan	22,656	991,649
Morelos	2,734	179,814
Nuevo Leon	23,679	368,929
Oaxaca	35,383	1,041,035
Puebla	12,204	1,092,456
Queretaro	4,492	243,515
San Luis Potosi	24,000	624,748
Sinaloa	27,553	323,499
Sonora	76,619	262,545
Tabasco	10,072	183,708
Tamaulipas	32,268	249,253
Tepic (Ter.)	10,951	171,837
Tlaxcala	1,595	183,805
Vera Cruz	29,283	1,124.368
Yucatan	18,565	337,020
Zacatecas	24,467	475,863
L. California (Ter.)	58,328	52,244
Federal District	579	719,052
Quintana Roo	16,638	9,086
Total	765,535	15,063,207

In 1912, the population was estimated at 15,500,000.

In 1910, there were some 116,000 foreigners in Mexico, of which some 30,000 were from Spain, 29,000 from the United States, 21,000 from Guatemala, 5,000 from Great Britain, 5,000 from France, 4,000 from Germany, and 2,000 from Japan.

Practically all the population is Roman Catholic, but there is complete separation of church and state. Theoretically, education is free and compulsory, but most of the people are illiterate.

Whites number less than 20% and Indians almost 40%, the remaining population being of mixed white and Indian blood. Spanish is generally spoken.

Government.—By the Constitution promulgated on February 5, 1917, Mexico is declared a Republic, federated from twenty-eight states, one Federal District and two Territories. Each state retains control of its local government. The powers of the Central Government are divided into the executive, legislative and judicial.

The executive is under the direction of the President and an executive council, with seven secretaries in the cabinet attending to foreign affairs, interior, finance, army and navy, communications, public works, and industry and commerce. There are three departments of state—Judicial, Educational and Public Health.

The legislative is vested in a Congress composed of a House of Representatives and a Senate of 58 members, including two from each state. Representatives are elected on the basis of one for each 60,000 inhabitants. Like the Congress, the President is elected by popular vote, and holds office for four years. Congress is elected for two years. During the recess of Congress, a central executive committee, elected by its two houses, represents it.

Judicial.—The judiciary consists of the Supreme Court, with 15 judges chosen for six years, three circuit courts, and district courts, with thirty-two judges.

Production and Industry.—The mineral deposits of Mexico are among the most valuable of any country in the world. In normal years, when not interrupted by political upheavals, Mexico produces about 30% of the world's silver, 6% of its gold, 12% of its lead, 6% of its petroleum and 5% of its copper. Fuel generally is scarce, not because there are not coal fields, but because there are few means of transporting the coal from the fields. Mexico has also great stores of asphalt.

The great contrasts in the Mexican climate have effected great contrasts in the fertility of the soil. Many sections, especially in the north, are deserts, but much of the desert land could be readily reclaimed by irrigation, which the supply of water in many cases makes easily available. There are still forests over a considerable area. Mexico raises much coffee, tobacco, corn, beans, and a large fruit crop, especially bananas, lemons and oranges. There are also crops of cotton, wheat, sugar and rice. Sisal hemp is important. There is much raising of stock.

Latest figures show 30,000,000 acres of cultivated land, 120,500,000 acres of pastoral lands, 44,000,000 acres of forest lands.

Manufactures are still largely undeveloped. Those that exist are chiefly of sugar, tobacco, distilling, and cotton and woolen weaving.

The latest figures available for the annual crops and mineral yields were as follows: Cotton, 80,000 tons; Corn 1,130,000,000 kilograms; Sisal (exports to United States), 140,000 tons, valued at $50,000,000; Total mineral production, $115,000,000—Silver, $40,000,000; Copper, $40,000,000; Lead, $15,000,000; Zinc, $5,500,000; Gold, $2,000,000; Petroleum, 64,000,000 barrels. It is estimated that there are some 4,000 industrial establishments, repre-

senting capital of about $150,000,000 and employing 40,000 workers.

The annual coal production is estimated at 700,000 tons.

For 1918, the imports into Mexico amounted to $82,235,000 in United States currency. Of this amount, more than $70,000,000 came from the United States, almost $5,000,000 from the United Kingdom, $1,635,000 from France, $1,375,000 from Cuba, and almost $1,000,000 from Spain. The chief imports were vegetable products, $19,000,000; mineral products, $14,000,000; textiles, $14,000,000; animal products, $10,000,000; machinery, etc., $5,625,000; chemicals, $5,320,000.

For the same year, the exports from Mexico were $183,650,000 in United States currency, of which more than $175,000,000 went to the United States, more than $2,000,000 each going to Chile and the United Kingdom, $1,500,000 to Cuba and $825,000 to Spain. The chief exports were petroleum, $70,250,000; other minerals, $37,000,000; vegetable products $65,000,000; animal products, $10,000,000.

In the last fiscal year, the United States imported from Mexico goods valued at 168,330,626 and exported to Mexico goods valued at $143,785,526.

Finance.—In normal years before the World War, the annual budget was in the neighborhood of $70,000,000. In 1918, the expenditure was estimated at $93,000,000. Latest figures show the outstanding debt as $325,000,000. The unit of currency is the peso, equal to $0.498 in United States money.

In 1916, an estimate of the amount of foreign capital invested in Mexico was as follows: American, $1,500,000,000; English, $325,000,000; French $143,000,000; others, $120,000,000. The largest amounts of American investments were as follows: railways, $645,000,000; mines, $225,000,000; domestic bonds, $50,000,000; smelters, $25,000,000; bank deposits, $22,500,000; petroleum, $15,000,000; rubber, $15,000,000; factories, $10,000,000.

Communications.—Most of the Mexican railways have been brought under the state system. Altogether they represent about 10,700 miles of track. Latest figures show 60,000 miles of telegraph line in the Governmental system; 30,000 miles of telephone wire; 3,000 post-offices.

Cities.—Capital, City of Mexico. Population (1910), 470,659. Other towns exceeding 20,000 inhabitants were: Guadalajara, Puebla, San Luis Potosi, Monterey, Merida, Léon, Vera Cruz, Aguascalientes, Morelia, Chihuahua, Pachuca, Oaxaca, Orizaba, Tacubaya, Guanajuato, Saltillo, Durango, Toluca, Zacatecas, Jalapa, Celaya and Irapuato.

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War with United States. (See Mexican War.)
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Mexico, City of, Surrender of.—After a series of brilliant operations the United States invaders had overcome three times their own number and were in possession of the capital of Mexico. Before daylight of Sept. 14, 1847, the city council had waited upon Gen. Scott, the American commander, and demanded terms of surrender. He replied that the city had come into his power the night before and that the terms accorded would be imposed by the American army. At 7 o'clock the United States flag

was hoisted on the top of the National Palace, and at 9 o'clock Gen. Scott rode into the plaza, escorted by the Second United States Dragoons. Soon after taking possession of the city, fire was opened upon the American soldiers from the roofs of houses, from windows, and street corners by about 2,000 convicts who had been liberated the night before by the fleeing Government. These were joined by as many soldiers, who had disbanded themselves and assumed the garb of citizens. This firing was kept up in a desultory way for 24 hours, and many soldiers were killed or wounded.

Mexico, City of:
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Referred to, 4149.

Mexico, Treaties with.—The treaty of peace, friendship, limits, and settlement, known as the Guadalupe Hidalgo Treaty, was concluded in 1848, and closed the Mexican War. After a declaration of peace between the two nations, the treaty provided for the appointment of a commission to arrange a provisional peace and restore constitutional government so far as military occupation would permit.

Boundary.—The boundary line between the two republics was defined by this treaty, but modified by the Gadsden Treaty of 1853. Mexicans, who by the change of boundary should pass from the jurisdiction of Mexico, were to be incorporated as citizens of the United States with all reasonable ease and expediency. For the boundary extension the United States agreed to pay to Mexico the sum of $15,000,000 in gold or silver coins of Mexico; $3,000,000 to be paid at the city of Mexico immediately after ratification, and the remaining $12,000,000 in annual installments of $3,000,000 each, with interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum. The United States agreed to the payment of all claims due and to become due, so that Mexico should be free from all expense of any kind in connection with them. The Mexican government was discharged from all claims of United States citizens which arose prior to the signing of this treaty; and the United States agreed to pay the same in a sum not to exceed $3,250,000.

Fortifications.—The privilege of fortifying any point within its own territories was reserved by both nations. Supplies necessary to the support of United States troops within the territories of Mexico prior to evacuation, to be admitted duty free.

Customs Duties.—Until the rehabilitation of the custom house in Mexico, goods arriving shall be exempt from confiscation if dutiable. Disputes arising in regard to matter not covered clearly by this treaty are to be arranged amicably by the parties; failing such amicable arrangement, then they are to be submitted to arbitration of commissioners or of a friendly power. Provision was made for the possible outbreak of war between the two nations.

Gadsden Treaty.—The treaty of 1853, known as the Gadsden Treaty, transferred to the United States the territory out of which Nevada, Utah, California, and parts of Arizona, New Mexico, Colorado, and Wyoming were erected, comprising 45,535 square miles, and relinquishing claims against the United States for damages caused by Indian depredations amounting to between fifteen millions and thirty millions of dollars. In return, the United States paid the sum of $10,000,000, $7,000,000 at the time of signing the treaty, and $3,000,000 on the completion of the survey. No opposition to passage on the plank and rail road across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, of which the government of Mexico had pledged its support, was to be offered by either party. The privilege of carrying United States mail over the road was accorded without liability of duty charges on such parts of the mail as were not intended for distribution en route.

Boundary Commission.—The boundary convention of 1882 provided for the establishment of an International Boundary Commission for the replacing of such monuments as should be deemed necessary to clearly define the boundary between the two republics. The powers of the commission, the sort of monuments to be used, the cost thereof, and the expenses of the commission, were all clearly detailed in the treaty. Penalties were also agreed upon for destruction or removal of such monuments.

The boundary convention of 1884 established and more clearly defined the boundary of the Rio Grande and the Rio Colorado than did the treaty of 1848 and the treaty of 1853. Several boundary conventions were concluded at later dates to extend the time allowed to the commission for the completion of their work. By a boundary convention of 1889 a boundary commission was established for the determination of the boundary line consequent upon the changes in the courses of the Rio Grande and the Rio Colorado. (For the extradition treaties of 1899 and 1902, see Extradition Treaties.) An arbitration convention was signed in 1908. (See A. B. C. Arbitration.)

The question as to whether the Chamizal tract at El Paso belonged to the United States or Mexico was submitted to arbitration in 1910, but the result proved unsatisfactory. (See pages 7658 and 7780.)

Mexico also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America Treaties with.)

Mexico, Gulf of:
Canal from Atlantic Ocean to, discussed, 995.
Commerce of United States destroyed by pirates in, discussed, 765.
Naval force in, referred to, 2173.
Instructions to commanders of, referred to, 3065.
Piracy, force employed in, for repression of, 826.
Survey of coast of, referred to, 2610.
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Visited by British officers in, 3062.

Mexico vs. United States, first case before Hague Court, 6718, 6731.

Miami Indians. (See Indian Tribes, and Indian Wars.)

Miami, Battle of. (See opposite 102.)

Michigamia Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Michigan.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "The Wolverine State"; motto, "Si quæris peninsulam amœnam, circumspice" ("If you seek a delightful peninsula, look about you"). It consists of two peninsulas, which extend from lat. 41° 45′ to 47° 30′ north and from long. 82° 25′ to 90° 30′ west. The southern peninsula is bounded on the east by Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and Erie and by Canada (separated by the St. Clair and Detroit rivers), on the south by Indiana and Ohio, and on the west by Lake Michigan. The upper peninsula (separated from the southern by the Strait of Mackinaw) lies between Lake Superior on the north and Lakes Huron and Michigan and the State of Wisconsin on the south and west. Michigan's area is 57,890 square miles. The State is noted for its great mineral wealth. Its chief industries are the production of copper, salt, lumber, wool, and iron, and in the manufacture of furniture it is one of the most prominent states in the Union. The lumbering industry, in which it formerly led the country, has declined, owing to misuse of the forest, although the industry is still considerable.

Michigan was first settled by the French at Sault Ste. Marie in 1668. It was ceded to Great Britain in 1763, was formally surrendered to the United States in 1796, formed part of the Northwestern Territory and later of Indiana Territory, and was constituted Michigan Territory in 1805. Detroit was taken by the British in 1812, but was recovered by the United States in 1813. Michigan was admitted to the Union in 1837.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census placed the number of farms in the State at 206,960, comprising 18,940,614 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $1,088,858,379. The average value of farm land was $32.48.

Latest figures for the annual agricultural production were as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	1,650,000	64,350,000	$88,800,000
Hay	2,650,000	3,180,000a	74,415,000
Potatoes	326,000	28,700,000	38,730,000
Wheat	1,035,000	20,235,000	42,500,000
Oats	1,475,000	36,875,000	26,180,000
Sugar Beets	121,500	1,109,000a	12,505,000
Rye	905,000	13,500,000	17,280,000
Beans	310,000	4,030,000	16,925,000
Barley	280,000	5,320,000	6,278,000

a-tons.

The latest figures give the number of farm animals as follows:—2,224,000 sheep, valued at $26,243,000; 640,000 horses, $60,800,000; 873,000 cows, $83,808,000; 773,000 other cattle, $33,084,000; 1,450,000 swine, $31,900,000; 4,000 mules, $396,000. The last annual wool clip was 9,554,000 pounds.

Michigan ranks sixth among the states in mineral production value. The last annual production of iron ore was almost 18,000,000 tons. The copper production was 268,500,000 pounds. The coal mined amounted to 1,385,000 net tons. Other mineral products were 760,000 fine ounces of silver, 16,000,000 barrels of salt, 4,670,000 barrels of cement. The total mineral production in 1917 was valued at more than $160,000,000.

The automobile industry has centred in Michigan, which produces about three-fourths of all the automobiles manufactured in the United States. The census of 1920 gave Detroit a population just short of one million, ranking it as the fourth city in size in the United States.

In 1910 the population was 2,810,173. In 1920, it was 3,667,222.

Of the total population in 1910, only 17,115 were negroes. The foreign-born numbered 595,524, of whom 171,000 were Canadian and 132,000 German. About 47% of the population was urban.

Late figures show that the school population between the ages of 5 and 21 was 892,888 and the enrollment was 662,453. The teaching staff numbered 21,992.

The manufacturing business is concerned chiefly with lumber, agricultural products, metals and mining.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Michigan having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 8,724. The amount of capital invested was $869,043, giving employment to 320,611 persons, using material valued at $592,801,000, and turning out finished goods worth $1,086,162,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $250,525,000.

Michigan:
Admission of, into Union—
Application for, referred to, 1405.
Conventions held in regard to, 1489.
State government formed by inhabitants of, 1405.
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Approval of bill providing for road limited to, explained, 1046.
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Governor of, report of, 379.
Homestead entries in Marquette district in, confirmation of, referred to, 4665.
Lands in—
Ceded to United States by Indians, 1257.
Promised to soldiers, not fit for cultivation, recommendations regarding, 555.
Laws of, transmitted, 400, 6257.
Recovery of, from British forces, referred to, 520, 527.
Revenue District established within the State of, 6586.
Supplies furnished citizens of, 527.
Support of, referred to, 382.

Middle Creek (Ky.), Battle of.—Jan. 9, 1862, Col. James A. Garfield broke up his camp at Muddy Creek, Ky., and advanced with 1,800 men to attack Gen. Humphrey Marshall, who had some 2,500 troops, in Johnson County. Marshall, being advised of Garfield's approach, took up a position on the heights of Middle Creek, about two miles from Prestonburg. On the morning of the 10th Garfield began the attack. The battle lasted all day. Marshall retired from the field in the evening upon the arrival of Federal reenforcements and burned his stores to prevent their falling into Federal hands. Seventy-five of the Confederate dead were picked up on the field. The

Union loss was less than 30, according to Federal accounts.

Middleman:
Conduct to be observed by, during World War, 8251.
Place of, in industry, 9185.

Middle States, armed neutrality in, discussed, 3225.

Midnight Appointments.—During the last days of his presidential term John Adams, piqued at the success of Jefferson, whom he bitterly opposed for the presidency, made a number of Federal appointments, in every instance of men opposed to Jefferson and his principles. Among the appointments were sixteen circuit judges. Some of the commissions of these appointees were signed just before midnight of March 3, 1801, and were called "midnight appointments."

"Midnight Ride of Paul Revere."—The ride by Paul Revere from Boston to Lexington, in 1775, to call the "Minute Men" to emergency service; immortalized by Longfellow in his *Midnight Ride of Paul Revere.*

Midshipmen (see also Navy):
Number of, increase in, 7116.
Title of, should be restored to replace "naval cadet," 6667.

Midway Island, referred to, 5187.

Milan Decree.—Nov. 11, 1807, France and England being then at war, the King of Great Britain and his privy council issued a decree forbidding trade between the United States and any European country under Napoleon's power. Napoleon thereupon, in retaliation, on Dec. 7, 1807, issued the Milan Decree, in which he declared "denationalized," whether found in continental ports or on the high seas, any vessel which should submit to search by a British vessel or should touch at or set sail to or from Great Britain or her Colonies. (See also Berlin Decree; Embargo; Orders in Council.)

Milan and Berlin Decrees:
Discussed and referred to by President—
Jefferson, 409, 415, 430, 432, 434, 441, 446.
Madison, 467, 474, 476, 503, 513, 522.
Wilson, 8883.
Proclamations regarding, issued by Jefferson and Madison, 457, 466.

Milan, Italy. Beneficence Congress at, 4626.

Mileage.—Compensation for traveling expenses at a certain rate per mile. The First Congress passed a law allowing each member $6 for every twenty miles traveled in going to and from Congress. In 1818 this was raised to $8, and in 1856 mileage was limited to two sessions. Railway transportation having cheapened traveling expenses, Congress in 1866 reduced the mileage to 20 cents a mile each way.

Miles, The, claims of owners of, against Portugal, 2453.

Militarism.—The term is hard to define, but may be considered as a state of national psychology which exalts military ideals, not only above, but also instead of civil ideals; and which in any country bases its hopes for the greatness of that country upon the development and utilization of its military forces. A necessary concomitant of militarism is the division of the social life of the country along the lines of military caste. It must be pointed out that the mere presence of a large army, or of a system of universal military training, does not imply militarism. France, considered one of the most democratic countries before the war, and one peculiarly free from militarism, had universal military training and an army proportionately at least as large as that of Germany, which was considered the greatest exponent of militarism in modern times; whereas peace-loving Switzerland had the largest army in Europe in proportion to population.

Although the ideal of militarism was supreme in ancient and feudal times, modern militarism dates from the Napoleonic Wars; and the pre-war German system was the direct result of the organization of Marshal von Moltke, assisted by Bismarck; and is well exemplified in the military writings of Bernhardi, the historical teachings of Treitschke and the philosophy of Nietzsche.

Militarism (see also Germany):
Effects of, evil, discussed by President Washington, 208.
Germany, in, power of, must be crushed, 8400.

Military Academy.—As early as 1776 the idea of a National Military Academy had been advanced. A committee of the Continental Congress was appointed to "prepare and bring in a plan of a military academy of the army." Washington called the attention of Congress to the matter in 1793, and in 1796 recommended the institution of a military academy (page 194). March 16, 1802, Congress passed the law founding the Academy. In 1794, instruction in military training had been begun at West Point, according to a law of Congress passed in that year, but the buildings burned down in 1796. On Sept. 1, 1801, the school was re-opened with four army officers and one civilian as administrators and instructors.

The present number of cadets at the Academy was fixed by the act of July 9, 1918, as follows:—Four from each state at large, two from each Congressional District and Territory, four from the District of Columbia, two from Porto Rico natives and eighty-two from the United States at large. Of these, twenty shall be selected from the honor graduates of educational institutions teaching military tactics under the direction of the War Department and designated by it as honor schools. Two are appointed on recommendation of the Vice-President. The President is authorized to appoint cadets from among enlisted men in the Army and National Guard, not exceed one hundred eighty at any one time.

Cadets from Congressional Districts are recommended by Congressmen of the respective districts, with those from the states at large being recommended by the Senators of the respective states. Those from the United States at large and from the District of Columbia are appointed directly by the President. With the exception of those appointed from the United States at large, applicants must be actual residents of the Congressional or Territorial districts or of the states respectively from which they are appointed. Except in cases of unexpected vacancies appointments must be made one year in advance of the date of admission.

Appointees to the Military Academy must be between seventeen and twenty-two years of age, free from any infirmity which may render them unfit for military service, and able to pass a careful examination in English grammar, English composition, English literature, algebra through quadratic equations, plane geometry, descriptive geography and the elements of physical geography, especially the geography of the United States, United States history, the outlines of general history.

Nominations may be made either at the will of the Congressmen and Senators, or by competitive examination held by them. Two alternates may also be named, if qualified, and receive letters of appointment from the War Department, being examined with the regular appointee. In case the latter fails to pass the prescribed preliminary examinations, the better qualified of the alternates is admitted to the Academy.

However, enlisted men of the Army or National Guard must be between the ages of nineteen and twenty-two and a satisfactory certificate may be accepted in lieu of examinations in the subjects above-mentioned.

The Secretary of War is authorized to permit not exceeding four Filipinos, to be named, one in each class, by the Governor General of the Philippines, for instruction at the Military Academy. The Filipinos thus receiving instruction shall be given the same pay, allowances, and emoluments as are authorized by law for cadets at the Military Academy appointed from the United States, to be paid out of the same appropriations; And provided further, That said Filipinos undergoing instruction on graduation shall be eligible only to commissions in the Philippine Scouts, to serve for eight years, unless previously discharged.

The course of instruction, which is quite thorough, requires four years, and is largely mathematical and professional. The principal subjects taught are mathematics, English, French, drawing, drill regulations of all arms of the service, natural and experimental philosophy, chemistry, chemical physics, mineralogy, geology, electricity, history, international, constitutional, and military law, Spanish, civil and military engineering, art and science of war, and ordnance and gunnery. About one-fourth of those appointed usually fail to pass the preliminary examinations, and but little over one-half of the remainder are finally graduated. The discipline is very strict—even more so than in the army—and the enforcement of penalties for offences is inflexible rather than severe. Academic duties begin September 1 and continue until June 4. Examinations are held in each December and June, and cadets found proficient in studies and correct in conduct are given the particular standing in their class to which their merits entitle them, while those cadets deficient in either conduct or studies are discharged.

From about the middle of June to the end of August cadets live in camp, engaged only in military duties and receiving practical military instruction. Cadets are allowed but one leave of absence during the four years' course, and this is granted at the expiration of the first two years. The pay of a cadet is $1,174 annually, and is sufficient for his support with the exercise of proper economy.

Upon graduating cadets are commissioned as second lieutenants in the United States Army. The whole number of graduates from 1802 has been about seven thousand. It is practically necessary for applicants to have recourse to Senators or Congressmen. The appointments by the President are usually restricted to sons of officers of the army and navy, who, by reason of their shifting residence, due to the necessities of the service, find it next to impossible to obtain an appointment otherwise. The enrollment at the end of the term of 1922 was 1,154.

An illustration of the Military Academy at West Point as it appeared in 1840 will be found opposite page 1617 and a recent view of it, opposite page 9138.

Military Academy:
Appropriation for, 955, 983, 9170.
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Cadets in—
Enlistment of, time of, should be extended, 1607.
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Enlargement of, necessary, 433, 471, 551.
Establishment of, recommended, 194, 197, 878.
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Government of, rules for, 621.
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Regulations for, amended, 4713.
Removal of, suggested, 433.
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Views of—
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Military Asylum. (See Soldiers' Home.)

Military Code. (See Code.)

Military Commanders (see also Military Districts and Divisions):
Anonymous letter filed with correspondence of, return of, requested, 3999.
Not vested with authority to interfere with contracts between individuals, order regarding, 3548.

Military Commissions to Cuba, Puerto Rico, and adjacent islands, 6322.

Military Contributions to be levied upon Mexico, 2373, 2379.

Military Control over Railroads, suggested, 8184.

Military Courts and Commissions (see also Lincoln, Abraham; Military Commission, etc.):
Order—
In relation to trials by, 3638.
Sentences of imprisonment remitted, 3537.

Military Divisions.—On September 1, 1920, nine corps areas were established to comprise the following states and territories:

First. Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut. Headquarters, Boston.

Second. New York, New Jersey, Delaware, Porto Rico and adjacent islands. Headquarters, Governor's Island, New York.

Third. Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, District of Columbia. Headquarters, Fort McHenry, Maryland.

Fourth. North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Mississippi, Arkansas, Louisiana. Headquarters, Ft. McPherson, Georgia.

Fifth. Ohio, West Virginia, Indiana, Kentucky. Headquarters, Fort Benjamin Harrison, Indiana.

Sixth. Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin. Headquarters, Fort Sheridan, Illinois.

Seventh. Missouri, Kansas, Iowa, Nebraska, Minnesota, North Dakota, South Dakota. Headquarters, Fort Crook, Nebraska.

Eighth. Texas, Oklahoma, Colorado, New Mexico, Arizona. Headquarters, Fort Sam Houston, San Antonio, Texas.

Ninth. Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Nevada, California. Headquarters, the Presidio of San Francisco.

For inspection, mobilization, etc., the corps areas were combined into three Army Areas, the first, second and third corps areas forming the First Army Area; the fourth, fifth and sixth corps areas forming the Second Army Area; and the seventh, eighth and ninth corps areas forming the Third Army Area.

Military Districts and Divisions:

Assignments to, 3749, 3750, 3754, 3755, 3859, 3860, 3861, 3862, 3863, 3864, 3866, 3869, 3973, 3975, 3976, 4047, 4048, 4753.

Orders regarding, rescinded, 3976, 4048.

Creation of, 3860.

Authority for, referred to, 3830.

Dissolution of, 4048, 4049.

First, fourth and fifth districts dissolved, 4048, 4049.

Instructions relating to third district referred to, 3826.

Plans, etc., for barracks and quarters in Military Division of Potomac, 4666.

Reports and recommendations of commanders of, 3994, 3999.

Military Drafts. (See Drafts, Military.)

Military Education.—The Military Educational System of the United States is under the supervision and co-ordination of the General Staff of the Army. The system provides for the military education of the officers and enlisted men of the Army. It contemplates that all officers upon being newly commissioned from West Point, from the ranks, from civil life, or from any other source, shall pursue a year's basic course at the special service school of their respective arms of the service. Upon completion of this, they are assigned to duty with troops of their arm for a minimum period of two years.

I. *The War Plans Division of the General Staff* is charged with the supervision of all military, educational, and vocational training throughout the army. It is in charge of a director, who is an assistant to the Chief of Staff.

II. *Special Service Schools* are maintained for each arm of the service as follows: The Infantry School, Camp Benning, Georgia; the Cavalry School, Fort Riley, Kansas; the Field Artillery School, Fort Sill, Oklahoma, and Camp Knox, Kentucky; the Coast Artillery School, Fort Monroe, Virginia; the Engineer School, Camp Humphreys, Virginia; the Signal Corps School, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; the Signal Corps School, Camp Alfred Vail, New Jersey; the Air Service Schools at the various flying fields; the Tank Corps School, Camp Meade, Maryland; the Ordnance School of Application, Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland; the Ordnance School of Technology, Watertown, Mass.; the Ordnance School of Operation, Maintenance and Repair, Raritan Arsenal, New Jersey; the Army Medical School, Washington, D. C.; the Motor Transport School, Camp Holabird, Maryland; the Chemical Warfare School, Lakehurst, N. J., and the Finance School, Fort Washington, Maryland.

These schools are under the direct supervision and control of the chiefs of the respective arms or services. The object of the courses for officers is to develop and standardize the instruction and training of officers in the technique and tactics of their respective arm or service.

Basic courses, where officers are sent upon their initial entry into the Regular Army, are maintained at the five special service schools of the combatant arms of the service, viz.: infantry, cavalry, field artillery, coast artillery, and engineers. These basic courses have for their object: So to qualify all officers upon their initial entry into the service that they may function intelligently on being assigned to duty with their arm of the service.

Advanced courses for the training of officers are maintained. They are of such scope as will completely fit the graduates for the performance of all duties that devolve upon officers of their grade in their respective arm or service.

III. *General Service Schools*, including (*a*) the School of the Line and (*b*) the General Staff School located at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, and (*c*) the General Staff College, Washington, D. C., are under the direct supervision and control of the Chief of Staff of the Army. It is contemplated that the officer will spend his first school year at the School of the Line. On the recommendation of the school faculty, which is based on his competitive class standing, he is eligible for the course at the General Staff School the succeeding year. The third year of his military education is to be spent, if practicable, on duty with troops of arms of the service other than that with which he has previously served. Having received the recommendation of the General Staff School faculty at the end of his second year, the officer is eligible to enter the General Staff College at the beginning of his fourth year. This course continues for one year, at the end of which period the officer's school education is complete and he is eligible for detail on the War Department General Staff after having complied with the law as to eligibility for detached duty from his own arm of the service.

The School of the Line, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The object of this school is

to train officers (*a*) in the combined use of all arms and services functioning with a division, including the functioning of corps and army troops and services, in their relation to the division, in accordance with a uniform doctrine approved by the War Department; (*b*) in the duties and responsibilities of field officers with regard to education and training in the Army.

The General Staff School, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The object of this school is to train selected officers, who have completed the course in the School of the Line, for higher tactical command and duty as General Staff officers with tactical units. In addition, special courses are conducted for general officers and selected officers of the technical and administrative services.

The General Staff College, Washington, D. C. The object of this institution is to train selected officers who have completed the course in the General Staff School for high command and for duty in the War Department General Staff. In addition, special courses are conducted for general officers, and for selected officers of the technical and administrative services.

IV. *Unit Schools for Officers.* These schools include those for officers which are under the direct control of territorial or tactical commanders. Their primary object is the training and instruction of officers of all grades with a view to securing uniform and efficient training of the troops or personnel under their respective commands. The courses are conducted concurrently with and closely co-ordinated with the training schedules or work of the troops or personnel under the student officers.

V. *Unit Schools for Enlisted Men.* These schools include schools for the military training and instruction of enlisted men. They have for their object (*a*) to prepare non-commissioned officers, selected privates, and enlisted specialists to carry out efficiently the schedule of training or work in progress; (*b*) to insure proper uniformity and co-ordination in the training or work of different elements of the same command; (*c*) to provide such additional technical and tactical instruction as may be practicable and suited to the needs of the students.

VI. *Special Service Schools for Enlisted Men.* Courses are established at the special service schools enumerated in paragraph II, above, for the special training and instruction of enlisted men. The objects of the schools are (*a*) to train selected non-commissioned officers in the duties of junior officers of their respective arm of service; (*b*) to give special training to selected enlisted men in the duties of non-commissioned officers and enlisted specialists of their respective arm or service.

VII. *The Reserve Officers' Training Corps* consists of units established under the provisions of Sections 40-53 of the National Defense Act (act of June 3, 1916) in civil educational institutions under a system of regulations and instructions prescribed by the Secretary of War. These units are composed of students and represent the various branches of the military service. The military instruction is conducted by Army officers detailed for the purpose who are designated as professors of military science and tactics. The Reserve Officers Training Corps consists of a senior division organized in general colleges and universities which require four years of collegiate study for a degree and a junior division established at other approved institutions. Military training in the Reserve Officers' Training Corps is carried on from three to five hours each week throughout the four academic years, and also includes attendance at a Summer camp of six weeks' duration. Upon the satisfactory completion of the four-year course, including the camp training, the students are eligible for appointment as Second Lieutenant in the Officers' Reserve Corps of the Army.

VIII. *General and Vocational Education of Soldiers.* The Army school system provides for the enlisted personnel elementary and advanced education and vocational training. Education is voluntary, except for illiterates and non-English speaking recruits. Recruit educational centers have been established within the several territorial departments where intensive specialized training is given this class of student. In the advanced general education, an opportunity is given the soldier to pursue work preparatory to college and to West Point. Vocational training is offered with the dual purpose of providing the Army with the technicians needed, and to qualify the soldier for a place in the industrial world on his return to civil life. The courses now offered are automotive, electrical, building, textile, food, animal, transportation, metals, printing, medicine, highway construction and topography, steam, gas and electrical power, music, leather, machine, business, agriculture and miscellaneous. The "applicatory" or "learning by doing" method of instruction is followed in both the general education and vocational courses. Funds are provided by Congressional appropriation. The instructors are qualified civilians and officers and soldiers within the service. A special educational school has been established for the purpose of developing courses along vocational and general educational lines, and for the instruction of teachers to insure uniform standards of achievement throughout the Army.

THE SPECIAL SERVICE SCHOOLS

IX. *The Infantry School,* Camp Benning, Georgia; *The Cavalry School,* Fort Riley, Kansas; *The Field Artillery Schools,* Fort Sill, Oklahoma, Camp Knox, Kentucky, and Camp Bragg, North Carolina; *The Coast Artillery School,* Fort Monroe, Virginia, and *The Engineer School,* Camp Humphrey, Virginia, are established for the purpose of (*a*) training officers for their specific duties in command of troops; (*b*) the tactical and technical training of their arms and services; (*c*) training selected non-commissioned and enlisted specialists for their respective arms and services.

X. *The Signal Corps School,* Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, for the training of officers and selected enlisted men for the tactical duties of the Signal Corps.

XI. *The Signal Corps School,* Camp Alfred Vail, New Jersey, for the training of officers and enlisted men in the technical duties of the Signal Corps.

XII. *The Air Service Schools* are maintained at the several flying fields for the practical training of officers and enlisted men as aviators, and the duties incident thereto.

XIII. *The Tank Corps School,* Camp Meade, Maryland, for the training of officers and enlisted men of the Tank Corps in the technique, tactics, and practical mechanical operation of military tanks.

XIV. *The Ordnance School of Application,* Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland, for the instruction of officers of the Ordnance Department in mechanical and chemical engineering.

XV. *The Ordnance School of Technology,* Watertown, Mass., for the instruction of officers in shop practice, shop administration, and the general administration of the Ordnance Department, except that of the field service thereof.

XVI. *The Ordnance Operation, Maintenance and Repair School,* Raritan Arsenal, New Jersey, for the training of officers and enlisted men in the specialized branches of ordnance work.

XVII. *The Army Medical School,* Washington, D. C., for the training of officers and selected enlisted men in the administrative work and medical procedure pertaining to the Medical Corps. The Army Medical School at Washington provides a course of training and instruction for prospective officers of the Medical Corps covering a period of one year.

XVIII. *The Motor Transport School,* Camp Holabird, Maryland, provides practical courses of training for officers and enlisted men in the technical and mechanical operation of motor transport. There are also excellent vocational training schools in which enlisted men may pursue a sixteen weeks' course to qualify in the several trades pertaining to motor industry.

XIX. *The Chemical Warfare School,* Lakehurst, N. J., for the training of officers and enlisted men in the technical and tactical duties of the Chemical Warfare Service.

XX. *The Army Band Leaders School,* Fort Jay, Governor's Is., N. Y., for the training of band masters and selected enlisted men for service with Army bands. The Institute of Musical Art, of New York, gives a number of scholarships to students at the school. Graduates of the school are eligible for appointment as band leaders in the service.

XXI. *School for Bakers and Cooks.* At many of the large cantonments a specially prepared course of training for enlisted men to qualify them for duty as bakers and cooks in the service operate under the direction of the Quartermaster Corps.

Military Education, discussed, 6671, 6721.

Military Encampment, International, to be held at Chicago during World's Fair discussed, 5669.
Foreign guests attending, not to pay duties on baggage, 5164.

Military Establishment (see also Army):
Proposition of Czar of Russia for reduction of, discussed, 6335.

Military Expeditions. (See Expeditions Against Foreign Powers.)

Military Governors. (See Provisional Governors.)

Military Information, Bureau of:
Discussed, 5879.
Reorganization of, 5755.

Military Justice, Bureau of, recommendations regarding, 4570.

Military Order of Foreign Wars.—The Military Order of Foreign Wars of the United States was instituted in the City of New York, Dec. 27, 1894, by veterans and descendants of veterans of one or more of the five foreign wars which the United States had been engaged in, to wit: the War of the Revolution, the War with Tripoli, the War of 1812, the Mexican War, and the War with Spain, "to perpetuate the names and memory of brave and loyal men who took part in establishing and maintaining the principles of the Government" in said wars, and "to preserve records and documents relating to said wars, and to celebrate the anniversaries of historic events connected therewith." Since the establishment of the order the United States has fought its sixth foreign war. By an amendment to the constitution all American officers who participated in the war with Spain, or any future foreign campaign recognized by the United States Government as "war," are rendered eligible to membership as veteran companions.

Members are entitled "companions," and are either "veteran companions" or "hereditary companions." The former are commissioned officers of the army, navy, or marine corps of the United States who participated in any of the foreign wars of the United States. The latter are direct lineal descendants, in the male line only, of commissioned officers who served honorably in any of the said wars. Commanderies may be established in each of the states, and state commanderies now exist in the States of New York, Pennsylvania, Connecticut, Illinois, California, Massachusetts, Maryland, Ohio, Missouri, Vermont, Virginia, Rhode Island, Louisiana, Indiana, Wisconsin, Michigan, Texas, Georgia, Colorado, New Jersey, and the District of Columbia.

The National Commandery was instituted March 11, 1896, by the officers of the New York, Pennsylvania, and Connecticut commanderies. Present membership, over 1,800 companions. There are Vice-Commanders-General representing each state commandery.

Military Park. (See Chickamauga and Chattanooga National Military Park.)

Military Peace Establishment. (See Army.)

Military Posts. (See also Forts.)
Disposition of abandoned, recommended, 4524, 4569.
Establishment of—
Lands donated by Indians for, 436.
Recommended, 831, 1475, 1940, 2111, 2190.
Estimates, plans, etc., for, 4666, 4670, 4674, 4677, 4680, 4687.

Military Reservations:
Additional land for Fort Preble, Me., recommended, 4777.
Indian school at, establishment of, recommended, 4683.
Legislation to provide for disposal of, recommended, 4660, 4690, 4737, 4740, 4782, 4783.

Military Schools and Colleges.—Besides the United States Military Academy (q. v.) at West Point there are the following schools and colleges making up a system of advanced instruction in the science and art of war: The War College at Washington, D. C., for military education; the General Service and Staff College, at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas; the Artillery School, at Fort Monroe, Virginia; the School of Submarine Defense, at Fort Totten, New York; the

Engineer School of Application, at Washington, D. C.; the School of Application for Cavalry and Field Artillery, at Fort Riley, Kansas, and the Army Medical School, at Washington, D. C.

Military Stores, provisions for—
Discussed, 416.
Recommended, 317.

Military Training in the Schools.—During the Civil War, the passage of the Morrell Act provided financial aid from the Government to colleges with compulsory military drill for all students. It is estimated that by 1917 over 30,000 college students were receiving such military training. In 1895, an unsuccessful attempt was made in Congress to establish a Bureau of Military Education, and to provide for the establishment of uniform military drilling in the public schools of the United States. Many states, notably Wyoming, have provisions for voluntary military drill, and Boston for many years has had such drill in its public high schools. The existence of a belief in the efficacy and the benefits of military training has led to the establishment of private military schools all over the United States.

In 1914, however, the movement for military training in the public schools was resurrected by the outbreak of the Great European War. Opinion in the country was sharply divided on the issue. Military men were almost unanimous in their approval of the measure, as were most of the advocates of what came to be called "Preparedness" (q. v.); but the movement was opposed strongly by organizations of the working-classes and by pacifists (q. v.), while educational and physical training experts differed in their opinions. Many of the proposals for military training in the schools were modeled after the Swiss system (q. v.). In Germany, the school children were given physical training adaptable to military purposes, which, however, was itself given outside the schools. New York state created much interest by passing in 1916 a law for universal military training in the schools. The training is under the supervision of a Military Training Commission of three, appointed by the Governor. The law applies to boys between the ages of 16 and 19, except those actively employed; and prescribes that not more than three hours a week during the school year may be devoted to this purpose. (See also Australian System of Military Training.)

The practice of twenty countries with respect to military training in the schools before the World War was as follows:

Argentina—Obligatory military training in the last two years of secondary schools. Specially trained instructors.

Australia—Military instruction compulsory for all boys from twelve to eighteen years.

Austria—Voluntary organizations for military training of pupils of secondary schools, under government protectorate. Optional rifle practice in the last two years of secondary schools.

Bolivia—Simple drill in connection with gymnastics.

Canada—Military instruction carried on in voluntary cadet corps.

France—Prescribed military instruction without arms, and rifle practice in elementary and higher elementary schools. Ages nine to thirteen years; rifle practice limited to boys over ten years of age. Specially trained instructors. Strong organizations carry on the work of military preparation among older boys.

Germany—Voluntary organizations of older public school pupils and students of secondary schools. Training without arms. Decrees issued during the war provide for preparatory military training of all boys over sixteen years of age.

Great Britain—Strictly voluntary work carried on by private agencies.

Greece—Very intensive military instruction is given in gymnasia, under the patronage of the King. Simple drill obtains in all public schools in connection with physical training.

Hungary—Voluntary organizations in elementary, secondary, and higher schools. In many districts military instruction is obligatory in secondary schools.

Italy—Military training given as obligatory subject in "national colleges." Private agencies provide for simple military drill for younger boys.

Japan—Military gymnastics obligatory in elementary, secondary, and normal schools.

Mexico—Obligatory military drill with arms in all primary and secondary schools. Regulated by state laws.

Netherlands—Military training given in voluntary organizations for boys over fifteen years of age.

New Zealand—Military instruction compulsory for boys over fourteen years.

Norway—Voluntary rifle practice.

Portugal—No military training is given in schools. The subject of "physical culture," which is taught generally, includes simple drill without arms. Boy Scout organizations are numerous.

Russia—Prescribed military gymnastics in elementary and secondary schools.

Spain—No distinct military training is given. Some simple drill is included in the program of physical training.

Sweden—Compulsory rifle practice in public secondary schools for boys from fifteen to eighteen years of age. Given by special instructors.

Switzerland—Instruction in military gymnastics in elementary schools obligatory throughout the school age. Conducted by specially trained instructors. Voluntary rifle practice and military drill both with and without arms.

Military Tribunals. (See Military Courts and Commissions.)

Militia.—Citizens of a state enrolled as soldiers for training and discipline, but called into active service only in emergencies, as distinguished from the regular soldiers, who are in constant service. The Constitution empowers Congress "to provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the Union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions." In 1792 an act was passed to provide for the national defense by establishing a uniform militia throughout the United States by the enrollment of every free able-bodied white male citizen between the ages of eighteen and forty-five. (See Army.) An

act of March 2, 1867, permitted the enrollment of negroes.

The militia was called out by Federal authorities in 1794 to quell the Whisky Rebellion in western Pennsylvania, during the War of 1812, and in 1861, during the Civil War.

The law of Jan. 21, 1903, provided for the better equipment of this service and supplied an organic connection between the National Guard and the Regular Army, the purpose being to create a National Volunteer Reserve that could be called upon whenever needed by the general Government. This law provided that the militia shall consist of every available male citizen in the respective states, territories, and the District of Columbia, and every available male of foreign birth who had declared his intention to become a citizen, the entire militia body being divided into two classes: (1) the Organized Militia, to be known as the National Guard of the State, Territory, or District of Columbia, or by such other designation as may be given them by the laws of the respective states or territories; and (2) the remainder, to be known as the Reserve Militia.

The organized militia is those state and territorial organizations that have in the past or shall in the future participate in the annual appropriation made by Congress for the militia, and the organization, armament, and discipline of the organized militia are the same as prescribed for the regular and volunteer army.

The act of Jan. 21, 1903, and the laws antecedent thereto restricted the use of the organized militia when called forth by the President in time of emergency to service in the United States and to a period of nine months. The act approved May 27, 1908, removes these two restrictions and makes the organized militia of the several states available for service during the period of commission of the officers or enlistment of the men, and within or without the boundaries of the United States. The call of the President will, therefore, of itself accomplish the transfer of the organized militia specified in his call from state relations to Federal relations. The militia so called forth becomes at once a part of the Army of the United States, and the President becomes its Commander-in-Chief; it is therefore as completely under the orders of the President and as completely serviceable, both as to time and place, as the regular army.

Assuming that all male citizens 18 to 45 years of age are available for military duty the total number of citizen soldiers, eliminating Chinese, Japanese and alien whites, based on the census of 1910, with 10 per cent. added for estimated increase to 1916, constituting the potential military strength of the United States in 1916, was estimated by the Census Bureau as 21,071,076.

Among other important provisions of the new militia act may be mentioned, fixing the organization, armament and discipline of the organized militia after Jan. 21, 1910, similar to those of the Regular Army; providing that the organized militia shall be called in time of emergency into the service of the United States in advance of any volunteer force.

The Secretary of War issues without cost to the states or territories all arms and equipment necessary to supply all of the organized militia. The Secretary of War is also authorized to provide for the preparation of the organized militia for the encampment manœuvers and field manœuvers of the regular army in which the militia receives the same pay, subsistence and transportation as the regular army. Upon the requisition of the Governor of any state or territory having militia organized under this law, the Secretary of War may assign one or more officers of the regular army for service in the militia of the state or territory. Alaska has no militia. Guam and Samoa have small provisional forces used for police purposes. The Philippines have a constabulary force for police or regular military service. Porto Rico has a provisional force under the command of a Lieutenant-Colonel of the United States Army.

Congress makes annual appropriations for the support of the militia. The appropriations are apportioned among the several states in accordance with the strength of their militias.

For the present position of the militia in the military system of the United States, see the article, Army.

In May, 1917, President Wilson ordered the mobilization of the militia of all the states, and before the end of August the entire militia of the United States was organized in the Federal service. The strength of the militia by that time had been greatly increased by voluntary enlistments. Any vacancies still existing were filled from the selective draft. The report of the Adjutant General of the Army gives the following figures for the militia of the several states. They comprised the enlisted strength on April 2, 1917 and subsequent voluntary enlistments, but not the number inducted into the militia from the draft.

Alabama	7,201	Montana	2,106
Arizona	973	Nebraska	5,713
Arkansas	8,131	Nevada	38
California ...	13,183	N. Hampshire	3,467
Colorado	4,858	New Jersey..	14,910
Connecticut .	8,271	New Mexico..	1,782
Delaware	1,638	New York....	51,225
District of Columbia ..	3,228	N. Carolina.. N. Dakota....	9,228 3,933
Florida	3,858	Ohio	29,446
Georgia	7,168	Oklahoma ...	3,586
Hawaii	4,382	Oregon	5,495
Idaho	2,238	Pennsylvania.	32,885
Illinois	24,508	Rhode Island.	4,625
Indiana	9,705	S. Carolina...	5,050
Iowa	11,104	South Dakota.	4,050
Kansas	10,679	Tennessee ...	9,062
Kentucky	7,301	Texas	22,920
Louisiana ...	4,331	Utah	1,893
Maine	5,735	Vermont	2,547
Maryland ...	8,130	Virginia	9,034
Massachusetts	20,934	Washington .	5,284
Michigan	9,977	West Virginia.	5,086
Minnesota ...	7,642	Wisconsin ...	17,323
Mississippi...	6,230	Wyoming ...	2,414
Missouri	16,531		
Total			461,048

There are now about 23,500,000 males in the country between the ages of 18 and 45, which is considered the period of liability for service in the militia. Of these, about 16,000,000 are native whites, about 5,000,000 are foreign born whites and about 2,500,000 are negroes, Chinese, Japanese and Indians.

The strength of the National Guards of the several states, according to the most recent report of the Militia Bureau of the War Department, is as follows:

Alabama	1,591	Montana	69
Arizona	624	Nebraska	1,099
Arkansas	1,606	Nevada	...
California	2,141	N. Hampshire.	1
Colorado	825	New Jersey	3,478
Connecticut	2,867	New Mexico	502
Delaware	491	New York	16,181
Dist. Columbia.	332	N. Carolina	1,645
Florida	1,241	N. Dakota	344
Georgia	2,022	Ohio	7,077
Hawaii	929	Oklahoma	2,731
Idaho	369	Oregon	2,125
Illinois	3,831	Pennsylvania	10,301
Indiana	2,160	Porto Rico	1,424
Iowa	3,170	Rhode Island.	1,188
Kansas	2,025	S. Carolina	1,056
Kentucky	803	S. Dakota	1
Louisiana	441	Tennessee	1,052
Maine	1,368	Texas	1,578
Maryland	1,925	Utah	656
Massachusetts.	6,898	Vermont	934
Michigan	2,579	Virginia	1,898
Minnesota	5,024	Washington	2,526
Mississippi	825	W. Virginia	1
Missouri	3,476	Wisconsin	5,813
		Wyoming	387
Total, United States			113,630

The National Defense Act of 1920 fixed the National Guard at 200 per member of Congress for that year, or 108,950; with an increase of at least 50% each year following until it reaches 800 per member of Congress, or 435,800 (set for 1924), the increments being—for 1921, 163,425; for 1922, 245,140; and for 1923, 367,700.

The location of the cantonments where the National Guards of the various states were trained for service abroad in the European War will be found under the heading Cantonments.

The Chief of Coast Artillery has indicated that about 20,000 of the organized militia will be required for the coast artillery reserves and approximately the same number for supports in time of war. These troops would be required for service in the immediate vicinity of the fortifications, and would not be available for use with the mobile army until all question of sea power along the coast had been settled favorably. (See also Army; War, Department of; Artillery; Arms and Ammunition; Naval Militia.)

The Militia law of Jan. 21, 1903, as amended by the act of May 27, 1908, provides: "That the militia shall consist of every able-bodied male citizen of the respective states and every able-bodied male of foreign birth who has declared his intention to become a citizen, who is more than eighteen and less than forty-five years of age, and shall be divided into two classes —the organized militia, to be known as the National Guard (or by such other designations as may be given them by the laws of the respective states or territories), the remainder to be known as the reserve militia."

At the beginning of the war against Germany, the strength of the National Guard in Governmental Service was about 67,000. At the close of the war, it was 382,000. During the war, the National Guard Divisions were numbered from 26th to 42d, both inclusive.

Militia:

Arming and equipping of, recommended, 4724, 4768, 6159.

Artillery tactics for use of, prepared, 927.

Called into national service in war against Germany, 8306.

Called out to prevent British invasion from Canada, 1618.

Cavalry tactics for use of, prepared, 927.

Discharge of, directed, 455.

Discussed by President—
- Adams, J. Q., 869, 958, 995.
- Arthur, 4768.
- Cleveland, 5877, 5968, 6159.
- Jackson, 1166, 1389, 1474.
- Jefferson, 317, 333, 373, 394.
- Lincoln, 3249.
- McKinley, 6385.
- Madison, 461, 463, 471, 479, 534, 551, 561.
- Monroe, 758, 781.
- Polk, 2481.
- Roosevelt, 6672, 6805, 7236.
- Taft, 7799.
- Tyler, 1902, 2121.
- Van Buren, 1754.
- Washington, 57, 59, 78, 99, 132, 159, 161, 176, 196.

Dispatched to Mexican border, 8130.

Distribution of arms, ordnance, stores, etc., to District of Columbia and Territories, regulations regarding, 5159, 5462.

Encampment of, in coast works, urged, 5476.

Encouragement of, 5550.

Field manoeuvers for, 6927.

Guard, National, referred to, 5476.

Hawaiian drafted into national service, 8508.

Increase in, recommended, 429.

Indian wars, campaigns of, in. (See Indian Wars.)

Insurrections suppressed by. (See Illegal Combinations.)

Laws for, revision of, recommended, 228, 230, 317, 504, 523, 869, 1166.

Laws regarding, obsolete, 6672.

Organization, arming, and disciplining, 4570.

Plan for, submitted, 63.

President cannot call into service except by authority of Congress, 2640.
- Modification in laws regarding, recommended, 2641.

Refusal of governors of Massachusetts and Connecticut to furnish quotas of, 501.

Reorganization of, urged, 6672, 6721, 6805, 7236.

Returns of, 338, 356, 366, 388, 409, 435, 449, 455, 584, 653, 687, 773, 781.

Suppressing insurrections by. (See Illegal Combinations.)

	Total	*Trimmed hats and frames*	*Embroideries*
Number of establishments	3,005	829	1,294
Wage-earners	50,850	22,622	14,283
Capital	$ 95,539,000	$ 37,184,000	$26,572,000
Wages	49,849,000	23,980,000	14,388,000
Cost of materials	132,929,000	69,431,000	22,117,000
Value of products	255,725,000	122,871,000	56,819,000

Volunteer Act regarding, passage of, 7514.
Volunteer force should be enlisted, 429, 463, 479, 2121.
Young men should become members of, 373.
World War, called to service in, 8306.

Militia Bureau, War Department.—By act of June 3, 1916, the Division of Military Affairs, which had been a subdivision of the War Department under the Chief of Staff (q. v.), became a separate division of the department, under the direct supervision of the Secretary of War. The act of June 3, 1916 was intended to fulfill the federalization of the National Guard up to constitutional limitations, and the passage of the act abolished the National Militia Board. The act provided for the organization, arming, and disciplining of the National Guard, "reserving to states * * * the training of the Militia according to discipline prescribed by Congress." (See Militia; Army; War Department.)

Militia Bureau referred to, 9170.

Milk, preserved, imports and exports of, discussed, 8918. (See also Butter, Cheese and Condensed Milk.)

Milk River Valley Gun Club, bill for issue of patent of land to, vetoed, 8912.

Milliken's Bend (La.), Battle of.—During the operations before Vicksburg, Grant had withdrawn troops from all the posts within his reach to strengthen his army. The fort at Milliken's Bend, on the Mississippi River, in Louisiana, was left in charge of a small garrison, mostly negroes. On June 6, 1863, the place was attacked by a party of Louisiana Confederates under General Ben. McCulloch, who might have been successful in their assault but for the arrival of the gunboats *Choctaw* and *Lexington*. The Confederates were repulsed. The Federal loss was 404 killed and wounded.

Millinery and Lace Goods.—The table at the top of the page summarizes the report on this industry issued by the Census Bureau in 1923 as of 1919.

Mill Springs (Ky.), Battle of.—Early in the winter of 1861-62 the Confederate General Felix K. Zollicoffer, with a force of about 5,000 men, intrenched himself at Mill Springs, on the Cumberland River in Wayne County, Ky. Jan. 17, 1862, Gen. George H. Thomas, with 8,000 Union troops, advanced to dislodge him. The Confederates set out to meet Thomas, and on Jan. 19, 1862, an engagement took place, begun by the advance guard of both armies. The Confederates were driven back to their camp, which they abandoned during the night. Twelve pieces of artillery, 156 wagons, 1,000 horses and mules, as well as large quantities of small arms, ammunition, and stores fell into the hands of the Union army. Crossing the Cumberland River, the retreating army burned its boats to prevent pursuit. The loss on the Confederate side was 350. The Unionists lost 246. Gen. Zollicoffer was among the Confederate dead.

Mill Springs, Ky., battle of, discussed, 3301.

Milligan Case.—A United States Supreme Court case involving the right of the President to suspend the rights of citizens under *habeas corpus* proceedings. Oct. 5, 1864, during the Civil War, Milligan was arrested by order of Gen. Hovey, and on Oct. 21 was brought before a military commission convened at Indianapolis, Ind., by the same officer. He was tried, found guilty, and sentenced to be hanged for participating in rebellious schemes. By the *habeas corpus* act of Congress in 1863 lists were to be furnished in each State of persons suspected of violating national law. But any such persons arrested against whom no indictments should be found by the circuit court or district court were to be freed on petition verified by oath. The Milligan indictment was not found by the circuit or district court. He objected to the authority of the military commission and sued for a writ of *habeas corpus* in the circuit court. The case coming before the Supreme Court in 1866, it was decided, Justice Davis reading the opinion, that the writ should be issued and the prisoner discharged. The court held that the power of erecting military jurisdiction in a State not invaded and not in rebellion was not vested in Congress and that it could not be exercised in this particular case; that the prisoner, a civilian, was exempt from the laws of war and could only be tried by a jury; that the writ of *habeas corpus* could not be suspended constitutionally, though the privilege of that writ might be. The Chief Justice and Justices Wayne, Swayne, and Miller, while concurring in the judgment, made through the first named a separate statement of reasons. The decision expressly stated that conspiracies to aid rebellion were enormous crimes and that Congress was obliged to enact severe laws to meet the crisis. (See also Habeas Corpus; Merryman Case.)

Milling Industry. (See Flour-Mill and Grist-Mill Industry.)

Milwaukee, Wis., proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2859.

Mineral Fuels, conservation of, 7100. (See also Lands, Public and Conservation.)

Mineral Lands. (See Lands, Mineral.)

Miners:
Act for protection of, in Territories discussed, 5663.
Protection against, in West Virginia, 8988.
(See also Coal and Anthracite Coal.)

Mines.—Submarine mines were first used extensively by the Confederate forces in the Civil War, 90% of these being of the self-acting variety. Other varieties of mines are fired by electricity from points on shore or on ships when the target has arrived over the mine. The Hague Conference of 1907 forbade the use of unanchored mines, the regulations to that effect to remain in force for seven years from that date. Mines are often rendered useless by being exploded by counter-mining, a new set of mines being exploded in their vicinity, and the reverberations of the explosions discharging the originally-laid mines. Another method widely used in the Great European War consisted of sweeping a mine area clear of these engines of destruction by grappling irons or wire nets stretched between two or more vessels drawing little water. (See Submarines.)

Mines, Drifting and Submarines:
Agreement on use of, suggested by President Wilson, 8057.
Defence of use of, by Germany, 8058.
Mines (see also Lands, Mineral):
Bureau of, advocated, 7104.
Equipment and power needed for, 7912.
Gold, discovered, 3451.
In Black Hills, 4306, 4355.
In California, 2486.

Mines, Bureau of.—Chapter 240 of the acts of the second session of the 61st Congress to establish in the Department of the Interior a Bureau of Mines was approved May 16, 1910. The act provided for the establishment of said bureau and a director "who shall be thoroughly equipped for the duties of said office by technical education and experience," with an annual salary of $6,000. Transfer to the bureau was provided for the investigations of the analyzing and testing of coals, lignites and other mineral fuel substances, and the investigation as to the cause of mine explosions, from the United States Geological Survey. The duties of the bureau were prescribed as follows: "It shall be the province and duty of said bureau and its director, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, to make diligent investigation of the methods of mining, especially in relation to the safety of miners, and the appliances best adapted to prevent accidents, the possible improvement of conditions under which mining operations are carried on, the treatment of ores and other mineral substances, the use of explosives and electricity, the prevention of accidents, and other inquiries and technologic investigations pertinent to said industries, and from time to time make such public reports of the work, investigations and information obtained as the Secretary of said department may direct, with the recommendations of such bureau." (See also Interior, Department of.)

The scope of the Bureau was broadened by act of Congress approved February 25, 1913. Included in the recent activities of the Bureau have been the maintenance of an extensive chief experimental station in Pittsburgh, Pa., the formation of first aid and rescue corps in most of the mines of the country, and the dispatch of a train carrying an elaborate exhibit of first aid to the largest mining centers of the country.

Minimum Wage.—The tumultuous development of modern industrial life within the last decades has resulted in a number of checks upon the fixing of wages by the law of supply and demand. The most effective of these checks has been the trade union movement, with its ability to fix the wages of labor by its economic, and occasionally its political, power. Another check has been the growth of the social conscience, alert to lessen the amount of poverty and misery. The most radical of these checks, however, has been the minimum wage, fixed to apply to certain designated classes or industries by law, rather than by the power of certain organized groups or by the conscience of individuals.

The first minimum wage legislation was passed in 1894 by New Zealand, where a law for compulsory arbitration of labor disputes made some provision for fixing a minimum wage. The first real minimum wage legislation, however, was that of the Australian state of Victoria, in 1896; and by the end of 1916 Victoria's minimum wage legislation covered more than 150,000 workers, the total population in Victoria being less than a million and a half. Other Australian states lost little time in following the Victorian example of 1896.

In Great Britain, a minimum wage fixed by law for all industries is advocated not only by the Labor Party, but also by most Liberals and by many Unionists. A bill to that end was introduced by the Government in 1919 in Parliament and was still pending in 1920. Many industries in Great Britain, however, such as mining, railroading, munition work, had previously been brought under the scope of national minimum wage legislation. France began minimum wage legislation for women working in the clothing industry at home, and later extended it to other industries. Tentative minimum wage legislation exists also in Norway, Switzerland and Argentina. In Canada, British Columbia, Manitoba, Saskatchewan and Quebec have applied minimum wage legislation to all women and minors in industry.

In the United States, agitation for the minimum wage by law did not get under way until 1910, and it is still concerned only with laws by states applying only to women and children. The American Federation of Labor is on record in opposition to minimum wage legislation on the ground that it tends to become the maximum wage and to weaken the economic power of those workers who are organized to fix their own wages. However, the radical wing of the organization, together with the Socialists in and out of the Federation, favor the minimum wage. With but few exceptions, employers oppose it.

Even before 1910, however, the minimum wage in America had been fixed in public employment, by words such as "a fair rate of remuneration," usually interpreted as the prevailing trade union rates. On the other hand, some states and cities specifically fixed the sum which was to be the minimum wage for public employment. Massachusetts was the first state (1912) to pass minimum wage laws for private industries, and her example was followed in 1913 by California, Utah, Colorado, Minnesota, Nebraska, Oregon, Washington and Wisconsin; in 1915, by Arkansas and Kansas; in 1917 by Arizona; in 1918, by Congress for the District of Columbia; and in 1919 by North Dakota and Texas. In 1917, the Supreme Court, by a tie vote of 4 to 4, permitted the minimum wage law of Oregon to stand on the statute books. In 1919, Ne-

braska repealed her minimum wage law. In 1912, a constitutional amendment permitting minimum wage legislation for women and minors was passed by California and in 1912 a constitutional amendment permitting such legislation for all industries was passed by Ohio; but by 1920 those states had not taken advantage of these acts to pass minimum wage legislation. These state laws all apply only to women and children, and most of them apply only to industrial and commercial work, agricultural and domestic labor being excepted from the operation of the laws.

Standards.—Several of the state laws in the United States specifically mention the sum which shall be the minimum wage, but most of the laws provide for commissions to fix the sum by rulings after investigations. Thus the first Oregon legislation fixed the sum as $8-$9 weekly, which was raised during the war to $11-$12. Washington fixed the sum of $13.20 weekly for experienced adult women during the World War, Massachusetts has made it $12.50 in candy-making, while Wisconsin and Minnesota have fixed the minimum wage at 22-23 cents per hour. The board in the District of Columbia fixed $16.50 in retail stores in 1919 and for women in hotels, restaurants, etc. in 1920.

Australia fixes the minimum wage as the living wage, interpreted so as to allow the worker to exercise the normal functions of citizenship. There are different rates for those supporting a family and for those supporting only themselves. In Great Britain, the rate is usually fixed as the rate paid for similar work by the accepted model employer of the district in question.

Minister.—1. In political parlance, a representative of one government in the territory of another government, lower in rank than ambassador. *Minister extraordinary*—a personal representative of the chief executive of one nation to a foreign country with specific duties to perform. *Minister plenipotentiary*—a personal representative of the chief executive with full power to conclude a specific negotiation in accordance with the minister's own judgment. (See Ambassador and Consul.) 2. In foreign countries, particularly in Great Britain, the term is used in much the same sense as "secretary" in the President's Cabinet, e. g., the Minister of Foreign Affairs, corresponding to the American Secretary of State.

Ministers of United States (see also Consular and Diplomatic Service; the several powers):

- Assurances of respect to, 256, 269.
- Assemblage of, in Tacubaya, Mexico, for concluding treaties at Panama, to promote friendliness and good will with South American Republics, 935.
- Congress indefinitely postponed, 951.
- Instructions to, 997.
- Correspondence between, effects of publication of, 385.
- Elevation of, missions and title of ambassador conferred, 5874, 6335.
- Interfered with by French commander, 780.
- List of—
  - Chargés d'affaires, secretaries, and, transmitted, 2830.
- Money appropriated for, rights of, regarding, referred to, 912.
- Must have assurances that they will be respected, 256, 269.
- Official residences for, recommended, 6072, 6155.
- Peace between Great Britain and United States, treaty of, received from, 537.
- Presents—
  - From foreign States not to be accepted by, 1256.
  - Given to, deposited in State Department, 1256, 1258, 1260.
  - Previously given to, should be returned, 1257.
- Salary of, discussed, 103, 1910, 1953.
  - Increase in salary of commissioner to China recommended, 2658.
- Sent to Congress of Nations. (See under Panama, Isthmus of.)

Ministers to United States. (See the several Powers.)

Minnesota.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "The Gopher State"; motto, "L'étoile du nord" ("The North Star"). It extends from lat. 43° 30′ to 49° 25′ north and from long. 89° 29′ to 97° 5′ west. It is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by Lake Superior and Wisconsin, on the south by Iowa, and on the west by the Dakotas, and has an area of 84,682 square miles. The chief industries are wheat growing, lumbering, and flour and grist milling, and in the products of this latter industry the State has the largest output in the country. The manufacture of lumber and timber products is a rapidly progressing industry. Minnesota is one of the leading wheat-producing states of the Union. The region was first explored by the French near the close of the seventeenth century, the first settlement being made at Duluth in 1678. In 1763 France ceded the territory east of the Mississippi to England, by whom it was ceded to the United States in 1783. It formed part of the Northwest Territory organized in 1787, and was successively included in the Territories of Indiana, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The lands west of the Mississippi form part of the Louisiana Purchase, and were included successively in the Territories of Upper Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, and Iowa. March 3, 1849, Congress passed an act creating Minnesota Territory. In 1851, 21,000,000 acres of land were acquired of the Dakotas by the treaty of Traverse de Sioux. May 11, 1858, Minnesota became a State.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Wheat	4,015,000	37,710,000	$94,276,000
Corn	2,950,000	118,000,000	141,600,000
Hay	2,000,000	3,800,000a	55,100,000
Oats	3,220,000	90,160,000	57,700,000
Potatoes	300,000	26,100,000	40,000,000
Barley	910,000	18,200,000	21,110,000
Rye	522,000	7,830,000	10,180,000
Flax	320,000	2,880,000	12,816,000

a-tons.

Latest reports show the farm animals as 940,000 horses, valued at $85,540,000; 1,395,000 cows, $114,390,000; 1,730,000 other cattle, $56,400,000; 668,000 sheep, $7,348,000; and 2,951,000 swine, $70,824,000. The last annual wool clip was 3,594,000 pounds.

Minnesota leads all the states in the production of iron ore, especially red hematite. The leading districts are the Mesabi and Vermilion ranges, with 39,056,000 gross tons produced last year in the former.

There were in 1906, 8,223 miles of steam railway in the State and 538 miles of electric line. From St. Paul ten railways radiate with a total length of 60,000 miles. The Great Northern owns a line of steamers which run between Puget Sound and China, Japan and the Philippines. The population of the state in 1910 was 2,075,708; and in 1920 it was 2,386,371.

Of the population in 1910, 543,595 were foreign-born, including 122,000 Swedes, 105,000 Norwegians, and 110,000 Germans.

Latest figures for education showed 236 high schools, with an enrolment of 45,457, an average daily attendance of 37,422, and 1,827 instructors. In the elementary schools there were 15,959 teachers and 433,122 pupils.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Minnesota having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 5,974. The amount of capital invested was $354,434,000, giving employment to 115,690 persons, using material valued at $336,849,000, and turning out finished goods worth $493,354,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $80,591,000.

Minnesota:
Admission of, into Union—
Discussion and territory outside of, referred to, 3121.
Taking of census in accordance with act providing for, referred to, 3002.
Constitution of, transmitted, 3000.
Indian massacres in, and persons sentenced to be hanged, discussed, 3345.
Public building to be erected in, referred to, 2682.
Public lands in, to be surveyed, 2838.

Minnesota and Northwestern Railroad Co., suit instituted against, in name of United States referred to, 2830.

Minnetaree Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Minorities, Rule by, denounced, 8819.

Mint.—By an act of Congress passed April 2, 1792, the first United States mint was established at Philadelphia. The first machinery and first metal used were imported, and copper cents were coined the following year. In 1794 silver dollars were made, and the suceeding year gold eagles. In 1835 branch mints were established in New Orleans, La., at Charlotte, N. C., and at Dahlonega, Ga.; in 1852, at San Francisco, Cal.; in 1864, at Dallas City, Oreg., and in 1870, at Carson City, Nev. The mints at Charlotte and Dahlonega were suspended in 1861, that at Dallas in 1875, that at Carson City in 1885, and that at New Orleans from 1860 to 1879. Assay offices, considered branches of the mint, were established at New York in 1854, Denver, Col., in 1864, Boisé City, Idaho, in 1872, and at other places at later dates. The mints as at present established are situated at Philadelphia, San Francisco and New Orleans; those at Carson City and Denver are equipped as assay offices, and no coins are made at either. (See also Currency; Coinage Laws.)

Mint:
Abuses of, discussed, 177.
Artists from abroad engaged in, 120.
Branch of—
At Columbus, Ohio, referred to, 4311.
At New Orleans, statement of, transmitted, 6299.
At New York recommended, 2352, 2407, 2500.
Establishment of, recommended and referred to, 75, 1432, 4310,
In California recommended, 2486, 2557, 2621.
Referred to, 2747.
In North Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana, referred to, 1383, 1495.
Buildings and grounds at Columbus, Ohio, offered to United States for, by F. Michel, 4311.
Coinage at, referred to, 2407.
Proclamation regarding, 239.
Defective coins lodged in, 160.
Medals made in, for army and navy officers, 1845.
Opening of more mints, with authority to coin for foreign nations, recommended, 4201.
At New York, 2352, 2407, 2500.
In California, 2486, 2557, 2621.
In North Carolina, Georgia, and Louisiana, 1383, 1495.
Referred to, 99, 141, 177.
Seizure of, at New Orleans by authorities of Louisiana, referred to, 3199.

Mint, Director of, reports of, transmitted, 303, 305.

Minutemen.—At a session of the provincial congress of Massachusetts, Nov. 23, 1774, it was voted to enroll 12,000 minutemen. They were to be organized as militia and hold themselves ready for service at a minute's notice.

Miraflores Island, San Juan Harbor, Puerto Rico, referred to, 6708.

Miranda Plot.—A joint scheme of citizens of the United States and Great Britain whereby through the agitation of one Miranda, a citizen of Caracas, Venezuela, dissatisfaction was to be spread among the Spanish and French provinces. During the revolutions which it was hoped would ensue Great Britain was to obtain the West Indies and the United States, Florida and Louisiana east of the Mississippi.

Mirboha, The:
Capture of, by the *Philadelphia* near Gibraltar in 1803, 352.

Indemnification to captors of, and of the *Mishouda* for the public accommodation, recommended, 354.

Misbranding imported goods, 7728. (See also Food and Drugs Act.)

Miscarriage of Justice, in case of beef-packers, 7291.

Mishouda, The, indemnification to captors of, recommended, 354.

Misprision of Treason.—Concealment on the part of a citizen of treasonable acts known to him, or neglect to report such knowledge promptly to the proper authorities. The penalty consists of not more than 7 years in prison, and of a fine of not more than $1,000. (See Treason.)

Mission Commission, recommendation of, referred to, 5661.

Mission Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Missionaries:

Access to Yap granted to, 9053.

In Turkey, treatment of, 4627, 5090, 5872, 5962, 6069, 6147.

Missionary Ridge, or Chattanooga (Tenn.), Battle of.—After retiring from Lookout Mountain, Bragg's army concentrated on Missionary Ridge, across the Chattanooga Valley and southeast of the city. On the morning of Nov. 25, 1863, Sherman assailed the Confederate right wing at the extreme north end of the ridge. Hooker advanced from Lookout Mountain across the valley and attacked the left. The battle raged all day, but the Confederates held the position until late in the afternoon, when the center was weakened by withdrawals to support the left and right. It was then that Grant, watching the progress of the fight from Orchard Knob, ordered forward the Army of the Cumberland, under Thomas. Wood's and Sheridan's divisions charged the Confederate center. The brigades of Hazen and Willich were in advance. Darkness came on, when the Confederates retreated. Pursuit was stopped when the ridge was won. The Confederates lost more than 9,000, including 6,000 prisoners. Forty pieces of artillery and 7,000 stand of small arms fell into the hands of the victors. The Federal casualties in the Chattanooga campaign between Nov. 24 and Nov. 29 were 753 killed, 4,722 wounded, and 349 missing—a total of 5,824.

Missions Boundary Dispute, evidence presented to President of United States as arbitrator by Argentine Republic and Brazil, 5867.

Award of, discussed, 6058.

Mississippi.—One of the southern group of states; nickname, "The Bayou State." It is named for the Mississippi River and extends from lat. 30° 10′ to 35° north and from long. 88° 5′ to 91° 40′ west. It is bounded on the north by Tennessee, on the east by Alabama, on the south by the Gulf of Mexico and Louisiana, and on the west by Louisiana and Arkansas (separated by the Mississippi River), and has an area of 46,865 square miles.

The region was visited by De Soto in 1540, and a settlement was attempted by the French under Iberville at Biloxi in 1699. The territory was ceded by France to Great Britain in 1763. Part was ceded to the United States in 1783 and the remainder was acquired in 1803. The Territory of Mississippi was organized in 1798 and admitted as a State in 1817. It seceded Jan. 9, 1861, and was readmitted Feb. 17, 1870. The State has a semi-tropical climate and rich soil.

The federal census of manufactures gives the number of manufacturing establishments in the state as 2,455, with 64,452 persons engaged, capital of $154,117,337, annual salaries and wages of $59,182,535, cost of materials of $96,677,871 and value of products, $197,746,987. In the five years preceding the taking of the census, the number of persons engaged increased 23% and the primary horsepower of the industries, 8%. The leading industry was lumber and timber products, followed by oil and cake, cottonseed. Five per cent of the wage-earners were female. There were 3 establishments employing more than 1,000 wage-earners each and 12, from 500 to 1,000; there were 38 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each and 59, at from $500,000 to $1,000,000.

The 1920 census gave the population as 1,790,618, of which 935,184 were negroes. About one-half are Baptists and one-third Methodists. The urban population was about 15% of the whole. The foreign-born numbered 8,019, including 1,841 Italians, 929 Germans and 828 Russians.

The last federal census gave the number of farms in the state as 272,101, with the total value of farm property as $964,751,855. The average size per farm was 67 acres and 51% of the farm land was improved. The average value of each farm was $3,546, of which $2,359 represented land, $544 buildings, $496 live stock and $147 implements and machinery. The average value of farm land was $35.27 an acre. About 60% of the farms were run by negroes. Of the farms, 66% were held by tenants (18% by share tenants, 32% by croppers and 10½% by cash tenants). Of the 91,310 owned farms, 58% reported free from mortgage, 26% mortgaged and 16% unknown. The average value of the farms reporting amount of debt was $4,539, with $1,375 as the average debt and 6½% as the average rate of interest.

The farm animals were reported as—Horses, 214,852; Mules, 308,216; Beef Cattle, 461,241; Dairy Cattle, 789,238; Sheep, 164,440; Swine, 1,373,311; Chickens, 6,342,204.

Recent figures for the acreage and annual production of the chief crops included:—Cotton, 2,628,000, 813,000 bales; Corn, 3,172,000, 57,096,000 bu.; Hay, 428,000, 492,000 tons; Sweet Potatoes, 107,000, 8,560,000 bu.

The population between the ages of 5 and 18 is estimated at 591,102, of whom 563,273 are enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 354,263 and 2,632 male and 9,330 female teachers. There are 172 public high schools, with 1,041 teachers and 29,139 pupils. (See Education.)

Mississippi (see Confederate States):

Aaron Burr surrenders to officers in Territory of, 409.

Act endowing church in, vetoed, 475.

Act to authorize special term of circuit court of United States in, to be held in Scranton, vetoed, 4440.

Citizens of Territory of, must be protected, 372.

Combinations, unlawful in, proclamation against, 4276.

Consolidation of Territory of, discussed, 426.
Elections in, and complications growing out of, proclamation regarding, 4276.
Fifteenth amendment, action of, on, referred to, 4001.
Lands granted to, in aid of railroads referred to, 3580.
Lands in Territory of, claimed by Great Britain, 438.
Laws of Territory of, referred to, 292, 303.
Legislative council for—
Dissolved by governor of, 445.
Nomination of, 445.
Memorial from, regarding alleged violation of treaty by United States transmitted, 2003.
Nomination for council of, 445.
Offices in, President Jackson refuses to make further nominations for, 1199.
Provisional governor for, appointed and restoration of, into Union discussed, 3512.
Reconstruction of—
Recommendations regarding, 3965.
Referred to, 4000.
Time for submitting constitution to voters proclaimed, 3970.
Referred to, 3983.
Survey of towns in, referred to, 597.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamation against, 4276.

Mississippi Bubble.—The gigantic commercial scheme commonly known by this name was projected in France by the celebrated financier, John Law, of Edinburgh, in 1717, and collapsed in 1720. Its primary object was to develop the resources of the Province of Louisiana and the country bordering on the Mississippi, a tract at that time believed to abound in the precious metals. The company was incorporated in August, 1717, under the title of "The Company of the West," and started with a capital of 200,000 shares of 500 livres each. They obtained the exclusive privilege of trading to the Mississippi, farming the taxes and coining money. The prospectus was so inviting that shares were eagerly bought, and when, in 1719, the company obtained the monopoly of trading to the East Indies, China and the South Seas, and all the possessions of the French East India Company, the brilliant vision opened up to the public gaze was irresistible. The "Company of the Indies," as it was now called, created 50,000 additional shares; but a rage for speculation had seized all classes, and there were at least 300,000 applicants for the new shares, which consequently rose to an enormous premium. Law, as director-general, promised an annual dividend of 200 livres per share, which, as the shares were paid for in the depreciated *billets d'état*, amounted to an annual return of 120 per cent. The public enthusiasm now rose to an absolute frenzy, and Law's house and the street in front of it were daily crowded by applicants of both sexes and of all ranks, who were content to wait for hours—nay, for days together—in order to obtain an interview with the modern Plutus. While confidence lasted a factitious impulse was given to trade in Paris, the value of manufactures was increased fourfold, and the demand far exceeded the supply. The population is said to have been increased by hundreds of thousands, many of whom were glad to take shelter in garrets, kitchens and stables. But the Regent had meanwhile caused the paper circulation of the National Bank to be increased as the Mississippi scheme stock rose in value, and many wary speculators, foreseeing a crisis, had secretly converted their paper and shares into gold, which they transmitted to England or Belgium for safety. The increasing scarcity of gold and silver becoming felt, a general run was made on the bank. The Mississippi stock now fell considerably, and despite all efforts continued to fall steadily and rapidly. In 1720 the National Bank and the Company of the Indies were amalgamated, but, though this gave an upward turn to the share market, it failed to put the public credit on a sound basis. The crisis came at last. In July, 1720, the bank stopped payment, and Law was compelled to flee the country. The French government was very nearly overturned and widespread financial distress and bankruptcy followed the collapse of the project.

Mississippi River:
Act to remove obstructions to navigation in mouth of, vetoed, 2919.
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Canalization of, from St. Paul to St. Louis, 7465.
Channel at mouth of, to be deepened, 3019.
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Railroad from Pacific Ocean to, recommended, 2714, 2754.
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Mississippi River Commission:
Appropriation for protection of levees recommended by, 4682, 4797.
Report of, discussed, 4784.

Missouri.—One of the central western group of states; nickname, "Bullion State;" motto, "Salus populi suprema lex esto" ("Let the people's safety be the supreme law"). It takes its name from the Missouri River, which in turn is named after a tribe of Indians belonging to the Siouan family. The State is included between lat. 36° and 40° 30′ north and long. 89° 2′ and 95° 44′ west. It is bounded on the north by Iowa, on the east by Illinois, Kentucky, and Tennessee (separated by the Mississippi), on the south by Arkansas, and on the west by the Indian Territory, Kansas, and Nebraska (separated in part by the Missouri River), and has an area of 69,420 square miles. Slaughtering and meat-packing are the most important industries, the manufacture of tobacco ranking second.

The territory was first settled at St. Genevieve by the French in 1755, was ceded to Spain in 1763, ceded back to France in 1800, and was ceded by France to the United States in 1803, forming part of the Louisiana Purchase. Missouri Territory was formed in 1812 and admitted to the Union as a State in 1821.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 277,244, comprising 34,591,248 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $2,052,917,488. The average value of land per acre was $41.80, an increase from $20.46 in 1900. The value of domestic animals, poultry, etc., was $285,839,108, including 2,561,482 cattle, valued at $72,883,664; 1,073,387 horses, $113,976,563; 342,700 mules, $43,438,702; 4,438,194 swine, $31,937,573; 1,811,268 sheep, $7,888,828; poultry, 20,897,208, valued at $11,870,972.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	5,756,000	155,410,000	$214,470,000
Wheat	4,295,000	57,886,000	120,980,000
Hay	2,810,000	3,795,000a	73,980,000
Oats	1,415,000	38,260,000	27,165,000
Potatoes	110,000	8,250,000	15,180,000
Cotton	111,000	60,000b	10,200,000
Tobacco	3,300	2,970,000c	942,000

a-tons; b-bales; c-pounds.

The latest figures for farm animals comprise 4,305,000 hogs, valued at $71,032,000; 919.000 cows, $72,600,000; 1,746,000 other cattle, $85,380,000; 1,525,000 sheep, $18,148,000; 1,040,000 horses, $86,320,000; 378,000 mules, $45,360,000. It will be seen from these figures that the raising of stock, especially hogs, is an important activity in the state. The last annual wool clip was 7,614,000 pounds.

In a recent year, the production of lead was 210,440 short tons; and of zinc, 136,300 short tons. The last annual coal production was 5,605,000 net tons. Other important mineral products are stone and granite, and cement.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Missouri having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 8,386. The amount of capital invested was $522,548,000, giving employment to 188,266 persons, using material valued at $388,715,000, and turning out finished goods worth $637,952,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to more than $125,000,000.

In 1910, the population was 3,293,335. Of this, 157,452 were negroes, and 228,896 were foreign-born, including 88,224 German, 21,401 Russian and 23,290 Irish. Of the total population, 42½% was urban. The 1920 federal census gave the population as 3,403,547.

There are 20,667 teachers in the public elementary schools, with 906,055 enrolled pupils. There are 631 public high schools, with 2,600 teachers and 52,468 enrolled students.

Missouri (see also Springfield):
Admission of, into Union, proclaimed, 664.
Bank of. (See Bank of Missouri.)
Boundaries of, extended, 1493.
Boundary line with Iowa, dispute respecting, 1175, 1777, 1788.
Defalcation of officers in, 941, 970.
Indian titles to lands in, extinguished, 769, 1538.
Joint resolution placing troops of, on footing with others as to bounties, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 3733.
Judicial districts of, 6733.
Lead mines in, 711, 931.
Military forces to be raised by governor of, for suppression of rebellion in, 3241.
Order regarding, 3243.
Railroads in, to be made available for military uses of Government, 3317.
Security of trade with Mexico, discussed, 1036.
Troops of, orders respecting inspection of records of, 3433.

Missouri, The, loss of, by fire, referred to, 2122.
Aid rendered, by British authorities at Gibraltar, 2123.

Missouri Compromise.—An agreement relative to the question of slavery embodied in a bill passed by Congress March 2, 1820, and in the act admitting Missouri, Feb. 28, 1821. Upon the introduction into Congress during the session of 1818-19 of a bill providing for the admission of Missouri as a state, but prohibiting slavery therein, the opposition on the part of the Southern members became violent and threatening,

and after long and brilliant debates a compromise was effected, chiefly through the efforts of Henry Clay. Representative Tallmadge, of New York, in February, 1819, proposed an amendment declaring all children born after the admission of the state to be free. This was modified to make all children born slaves free at twenty-five. The House passed the bill with this amendment, but the Senate refused to concur. Next year the bill passed the House again in the same form. The Senate voted to admit Maine provided Missouri was admitted as a slave state. The House rejected the proposal. Representative Thomas, of Illinois, proposed as a compromise the admission of Missouri as a slave state provided that in future slavery should be prohibited in all the territory forming part of the Louisiana Purchase north of 36° 30', the southern boundary of the new state. This was agreed to. On the question as to when the compromise was abandoned, whether before or at the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill in 1854, parties and sections have been divided. When Missouri's constitution was laid before Congress it was found that it contained clauses excluding free negroes from the state. The House therefore refused to admit Missouri. Clay effected a further compromise whereby Missouri agreed not to deprive of his rights any citizen of another state.

Missouri Compromise, discussed, 2457, 2491, 2878.

Missouria Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Missouria Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mitteleuropa.—This term, first coming into general European public usage in 1904, describes those political and economic ambitions of Germany bound up in a German domination of Central Europe. The German expounders of the Mitteleuropa (Central Europe) ambition based their arguments on the previous recent existence of three great national world-influences — namely, the British, the Yankee (to use the nomenclature of such expounders), and the Slavic, or Russian. They claimed that the day of independent and small nationalities was past, but that the world was not yet ready for the union of all the nations of world into one federation, so that the next step in international development was inevitably the union of certain nations of similar stock and purposes into a large national confederation. A glance at the map will show how the political union of Germany and Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria and Turkey created a broad belt of German influence throughout central Europe, and the aim of the German political offensive, both before and after the outbreak of the World War, was to add to that belt by strengthening German influence in the Balkans and to weaken Russian influence in southern Europe, while every student of that war will recognize the military strength inherent in Germany's homogeneous position in the geographical heart of Europe.

Mob Violence (see also Lynchings)—
Claims of British subjects for damages sustained by, in Colorado, 6866.
Consequences of, 7055.
Deplored, 8391, 8556.
Italian subjects killed by, reparation for, 6731.
Opinions on, 7030.

Mobile, Alabama; population (est.), 60,000.
Achievements of Federal forces in harbor of, and orders respecting celebration of, 3439.
Collection district of, established, 357.
Object of, misunderstood by Spain, 358.

Mobile and Dauphin Island Railroad and Harbor Co., act regarding grant of right to, to construct trestle between Cedar Point and Dauphin Island, returned, 5784.

Mobile Bay (Ala.), Battle of.—Aug. 5, 1864, Rear-Admiral Farragut, lashed to the rigging of the flagship *Hartford,* passed the forts and obstructions at the entrance to Mobile Bay and captured the Confederate ram *Tennessee.* Mobile Bay was defended by Fort Gaines, on the eastern end of Dauphin Island, Fort Morgan, on the western extremity of Mobile Point, east of the channel, and Fort Powell, situated on a small island west of Dauphin. Forts Gaines and Morgan commanded the main channel, the former mounting 21 guns and the latter 48.

In the bay were the iron-clad ram *Tennessee* and the gunboats *Gaines, Morgan,* and *Selma* under the command of Admiral Buchanan. The *Tennessee* was built on the plan of the *Merrimac.* Her armament consisted of 6 rifles—2 pivots of 7 1-8 inches bore and 4 six-inch broadsides. Obstructions and defense of all kinds had been placed around the harbor and 30 torpedoes were strung across the channel. Farragut's fleet consisted of 14 wooden ships and 4 monitors. Gen. Gordon Granger had landed 4,000 Federal troops on Dauphin Island, in the rear of Fort Gaines, to cooperate with the fleet. The fleet got under way early in the morning and before 7 o'clock the engagement became general. The monitor *Tecumseh* fired the first shot, and shortly afterward struck a torpedo and sunk, with her commander, Capt. Craven, and most of her crew. Within an hour the other vessels had passed the forts and met the gunboats and ram inside the harbor. After a severe contest the *Tennessee* surrendered at 10 o'clock. Farragut's loss was 165 killed and drowned (113 of whom went down on board the *Tecumseh*) and 170 wounded. The Confederate loss was 8 or 10 killed and wounded and 170 surrendered. Of the other three Confederate vessels, the *Morgan* escaped up the bay, the *Gaines* was disabled, and the *Selma* was captured with her crew of 90 officers and men.

The night after the battle Fort Powell was abandoned and blown up. Next day Fort Gaines was shelled by the *Chickasaw* and surrendered with 800 prisoners. Granger's troops were transferred to the rear of Fort Morgan. Aug. 22 it was bombarded and on the 23d it surrendered. With the defenses of Mobile there were taken 104 guns and 1,464 men. Operations against the city of Mobile were begun March 20, 1865. Two forts protected the city after the passage into the harbor had been made. Arril 4 these were bombarded. Four days later another bombardment was begun, followed in the evening by an assault. The outer works were carried during the night and preparations made to complete the con-

quest next day, but at 1 o'clock on the morning of April 9 the garrison surrendered.

Mobile Point, Ala., fortifications at, recommended, 691.
Referred to, 695.

Mobile River:
Commerce passing through, obstructed by arbitrary duties and vexatious researches; armed resistance authorized, 372.

Modoc Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Modus Vivendi.—Literally, a mode of living. The term is used in diplomatic relations to describe a tentative understanding before a final treaty is concluded; for example see 5581.

Mohammedan Peoples:
Christians and, differences between, along eastern coast of Adriatic Sea referred to, 8836.
Turkey and, discussed, 8840.

Mohawk, The, capture of the *Wildfire* with cargo of slaves, by, 3124.

Mohawk Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mohican Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mo-lal-la-las Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mo-lel Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Molino del Rey (Mexico), Battle of.—When the fortifications of Contreras and Churubusco had been passed, Gen. Scott took up his headquarters at Tacubaya, the bishop's castle, overlooking the western approaches to the City of Mexico, and two and one-half miles distant. The first formidable obstruction was El Molino del Rey ("The King's Mill"). Gen. Worth's division of 3,100 men was detailed for attack upon this and its supporting fortifications, Casa de Mata. These were stone buildings, strongly fortified and ably defended, the Mexicans contesting every foot of the ground. The attack was made on the morning of Sept. 8, 1847. After two hours' hard fighting the works were carried and the army of Santa Anna, 14,000 strong, driven back. The Mexican loss was 2,200 killed and wounded (among the former being Generals Valdarez and Leon) and more than 800 prisoners, including 52 commissioned officers. The American loss was 116 (including 9 officers) killed, 665 (including 49 officers) wounded and 18 missing. The magazine of Casa de Mata was blown up, and Worth returned to Tacubaya.

Monaco.—Monaco is a sovereign Principality on the coast of the Mediterranean, nine miles east of Nice, and is enclosed on three sides by the Alpes Maritimes department of France. The total area is about eight square miles. The last census gave the total population as 23,000. There is a large visiting population.

History.—The Principality has been in the possession of the noble Genoese family of Grimaldi (now Goyon de Matignon-Grimaldi) since the tenth century, with a short break from 1793-1814. In 1814 independence was again secured under the protection of Sardinia. In 1848 the towns of Mentone and Roccabruna were annexed to Sardinia, and in 1860 the protection was transferred to France.

Government.—The Prince was an absolute ruler until the promulgation of a Constitution in 1911. The throne is hereditary in the male line (and afterwards in the female line) of the reigning house by primogeniture, and the daughter of the Heir-Apparent has been recognized as capable of succession failing other issue.

By the Constitution of Jan. 8, 1911, parliamentary representation and complete civil liberty were established. There is a Council of State and a National Council of twenty-one members, elected by indirect vote for four years.

The Communes have each a Municipal Council elected by voters of both sexes. Order is maintained by a local police force of about 150 men. There are no taxes and rents are high, the product of the gaming tables (to which none of the inhabitants are allowed access) providing the cost of public works and police.

Towns.—Capital, Monaco. Population, 2,247. La Condamine (11,082) and Monte Carlo (9,627). The gaming establishment is at the last-named, the concessionaire (a joint stock company) having paid 25,000,000 francs (10,000,000 paid in 1899 and 15,000,000 in 1913) for the concession, and a yearly tribute increasing by 250,000 francs every ten years to a maximum of 2,500,000 per annum in 1937. The concession expires in 1947. At the capital, which occupies the rocky summit of a headland, is the Palace, and an Oceanographical Museum, built by the Prince to accommodate a collection made during thirty years of research.

Monetary Commission:
Appointment of, discussed, 6250.
Report of, 7683.

Monetary Convention of Latin Union, Belgium declares its adhesion to, 4957.

Monetary Union, American. (See International American Monetary Union.)

Money. — The following table shows the amount and kind of money *in circulation* in the United States on November 1, 1923:—

Gold coin and bullion	$ 396,737,411
Gold certificates	500,861,439
Standard silver dollars	58,127,032
Silver certificates	370,787,370
Subsidiary silver	254,791,257
Treasury notes of 1890	1,448,677
United States notes	302,975,873
Federal reserve notes	2,207,229,580
Federal reserve bank notes	15,312,321
National bank notes	726,981,987
Total	$4,835,252,947
Circulation per capita	$43.27

The total stock of money, including United States paper currency in circulation in foreign lands and amounts held by Cuban agencies of the federal reserve banks was $8,794,881,012. The money held by the United States Treasury and federal reserve system was $5,245,663,814.

The following table shows the amount of money in circulation in the United States on November 1 of the years indicated. However, the 1922 and 1923 figures are not comparable with those for preceding years, because in July, 1922, the Treasury Department altered the circulation classification so

as to omit transfers of gold between a federal reserve bank and agent, whereby the circulation had previously been made to appear larger than in reality it was.

1923..	$4,835,252,947	1917..	$4,924,928,348
1922..	4,570,280,827	1916..	4,241,162,189
1921..	4,606,972,070	1914..	3,715,522,306
1920..	5,628,427,732	1912..	3,328,106,400
1919..	5,816,925,779	1910..	3,180,084,499
1918..	5,943,801,171	1908..	3,098,498,021

(See also Currency; Finance; Banks.)

Money, Continental. (See Continental Money.)

Money, Foreign, Value of. (See Foreign Money, Value of.)

Money Order System, discussed, 985, 4639, 4937, 5377, 5756, 5881, 5971.

Money Orders. (See Division of Money Orders.)

Money Orders, International, discussed, 5881, 5971.

Money, Public. (See Revenue, Public.)

Mongolia.—The large territory lying between China proper and Siberia, usually considered a part of China. (See China.) In 1913, it was placed by treaty under the nominal protection of Russia, but with the collapse of the Tsar's Government in Russia in 1917 that treaty became inoperative.

"Monitor" and "Merrimac," battle between, discussed, 3313. (See also Hampton Roads, Battle of, and illustration opposite 3200.)

Monmouth (N. J.), Battle of.—An important conflict of the Revolutionary War, fought during the afternoon of June 28, 1778, at Wenrock Creek, Monmouth County, N. J., Gen. Washington in command of the Americans and Sir Henry Clinton commanding the British. June 18 Clinton left Philadelphia for New York with 11,000 men and a large supply train. Washington pursued him with about 20,000 men. After some preliminary skirmishing, in which the Americans, led by Gen. Charles Lee, second in command, retreated, a general battle occurred. The British were defeated and drew off under cover of night, leaving about 300 dead on the field. The Americans lost 288, less than 70 of whom were killed. An incident of the battle was Washington's severe reprimand of Gen. Charles Lee, which resulted in the latter's final dismissal. Lee had opposed bringing on the battle, but when his advice was rejected in the council of war, asked and obtained the right to lead off in the engagement.

Monocacy (Md.), Battle of.—Gen. Hunter succeeded Gen. Sigel in command of the Federal forces in the Shenandoah Valley in June, 1864. Ben. Early was detached from Lee's army at Richmond and sent to reenforce Gen. Breckinridge, who commanded the Confederate forces in the valley. Hunter retired westward across the mountains, leaving Washington unprotected. Lee thereupon reenforced Early, increasing his strength to 20,000, and ordered him to threaten Washington, in the hope of compelling Grant to withdraw some of the troops before Richmond and Petersburg. The Sixth Corps, under Wright, was sent to defend Washington, with the Nineteenth Corps, which arrived from Hampton Roads. July 6 Early reached Hagerstown and moved a strong column toward Frederick, whereupon Gen. Lew Wallace advanced from Baltimore with a force of 6,000 men. He encountered Early on the 9th at Monocacy, Md., and for eight hours resisted his advance, but was finally defeated, with a loss of 98 killed, 579 wounded, and 1,282 missing. The Confederate loss was stated by Gen. Early at from 600 to 700, including the cavalry.

Monometallism. (See Bimetallism.)

Monopolies (see also Anti-Trust Law and Anti-Trust Legislation):
- Competition and, discussed, 8040.
- Failures more common than successes in attempt to create, 7451.
- Regulation of, in power of Congress, 6712.
- Trusts and evils of, discussed and recommedations concerning, 5358, 5478, 6176, 7131, 7650, 7647, 7914, 8040. (See also Trusts.)
- Water power, 7157.

Monroe, James.—1817-1825.

(FIRST TERM, 1817-1821.)

Eighth Administration—Democratic-Republican.

Vice-President—Daniel D. Tompkins.

Secretary of State—
John Quincy Adams.

Secretary of the Treasury—
William H. Crawford.

Secretary of War—
George Graham.
John C. Calhoun.

Secretary of the Navy—
B. W. Crowninshield (continued).
Smith Thompson.

Attorney-General—
Richard Rush (continued).
William Wirt.

Postmaster-General—
Return J. Meigs.

Nomination.—James Monroe was elected by the Republican party in 1816 and 1820. In the election of 1816 Monroe and Daniel D. Tompkins were the nominees of the Republican Congressional caucus. The Federalists supported Rufus King for President, with no Vice-Presidential candidate.

Vote.—The election took place Nov. 5. The electoral vote, counted Feb. 12, 1817, gave Monroe 183 and King 34; Tompkins received 183 votes for Vice-President, and Howard, 22. Nineteen states took part in this election, Indiana for the first time. King's vote was received from the New England States, where the electors were chosen by the legislatures. Had the people voted there, it is more than probable that they would have expressed approval of the course of the administration in the War of 1812, which the Federalists opposed.

Party Affiliation.—In the Virginia contest over the adoption of the Constitution, Monroe stood beside Henry in opposition, and consented to the ratification only upon the adoption of certain amendments. In the Senate he was a prominent Anti-Federalist and a most determined opponent of the Washington administration. On the publication of Monroe's pamphlet, "A View of the Conduct of the Executive," in 1796, he became the hero of the Anti-Federalists and was made governor of Virginia (1799-1802). Eventually, by his great popularity, he came to fill almost every ex-

alted station to which a politician might aspire.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the Fifteenth Congress (1817-1819) the Senate, of 44 members, was made up of 10 Federalists and 34 Democrats; and the House, of 185 members, was made up of 57 Federalists and 128 Democrats. In the Sixteenth Congress (1819-1821) the Senate, of 46 members, was made up of 10 Federalists and 36 Democrats; and the House, of 187 members, was made up of 42 Federalists and 145 Democrats. In the Seventeenth Congress (1821-1823) the Senate, of 48 members, was made up of 7 Federalists and 41 Democrats; and the House, of 187 members, was made up of 58 Federalists and 129 Democrats. In the Eighteenth Congress (1823-1825) the Senate, of 48 members, was made up of 40 Democrats and 8 Whigs; and the House, of 213 members, was made up of 72 Federalists and 141 Democrats.

(SECOND TERM, 1821-1825.)

Ninth Administration—Democratic-Republican.

Vice-President—Daniel D. Tompkins.

Secretary of State—
John Quincy Adams (continued).

Secretary of the Treasury—
William H. Crawford (continued).

Secretary of War—
John C. Calhoun (continued).

Secretary of the Navy—
Smith Thompson (continued).
John Rogers (President of Navy Committee Sept. 1-Sept. 16, 1823).
Samuel J. Southard.

Attorney-General—
William Wirt (continued).

Postmaster-General—
Return J. Meigs (continued).
John McLean.

SECOND TERM.—In the election of 1820, no candidates were chosen by Congressional caucus, as there was no opposition to Monroe and Tompkins.

Vote.—The election was held Nov. 7. The electoral vote, counted Feb. 14, 1821, gave Monroe all of the votes but one. It is said that the opposing vote was cast by a New Hampshire elector for John Quincy Adams, in order that Washington alone might have the glory of a unanimous election. Twenty-four states took part in this election—Mississippi, Illinois, Alabama, Maine, and Missouri having been recently added to the Union.

Internal Improvements.—On this question the attitude of Monroe was the same as that of Jefferson and Madison. He held that there was no doubt of the desirability and necessity of contributions from the Federal Government to works of this nature; but that the Constitution did not confer upon the Federal Government the right of making them (pages 587 and 759) without an amendment to the Constitution, which he favored. On this ground, while appreciating the need of the work, he vetoed the bill making appropriations to the improvement of the Cumberland road in 1822.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the administration of Monroe stood as follows: Jan. 1, 1818, $103,466,633.83; 1819, $95,529,648.28; 1820, $91,015,566.15; 1821, $89,987,427.66; 1822, $93,546,676.98; 1823, $90,875,877.28; 1824, $90,269,777.77; 1825, $83,788,432.71.

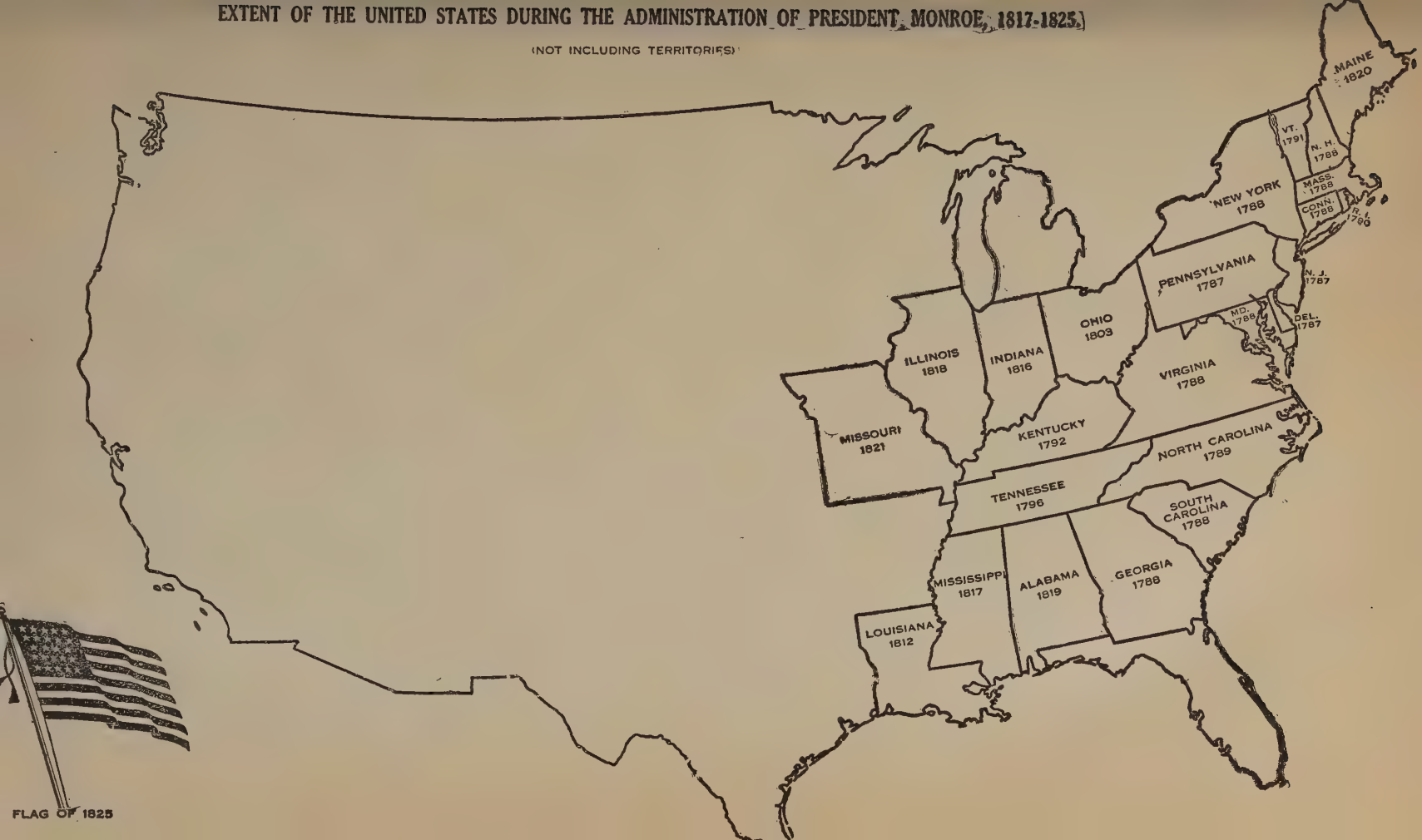
Tariff.—The act of April 20, 1818, "to increase the duties on certain manufactured articles imported into the United States" affected such articles as are manufactured from copper or in which copper is the article of greatest value, silver-plated harness, coach and harness furniture, cut glass, tacks, brads, springs, and brown and white Russia sheeting. Another act, on the same day, increased the duties on iron in bars and bolts, iron in pigs, castings, nails, and alum. An act of March 3, 1819, regulated the duties on certain wines. In his Fifth Annual Message (page 675) President Monroe says: "It may be fairly presumed that under the protection given to domestic manufactures by the existing laws we shall become at no distant period a manufacturing country on an extensive scale. Possessing as we do the raw materials in such vast amount, with a capacity to augment them to an indefinite extent; rising within the country aliment of every kind to an amount far exceeding the demand for home consumption, even in the most unfavorable years, and to be obtained always at a very moderate price; skilled also as our people are in the mechanic arts and in every improvement calculated to lessen the demand for and the price of labor, it is manifest that their success in every branch of domestic industry may and will be carried, under the encouragement given by the present duties, to an extent to meet any demand which under a fair competition may be made upon it." In his Sixth Annual Message (page 760) he says: ". . . it appears that our manufactures, though depressed immediately after the peace, have considerably increased, and are still increasing, under the encouragement given them by the tariff of 1816 and by subsequent laws. Satisfied I am . . . that there are other strong reasons applicable to our situation and relations with other countries which impose on us the obligation to cherish and sustain our manufactures. Satisfied, however, I likewise am that the interest of every part of the Union, even of those most benefited by manufactures, requires that this subject should be touched with the greatest caution, and a critical knowledge of the effect to be produced by the slightest change." Again, in his Seventh Annual Message (page 784) he reiterates his views and adds: ". . . I recommend a review of the tariff for the purpose of affording such additional protection to those articles which we are prepared to manufacture, or which are more immediately connected with the defense and independence of the country."

Foreign Policy.—The foreign policy of the Monroe administration has become famous under the name of the Monroe Doctrine. This attitude toward foreign interference in the Western Hemisphere is contained in two paragraphs in the Seventh Annual Message (page 787) sent to Congress Dec. 2, 1823. Very similar sentiments were expressed by President Madison in a message to Congress in 1811 (page 473); and John Quincy Adams, a member of Monroe's Cabinet, and with whom Monroe consulted, is also credited with originating these views. In its practical application, the policy upholds opposition from the United States against foreign conquest of any part of America.

Regarding the relations of the United States with Europe, President Monroe says in his First Annual Message (page 584): "A strong hope is entertained that by adhering to the maxims of a just, a candid, and friendly policy, we may long preserve

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT MONROE, 1817-1825.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)



amicable relations, with all of the powers of Europe on conditions advantageous and honorable to our country."

Commerce.—The commercial status of the United States during the administration of President Monroe may be shown by statistics for the year 1820, here given: Area, 2,059,043 sq. miles: population, 9,638,453; population per sq. mile, 4.68; total money in circulation, $67,100,000; imports, $74,450,000; exports, $69,691,669; ships built, 51,394 tons; vessels in deep sea trade, 619,048 tons; vessels in coastwise trade, 660,065 tons; post-offices, 4,500.

Slavery.—In his Third Annual Message (page 631) President Monroe, in describing the means taken to put down the slave trade, says: "It is hoped that these vigorous measures, supported by like acts by other nations, will soon terminate a commerce so disgraceful to the civilized world." In a special message (page 632) he recommends that slaves taken from the cargoes of slavers be sent back to Africa and not retained in the United States.

Monroe, James:

Accounts and claims of, discussed by, 846.
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  Admission of Missouri, 664.
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  Bremen, 606.
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Tariff discussed by, 675, 760, 784.
Veto message of, regarding repair of Cumberland road, 711.

Monroe Doctrine.—After the overthrow of Napoleon, France, Russia, Prussia and Austria formed the so-called Holy Alliance in September, 1815, for the suppression of revolutions within each other's dominions and for perpetuating peace. The Spanish colonies in America having revolted, it was rumored that this alliance contemplated their subjugation, although the United States had acknowledged their independence. George Canning, English Secretary of State, proposed that England and America unite to oppose such intervention. On consultation with Jefferson, Madison, John Quincy Adams, and Calhoun, Monroe, in his annual message to Congress in 1823 (page 787), embodied the conclusions of these deliberations in what has since been known as the Monroe Doctrine.

Referring to the threatened intervention of the powers, the message declares: "We owe it, therefore, to candor and to the amicable relations existing between the United States and those powers to declare that we should consider any attempt on their part to extend their system to any portion of this hemisphere as dangerous to our peace and safety. With the existing colonies or dependencies of any European power we have not interfered and shall not interfere. But with the Government who have declared their independence, and maintained it, and whose independence we have, on great consideration and on just principles, acknowledged, we could not view any interposition for the purpose of oppressing them, or controlling in any other manner their destiny, by any European power in any other light than as the manifestation of an unfriendly disposition toward the United States." The promulgation of this doctrine is accredited to Mr. Monroe, but Jan. 3, 1811, the principle was substantially

enunciated by Mr. Madison. In a message to Congress on that date (page 473), while discussing a threat of Great Britain to take possession of a portion of Florida claimed by Spain, he used these words: "I recommend to the consideration of Congress the seasonableness of a declaration that the United States could not see, without serious inquietude, any part of a neighboring territory in which they have in different respects so deep and so just a concern pass from the hands of Spain into those of any other foreign power."

The practical application of this doctrine goes no further than to place the United States in opposition to any possible attempt of any European power to subjugate or take possession in whole or in part of any American country. The principle involved was clearly set forth by Secretary of State Richard Olney in his dispatch of July 20, 1895, on the Venezuelan Boundary dispute. He stated that the Monroe Doctrine "does not establish any general protectorate by the United States over other American states. It does not relieve any American state from its obligations as fixed by international law, nor prevent any European power directly interested from enforcing such obligations or from inflicting merited punishment for the breach of them."

This interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine has been upheld in the most emphatic manner by President Roosevelt in many of his public speeches and his messages to Congress in which he states that any well-merited punishment inflicted by a European power upon an American state does not violate the Monroe Doctrine, provided that such punishment does not involve any occupation, either permanent or temporary, of American territory.

Monroe Doctrine, 473, 787, 829.
Analysis of, 8282.
Armed force necessary to maintain, 6664, 6805, 6925.
A guarantee of peace, 6994.
Assertion of, during Russian negotiations over Northwest coast, 778, 787.
Explained by Secretary Root to Conference of American Republics at Rio Janeiro, 7059.
Facsimile, opposite 619.
Germany assaulted by, 8290.
Hague Peace Conference assents to, 6664.
International police duty by the United States involved by, 6923.
League of Nations provision guaranteeing, 8679.
Mexico and South America ask aid of United States under, 907.
Obligations under, 6996.
Of the world, the basis of perpetual peace, 8203.
Reasserted by President—
Adams, J. Q., 900-1, 904.
Buchanan, 3043, 3177.
Cleveland, 6064, 6087.
Grant, 4015, 4054, 4083.
Polk, 2248, 2390, 2432.
Roosevelt, 6664, 6666, 6996.
Taft, 7415, 7772.
Tyler, 2065.
Wilson, 8103.
Reassertion of, need of, vanishing, 7415.
Referred to, 907.
Santo Domingo's status under, 6997.
South American misunderstanding of, 7058.
Territorial aggression by U. S. not covered by, 6995.

Montana.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "Mountain State;" motto, "Oro y plata" (Gold and Silver"). It is included between lat. 45° and 49° north and long. 104° and 116° west. It is bounded on the north by British America, on the east by the Dakotas, on the south by Wyoming and Idaho, and on the west by Idaho, and has an area of 146,997 square miles. Gold, silver and copper are extensively mined and stock raising is an important occupation.

Montana was first entered in 1743 by the Chevalier de la Verendrye who discovered the Rocky Mountains, but no attempt was made at a settlement. Montana formed part of the Louisiana Purchase, and the greater part of it was included in the Nebraska Territory. Montana Territory was organized in 1864 and admitted as a State in 1889.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 26,214, comprising 13,545,603 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $347,828,770. The value of domestic animals, poultry, etc., was $85,663,187, including 943,147 cattle, valued at $27,474,122; 315,956 horses, $27,115,764; 4,174 mules, $445,278; 99,261 swine, $858,829; 5,380,746 sheep, $29,028,069.

Figures for the last annual agricultural production were as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Wheat	2,221,000	10,729,000	$25,214,000
Corn	128,000	1,728,000	2,851,000
Potatoes	47,000	2,820,000	4,512,000
Hay	752,000	827,000a	19,021,000
Oats	612,000	6,120,000	5,569,000
Flax	410,000	697,000	3,067,000

a-tons.

There is also a considerable production of flax, and fruit-raising has become increasingly important.

The latest figures give the farm animals as follows:—Sheep, 2,791,000, valued at $28,747,000; horses, 518,000, $31,080,000; cows, 180,000, $14,940,000; other cattle, 936,000, $47,362,000; swine, 160,000, $3,200,000. Montana leads the states in the production of wool, the last annual wool clip being 17,751,000 pounds.

Montana also is one of the leading states in mineral production, especially copper. In a recent year more than 350,000,000 pounds of copper were produced, 17,000,000 pounds of lead, 16,500,000 fine ounces of silver, 220,000 fine ounces of gold, and $31,000,000 worth of zinc. About 4,275,000 tons of coal are mined every year.

In 1910, the population was 376,053. In 1920 the figure was 547,593. Of the population in 1910, less than 2,000 were negroes and the foreign-born numbered 91,644.

Latest educational statistics show 112,525 children in the public elementary schools and 10,164 pupils in the public high schools. There were 712 male and 4,451 female teachers.

Montana:
Act—
Erecting Territory of, into surveying district, etc., vetoed, 3624.
Granting right of way to railroads through Indian reservations in, vetoed, 5057.
Admission of, into Union, proclaimed, 5459.
Discussed, 5485.
Lands in—
Opened to settlement by proclamation, 5727.
Set apart as public reservation by proclamation, 6213, 6222, 6227.
Partial organization of, referred to, 3451.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamation against, 5932.

Montauk Point, Long Island, lands lying on, referred to, 139.

Montenegro.—Montenegro is situated in the northwest of the Balkan Peninsula, between 42° 5′-43° 35′ N. lat. and 18° 30′-20° 50′ E. long. The kingdom is bounded on the northeast by Servia, on the southeast and east by Albania, and on the north and west by the districts of Jugo-Slavia known as Bosnia and Herzegovina, and by Dalmatia. In 1919, after the World War, Montenegro was incorporated with Servia and with South Slavic sections of the former empire of Austria-Hungary to form the new nation of Jugo-Slavia, or Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes. (See Jugo-Slavia.) The area of Montenegro was about 5,600 square miles.

Physical Features.—The country is generally mountainous. The valleys between the various ranges contain fertile and well-watered plains, and in the northwest are rich, grassy uplands and finely wooded slopes.

The principal rivers are the Zeta-Moratcha and the Tara-Piva. The Zeta is remarkable for its disappearance in a subterranean passage beneath a mountain range, and its reappearance, several miles further south, on the other side of the range. The western half of Lake Scutari is within the boundaries of Montenegro, and there are many small lakes in the northern mountains.

History.—Montenegro was a province of the old Servian Empire, which came to an end after the battle of Kossovo (1389), since which date the country has always claimed to be independent, a claim which was persistently defended against the Turks for nearly six centuries. In 1878 the Treaty of Berlin recognized the independence of the Principality, and on October 15-28, 1910, the National Skupshtina (or Parliament) celebrated the fiftieth anniversary of the accession of Nicholas I. by proclaiming the country a kingdom. The crown is hereditary in the male line of the house of Petrovitch Niégoch, and the government is that of a constitutional monarchy. In October 1912, Montenegro declared war against Turkey, and conducted a vigorous campaign in the northwestern Albania, in conjunction with Servia, Bulgaria and Greece; the second war of 1913 left her recent acquisitions unchanged. (See Balkan Wars.)

Montenegro is closely connected with Servia by race, language, political aspirations and economic situation; and when Austria-Hungary declared war on Servia in 1914, Montenegro at once threw in her lot with Servia. (See World War.) Montenegro was occupied by the forces of the Central Powers as part of their occupation of Servia in the winter of 1915-6, and remained occupied until the end of hostilities.

Ethnography.—The bulk of the population (which is about 500,000) is of a Serbo-Croatian branch of the Slavonic race, with Albanians and nomadic gypsies in the acquired region. The Montenegrin language is Serbo-Croatian, with adopted words of Turkish and Italian.

Production and Industry.—Agriculture is generally conducted by primitive methods, the principal crops being maize, tobacco, oats, potatoes, barley and buckwheat. There is much vine-growing and cattle-raising. Much of the country is covered by forests, but there is little cutting of timber because of the lack of transportation facilities. The chief mineral found is coal.

The latest figures before the World War showed imports of $1,700,000 and exports of $500,000.

Army.—All able-bodied Montenegrins between the ages of 18 and 62 (except Mohammedan subjects, who pay a fine in lieu of service) are liable for service in the National Militia, which possesses a permanent staff of trained officers. The war effective is about 30,000 of all ranks, and it is estimated that 20,000 well-armed troops could be mobilized within forty-eight hours. There is no cavalry, owing to the nature of the country.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory and free, and there are about 120 primary schools with 10,000 pupils. The government also supports itinerant lecturers who instruct the peasants in agriculture and veterinary science, etc. There is no University.

The capital is Cettinje.

The exports include cattle, castradina, cheese, raw hides, tobacco, and wool, the imports being mainly manufactured articles and arms and ammunition. The import duties are heavy.

Montenegro:
Establishment of kingdom of, 7496.
Evacuation and restoration of, essential, 8424.

Monterey (Mexico), Battle of.—The Mexican army under Arista, driven across the Rio Grande, took refuge in Matamoras. Taylor receiving reenforcements, demanded the surrender of that city. Arista, unable to hold the place, abandoned it and retreated to Monterey, 180 miles from the Rio Grande and 700 miles from the City of Mexico. Aug. 18, 1846, Taylor, with a force of 6,600 men, began the long march toward Monterey, on the way to the enemy's capital, having established a depot for supplies at Camargo, at the head of steam navigation of the Rio Grande. Sept. 19 the American army encamped in sight of Monterey, in the beautiful valley of San Juan, almost encircled by the Sierra Madre Mountains. The city is the capital of the Province of Nuevo Leon and the seat of the Catholic bishop of the diocese. It was strongly fortified and garrisoned by 10,000 men, mostly regulars, under Gen. Ampudia. The attack was begun by the Americans on Sept. 21 and on the following morning the bishop's palace was taken by assault. The city was then forced, the

Mexicans stubbornly retreating from square to square. The fighting continued during the 22d and 23d, and on the morning of the 24th of September an armistice was agreed upon. Gen. Ampudia surrendered the place and was allowed to retire with his army. The American loss was slight.

Monterey, Mexico, battle of, referred to, 2342.

Montessori System.—A system of educating children, named after its founder, Maria Montessori. Doctor Montessori was born in Italy in 1870, and was the first woman to graduate from the University of Rome as a doctor of medicine (1894). She was appointed assistant in the psychiatric clinic of the University, and in that capacity became especially interested in the study of feeble-minded children. On this subject she lectured extensively, and in 1898-9 applied her theories concerning their education to a school for them which was under her direction. In 1907 came the opportunity to apply her method of teaching to normal children in a school established in connection with the erection of model tenements in Rome, and it was in this that her name became famous in the realm of international pedagogy. She resigned the active direction of these schools in 1911, in order to pursue her investigations and experiments.

The exact value of the Montessori System is still a matter of dispute. It seems evident that it is less a departure from educational theory as exemplified by Pestalozzi and Froebel than a more adequate vehicle for the expression of the newer educational theory of individual development. The keynote of the system is its belief that the present methods of teaching superimpose the individuality of the teacher upon the child, and that the child must be aided in every possible manner to unfold its own nature. Accordingly, there is in the Montessori schools practically no school furniture, and the child is allowed to learn by experimenting freely with the apparatus designed for it.

A second principle of the system is the development of the child by means of its muscles and senses. These are developed largely for themselves, and the child is then allowed to use this training and development in the specific problems of the formal studies, such as arithmetic and spelling. All the apparatus which the child uses is designed for muscle and sense training, although many educators criticize the system for keeping the apparatus rigid, instead of allowing the child to develop its own. Other principles of the system are generally in accord with this principle of freedom for the individual development for the child, instead of its subjection to a formal discipline and curriculum.

In 1911, the establishment of Montessori schools was made compulsory in Switzerland; but in other countries, including the United States, Montessori schools are conducted by private agencies, although several municipalities are experimenting with them.

Montgomery, Ala., government of Confederate States first located at, 3225.

Transferred to Richmond, Va., 3225.

Montijo, The, seizure and detention of, by United States of Colombia, 4289.

Claims arising out of, paid, 4358.

Montreal (Canada), Capture and Loss of.—After the taking of Ticonderoga and Crown Point, Ethan Allen, Philip Schuyler, Benedict Arnold, and other Americans were anxious to invade Canada and secure the cooperation of the Canadians with the colonists. In June, 1775, the Continental Congress gave Gen. Schuyler discretionary power to proceed against Montreal. He sent Gen. Montgomery with 3,000 men down Lake Champlain. Gen. Carleton, with 500 British, was forced to surrender on the 13th of November. Eleven vessels also fell into Montgomery's hands. Carleton escaped to Quebec. Benedict Arnold, with 1,200 men, had been ordered to proceed by way of the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers and cooperate with Montgomery before Quebec. The expedition to the latter city proved disastrous. Three brigades of infantry, besides artillery, stores, and ammunition, having arrived from England, the Americans were forced to retire to Lake Champlain. (See also Quebec (Canada), Battle of.)

Monuments. (See Statues and Monuments.)

Mooney Case, international significance of, 8635, 8636.

Morality in Business discussed, 7197. (See also Business.)

Morey Letter, The.—A letter published in 1880 during the Presidential campaign, addressed to H. L. Morey, and alleged to have been signed by James A. Garfield, advocating the use of Chinese cheap labor in the United States. The letter was a crude forgery, and Morey a fictitious name.

Morgan's Raid.—In the summer of 1863 the Confederate General Buckner was in East Tennessee, near the borders of Kentucky, preparing for an expedition against Louisville. Gen. John H. Morgan was sent ahead with 2,460 cavalry to pave the way. He crossed the Cumberland River, and having been joined by about 1,000 Kentuckians, passed over the Ohio River into Indiana. The advance of Rosecrans's army prevented Buckner from joining him. Morgan rode through southern Indiana toward Cincinnati, burning bridges, tearing up railroads, and fighting home guards. The whole State of Ohio became alarmed, and a strong Union force was soon in pursuit. Others were advancing upon his flanks, and gunboats were patrolling the Ohio River to prevent his recrossing into Kentucky. Passing around Cincinnati, he reached the river at Buffington's Ford July 19. After a severe battle with various installments of Federal troops which had hotly pursued him, about 800 of the command surrendered, but Morgan, with the remainder, proceeded up the river to Belleville. About 300 succeeded in crossing the river here before the arrival of the gunboats. Many were drowned or shot in attempting to cross, and Morgan, with about 200 of his men, retreated farther up the river to New Lisbon, where he was surrounded and forced to surrender. In his raid Morgan traveled about 350 miles through Indiana and Ohio, making sometimes 50 miles a day. The amount of property destroyed scarcely exceeded $50,000. More than 2,000 of his men were killed or captured. Morgan and some of his officers were sent to Columbus and confined in the penitentiary, from which he and six others escaped. Immediately after his escape he planned another raid into the Union lines

in Tennessee, but was surrounded and killed by Union troops under Gen. Gillem, near Greenville, Tenn.

Mormon Church (see also Polygamy):
Commissioners appointed under act in reference to polygamy, etc., referred to, 4678, 4731, 4771, 4801, 4837, 4946.
Manifesto of president of, advising Mormons to refrain from contracting marriages forbidden by laws of the land, 5553, 5803, 5942.
Suit instituted by Government for disincorporation of, discussed, 5379.

Mormons.—A religious body more correctly known as the Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-day Saints. They came into prominence largely because of their practice and advocacy of plural marriage, as a principle of their religion. The church was founded by Joseph Smith in 1830, on what is claimed to have been a divine revelation. The Mormons organized in the State of New York, and migrated successively to Ohio, Missouri and Illinois. These removals were caused by religious and political differences, culminating in the murder of Joseph and Hyrum Smith, the Prophet and Patriarch of the Church, at Carthage, Illinois, June 27, 1844. In July, 1847, the Mormons entered Salt Lake Valley, where they founded their first settlement in the Rocky Mountain region. It was then Mexican soil.

Misunderstandings as to acts and motives caused many difficulties between the Mormons and Federal representatives sent to govern them and administer the laws. In 1856-1857, the Mormons were charged with rebellion against the Government, and an army was sent to suppress the alleged uprising. While there had been trouble between individuals representing both sides, no rebellion existed, and the United States Court records, which the Mormons were accused of having destroyed, were found intact and so reported by Honorable Alfred Cumming, Brigham Young's successor as Governor of Utah. Pending the peaceful adjustment of the difficulty, the territorial militia, under orders from Governor Young, opposed the entrance of the Government troops into Salt Lake Valley.

Special laws bearing upon the Mormons and their institutions were enacted by Congress in 1862, 1882 and 1887. These laws forbade polygamy (marrying of plural wives) and unlawful cohabitation (living in such relations), and provided for their punishment by heavy fines and imprisonment; they also disincorporated the church and confiscated its property. The Mormons having submitted to the laws enacted by Congress against polygamous practices, the confiscated property was returned.

In 1898, B. H. Roberts was nominated for Congress by the Democratic Party in the State of Utah, and was elected, but owing to a charge that he was still living in polygamy, he was not allowed to take his seat. In 1903 Reed Smoot, a Republican, was elected to the Senate and an agitation was immediately set on foot to unseat him, on the ground that, being an official of the Mormon Church, he countenanced polygamy. The agitation was unsuccessful. It was shown that the church, since the Manifesto of 1890, officially discountenancing the further practice of polygamy, had not sanctioned any plural marriages. Latest religious statistics indicate that the Mormons have 1,531 religious organizations, with 462,332 members and 6,000 ministers. Of these, more than 400,000 members were within the Latter Day Saints, the other branch of the Mormons being known as the Reorganized Church.

(See illustration opposite 2887.)

Mormons, laws to prevent importation of, recommended, 4947.

Morning Light, The, seizure of the *Jorgen Lorenzen* by, 3271.

Morocco.—Morocco, the largest of the Barbary States, called by the Moors El Maghrib el Aksa, "The Farthest West" (of the Mohammedan world), is situated in the northwest of the African Continent, between 27°-36° N. lat. and 1°-11° 40′ W. long. Included in this area are the Kingdoms of Fez and Morocco, to the north of the Atlas Mountains, and other districts to the south. The northern boundary is the Mediterranean, and the western coast is washed by the Atlantic. The eastern boundary with Algeria has been settled by treaty with France, and meets the southern boundary at the 30th parallel of north latitude, but the remaining southern boundary is indeterminate and irregular to the southwest, where it descends to 26° N. lat. on the Atlantic coast, an approximate area of 231,500 square miles.

Physical Features.—Morocco is traversed from the Atlantic coast in the southwest to the Algerian frontier in the northeast by five parallel ranges, known generally as the Atlas Mountains. Between the various ranges lie well-watered and fertile plains, the lower slopes of the northern flanks of the mountains being well-wooded, while the southern slopes are exposed to the dry winds of the desert and are generally arid and desolate.

Along the Mediterranean coast the Rif Mountains overlook the sea from Melilla to Ceuta. The Bay of Tangier contains the best harbor in Morocco. The most northerly point of Morocco is the peninsula of Ceuta, which is separated from the continent of Europe by the narrow Strait of Gibraltar. The Jebel Musa dominates the promontory, and with the rocky eminence of Gibraltar was known to the ancients as The Pillars of Hercules, the western gateway of the Mediterranean.

The climate is generally good and undoubtedly healthy, especially on the Atlantic coast, the country being sheltered by the Atlas Mountains from the hot winds of the Sahara. The Mediterranean coast is drier and less temperate, but not unhealthy, while the plains of the interior are intensely hot.

History.—From the end of the eighth century A. D. until the year 1912 Morocco was ruled by a despotic Amir or Sultan of various dynasties, that of Filali having reigned since 1649. The imperial umbrella (the symbol of sovereignty) was passed on by nomination, and the rule was arbitrary and unchecked by any civil limits. The country was subject to European intervention at many periods, and during the closing years of the nineteenth century the dominant power in the country was France, whose Algerian territory formed the eastern boundary. By the Anglo-French Convention of 1904 Great Britain had recognized the predominance of French rights, but in 1905 Germany exhibited an interest in Moroc-

can affairs, and at the Algeciras Conference in January, 1906, an attempt was made by the Powers to define the various interests, and to establish order in the country by means of an organized police force. Between 1906 and 1911 there were frequent conflicts between French troops and Moroccan tribesmen, and in 1908 internal dissensions led to the defeat and deposition of the Sultan Abd el Aziz IV. by his brother Hafid, who eventually triumphed and was recognized by the Powers in 1909. In 1911 a German gunboat anchored in the harbor of Agadir on the Atlantic coast, and after protracted negotiations Germany abandoned this port, and relinquished all claims to the country under a Franco-German treaty, which secured compensation from France in the Congo region. In 1912 Sultan Hafid abdicated and accepted a pension from France, and was succeeded by his brother Moulai Yusef.

Government.—France is the paramount power in Morocco, and the Government of the country is administered by the French Republic, which is recognized as the "protecting power." In addition to France, the kingdom of Spain has had relations with Morocco for many centuries. Ceuta has been a Spanish possession since the close of the sixteenth century, and forms part of the administrative province of Cadiz, and there are several presidios along the Mediterranean (or Rif) coast, while the adjacent Alhucema and Zaffarin islands are Spanish possessions. The Franco-Spanish treaty of Nov. 27, 1912, regulates the protectorate of Spain over a portion of Morocco, and lays down the boundaries, Tangier (with a small district adjacent) being declared international by treaty between Great Britain, France and Spain.

Ethnography.—There are five distinct racial elements in the population (which numbers between four million and six million), of which three are native, viz.: Berbers, Arabs and Jews, the fourth element are Negroes from the Sudan, the fifth being various colonies of Europeans settled at the ports. The Berbers are the aboriginal inhabitants of the mountainous districts. The Arabs were introduced in the eleventh and twelfth centuries A. D., and inhabit the plains. Many of the inhabitants of the plains are of mixed Berber-Arab descent, and constitute the race known to Europeans as Moors. The Negroes have been imported as slaves from the western Sudan, and there are many mulattoes.

With the exception of the Jews, who number about 300,000, and the 25,000 Europeans, the 65,000 French troops in the French zone, the population is entirely Mohammedan. The language of the country is Arabic.

The latest estimate of the population is 5,750,000.

Production and Industry.—Parts of the cultivable land are entirely neglected and the area under crops is cultivated in the most primitive manner. Among the agricultural products are wheat, barley, maize, beans, peas, birdseed, linseed, coriander, cummin, fenugreek, esparto and hemp, and many fruits, principally figs, almonds, pomegranates, lemons, olives, oranges and dates, the latter growing also on the southern slopes and in the plains. The live stock includes large quantities of horses, cattle, sheep and goats, while the poultry and egg industry is of increasing importance.

Antimony, iron, coal, copper, lead and tin (the last three in considerable quantities) are known to exist, and gold and silver are also found. Rock salt and brine are exported in large quantities. The iron mines of the Atlas are of great antiquity, but have long been abandoned.

The leather industry, which was once of great importance, is greatly reduced, and the native manufactures of woolens, silks and embroideries suffer from the competition of inferior but cheaper articles from Europe. Carpets and rugs are still produced for export and slippers and shawls for the home market and the Levant.

The total foreign debt for loans, chiefly from France, amounts to about $80,000,000.

During the last year for which figures are available, the imports into Morocco amounted to $73,000,000 and the exports from Morocco, to $26,000,000. About half of the imports came from France and Algeria, and most of the remainder from Spain and from the United Kingdom, Malta and Gibraltar. Most of the exports went to France and Algeria.

The chief imports, in order of value, are as follows:—Sugar; Cottons; Wines and Spirits; Machinery and Hardware; Tea; Vegetables and Fruit; Flour and Semolina; Groceries and Provisions; Vegetable Oils.

The chief exports, in order of value, are as follows:—Barley; Eggs; Wool; Beans; Maize; Wheat; Linseed.

During the last calendar year, the United States exported to Morocco goods valued at $1,412,224 and imported from Morocco goods valued at $718,000.

During the last year for which figures are available, 4,440 vessels, of 2,113,000 tons, visited Moroccan ports. More than half of the tonnage was French, although much was Spanish. The foreign Governments maintain a postal service through much of Morocco, and there are more than 2,000 miles of telegraph, with more than 6,000 miles of wire, including the military lines. More than 550 miles of railway are open, with twice as much under construction or survey. The French also have built many roads.

Cities.—The principal harbors are Tetuan, Tangier, El Araish, Rabat, Casablanca, Mazagan, Saffi, Mehedia, and Mogador. Capital, Fez. Population, about 120,000.

Morocco:
Algeciras convention urged upon Congress, 7062.
Consuls of United States in, 169.
Presents given to. (See Consuls.)
Differences with United States, communication from Commodore Morgan relative to adjustment of, referred to, 2063.
Emperor of—
Death of, 169.
Lion and horses presented to the United States by, 1256.
Legation of United States in, premises for, presented by Sultan of, 4823, 4923.
Moors in, conference regarding protection for, 4561.
Relations with, 2081.
Situation in, 7783.
Treaty regarding exercise of right of protection in, 4580.
Treaty with, transmitted and discussed, 90, 140, 174, 178, 181, 363,

1458, 1484, 1498, 3582, 7062.
Expiration of first year at hand, 1318.
Vessels of United States seized or interfered with by, 352, 353.

Morocco, Treaties with.—The treaty of peace and friendship of 1787 was superseded by that of 1836. It provided for neutrality of the one power if the other should be at war with a third; and that the subjects of the one power taken in such war on prize vessels should be at once set free and their effects restored to them. Examination and search of vessels of the contracting parties are to be conducted with all possible ease and freedom from embarrassment. Humane treatment of vessels in distress and shipwrecked crews is provided for. If a vessel of an enemy of one of the contracting powers be in a port of the other power at the same time that a vessel of the contracting power leaves the port, the vessel of the enemy shall be detained there for a period of twenty-four hours after the departure of the former.

Freedom of commercial intercourse is extended to vessels and individuals in the dominions of the two nations. Disputes are to be settled by consular officers. Justice is to be impartially dispensed toward the peoples of both nations. The consul may act as executor of estates. The rights, privileges, and powers of consuls are defined as in consular conventions.

The treaty of 1865 provided for the support and maintenance of the lighthouse at Cape Spartel by the United States and such powers of Europe as were contracting parties. The lighthouse was built by the Sultan of Morocco, who, having no navy or merchant marine, gave the support of the light into the hands of the contracting powers without encroachment or loss of rights therein. The Sultan agreed to furnish a guard for the defence of the light, while all other expenses were to be borne by the powers.

The convention as to protection of 1880 was entered into with the United States and several of the powers of Europe, to establish protection on a uniform basis to the representatives of the several nations in Morocco.

Moros, referred to, 6690, 6692, 6720.

Morris, The, referred to, 1030, 2116, 2173, 2206.

Mosquito Indian Strip, Nicaragua:
American citizens in—
Murdered, 5960.
Rights, etc., of, inquired into, 5991.
British troops landed at Bluefields, referred to, 5908.
Claims of Great Britain upon Nicaragua respecting treatment of citizens in, and action of United States, 6066.
Correspondence regarding, 2569.
Insurrection in, and treatment of American citizens, discussed, 5960, 6365, 6433.
Jurisdictional questions regarding, discussed, 5959, 6066.

Mosquito Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Mosquitos, Kingdom of. (See Mosquito Indian Strip.)

Mother's Day, flags to be displayed on, 7941.

Mothers' Pensions.—In connection with country-wide discussion of the education and best development of the child have come within the past few years many definite steps for preserving to the child the benefits gained only from proper home influences. In the belief that separation of mother and child necessarily works to the detriment of the child's development, many states have enacted legislation that will enable mothers too poor to maintain their children to keep them at home, instead of placing them in various institutions. This is being done through a pension or allowance system.

The first state laws providing for Mothers' Pensions in the United States date from 1911. By 1920, such laws were in effect in 39 states and in Alaska and Hawaii. The states which did not enjoy such laws were Alabama, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, North Carolina, Rhode Island, South Carolina.

There is a large amount of variation in the laws in force in the various states regarding the pensions given to mothers. Some laws give pensions only to widowed mothers; others include divorced mothers; others include deserted mothers; others include mothers whose husbands are in prisons or in asylums or are otherwise incapacitated. In three states, mothers receive financial aid before child-birth and in some states the mothers of illegitimate children come under the scope of the law.

The age-limit to which an allowance is paid varies from 13 to 17 years. The greatest number of states place the maximum at 16. The amounts of the allowances also vary greatly. The lowest is $2.00 per week per child; the highest is $25 per month for one child and $15 for each additional child. Social workers and sociologists generally maintain that in many states, especially in view of the increased cost of living, the amount of the allowance is too low to maintain a decent standard of living.

Motion Pictures. (See Moving Pictures.)

Mound Builders.—A prehistoric race of Americans who inhabited the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers. They are so named because the only traces of their existence are found in mounds of earth formed in regular geometrical shapes containing ashes, stone and bronze implements and weapons. Some of these mounds seem to have been simply places of sepulture, while others show unmistakable evidences of having been erected as fortifications. The race probably became extinct only a few generations before the discovery of America, as De Soto found tribes of Southern Indians who built mounds and possessed other characteristics of the extinct race. They belonged distinctly to the Indian race and to the Stone Age. The mounds range from 2 or 3 feet in height to 132 feet high and 188 feet long, the latter being the dimensions of one at Marietta, Ohio, while one at Grave Creek, W. Va., measures 70 feet in height and 900 feet in circumference.

Mount McGregor Cottage. (See illustration opposite 4691.)

Mount Rainier Forest Reserve, Wash., establishment of, by proclamation, 6209.

Mount Rainier National Park. (See Parks, National.)

Mount Vernon.—The Washington estate originated in 1674 with the grant by Lord Culpeper to John Washington and Nicholas Spencer of 5,000 acres of land on the west bank of the Potomac River, beginning about four miles south of Jones' Point (the original southwest boundary of the District of Columbia). One-half of this estate was inherited by Lawrence Washington, who, in 1743, built his residence there, and named the place Mount Vernon, in honor of the British admiral under whom he had served. At his death, in 1752, title to the property passed to his half brother, George Washington.

During his residence of more than half a century on the estate George Washington increased his holdings to about 7,600 acres, which he divided into five main farms, the survey of which, by the General himself, is preserved in the Library of Congress. He also turned his attention to the enlargement of the mansion and adornment of the grounds. The plans and specifications of the mansion house as it stands today were his personal work, and the neatness and simple beauty so admirably adjusted to harmonize with the landscape surroundings proclaim its architect a person of refined taste and artistic judgment.

Washington described his home as being situated in a high, healthy country; in a latitude between the extremes of heat and cold; on one of the finest rivers of the world—a river well stocked with various kinds of fish at all seasons of the year. "It is more than possible," says a recent writer, "that without Mount Vernon Washington himself might not have been precisely what he was. That unique balance of power that differentiates him from all other men of all times might not have existed but for the conditions in which it had its growth and ultimate maturity. In all the years of his activity, so fateful to mankind, beginning, as it were, with his very boyhood, who may tell what part in the mighty result was due to the simplicity, quietude and dignity of this country place, so persuasive of reflection and so inspiring to high thought, seated as it is on the bluff overlooking the broad and tranquil river with its ever-changing face and its never-changing flow!"

In his will Washington bequeathed the estate to his nephew, Judge Bushrod Washington, of the United States Supreme Court. Later it passed to Bushrod's nephew, John Augustine Washington, whose son, John Augustine, Jr., upon coming into possession through inheritance, offered to sell the entire estate to the nation. The proposition was not accepted, but a part of the property, including the mansion, was purchased by the Mount Vernon Ladies' Association. (See article following.) Several attempts have later been made to have Congress purchase the entire estate and preserve it as a national memorial park. Since the purchase made by the ladies' association the remainder of the estate has been divided and sub-divided and come into the possession of various owners. Many beautiful suburban homes now adorn the spot and the National Government has contributed largely toward its attractiveness by constructing a fine automobile boulevard connecting it with Washington city, which is usually thronged by tourists.

Mount Vernon Ladies' Association.—A national organization of public spirited American women formed to purchase and maintain as a patriotic shrine the home of George Washington at Mount Vernon, Va. Miss Ann Pamela Cunningham, of South Carolina, founded the society in 1856 and became its first Regent. Edward Everett, of Massachusetts, through his lectures and writings, contributed $70,000, and with other funds aggregating $200,000 raised by popular subscription 200 of the nearly 8,000 acres, including the house owned by Washington, were purchased and turned over to the ladies' association. Their object is to preserve and carry out the landscape features of the estate, care for the house and perpetuate Washington's idea of a model American home. It is stated that 125,000 Americans visit the spot each year.

A council of the association is held annually in Mount Vernon, presided over by the Regent. Thirty-two States are represented by Vice Regents.

Mountain Meadow (Utah) Massacre.—Efforts of the Federal Government to enforce the laws against polygamy incited the Mormons to bitter hatred of all opposed to their religion. Brigham Young made threats of turning the Indians loose upon westbound immigrants unless what he considered the Mormons' rights were respected. Sept. 7, 1857, about 30 miles southwest of Cedar City, a body of about 120 non-Mormon immigrants were attacked by Indians and Mormons under the leadership of John D. Lee, and after a siege of four days were induced to surrender under promise of protection, but all were massacred except 17 children under 7 years of age.

Mountain Meadow Massacre, referred to, 3123.

Moving Pictures.—This rapidly developed industry consists of the representation upon a screen magnified and illuminated, of a series of photographs in such rapid succession that the impression of one is not effaced from the eye until it is succeeded by another view of the same object in another position, taken at an interval no longer separated from its predecessor than the duration of an impression upon the retina of the eye. The illusion of motion is caused by the fact that an impression made upon the eye lasts for a short time after the object causing it has disappeared. This short time is known as the period of persistence of vision, and its duration varies from one-tenth to one-fiftieth of a second. Pictures, therefore, to convey the illusion of motion must follow each other on the retina at a speed of from ten to fifty per second. Actual experience has shown that a rate of sixteen to twenty per second obviates the flicker caused by a slower rate and the indistinctness due to greater speed of rotation.

Early forms of the illusion were the stroboscope and zoetrope, popular toys, wherein a series of pictures were viewed through slits cut in discs or cylinders which were caused to revolve rapidly between the eye and the pictures. These toys grew out of the discoveries of M. Plateau, a blind scientist, of Ghent, Belgium, in 1833. Eadweard Muybridge, in 1877, obtained pictures of running horses, springing animals and climbing men by setting a number of

cameras in a row and arranging their shutters to be opened and closed automatically as the objects passed before them. The results of Muybridge's experiments were published in folio form by the University of Pennsylvania. The discovery of instantaneous photography by the German, Auschuetz, the invention of the dry plate process in 1878, and the celluloid roll film, first used by Marey in 1888, combined to bring motion pictures nearer to perfection. Then came the snap-shot camera of Friese-Greene and Evans, which took ten pictures a second. Edison produced sensitized films of celluloid in 1893 and devised the sprocket wheel to carry them across the focal plane of the camera and expose them intermittently, the images being thus successively projected through an object lens upon a distant screen. The Brothers Lumière, of Lyons, France, in 1895, brought out a machine which took the pictures and projected them as well. Some idea of development of the industry may be gained from the fact that the first patent for a motion picture machine was granted Nov. 3, 1857, and by Feb. 17, 1914, there were 479.

Many inventors have essayed machines for connecting moving picture projectors with talking machines, and though some of these have been exhibited, the results have been unsatisfactory because perfect synchronism and the reproduction of the perfect tones of the voice in their original quality and sufficiently loud to be heard in every part of a theatre are difficult to obtain.

The first moving pictures were mere reproductions from scenes of nature, but soon the public became weary of these, and it hence occurred to the early producers to tell stories by means of the film. Naturally enough, the first attempts in this field were comedies, of a crude and superficial nature; and the traditions of the regular stage were followed as faithfully as possible. The art of motion picture acting in these early days was still the art of the old pantomimes, although the actors and producers were aided by the possibility of inserting explanatory legends on the screen as the play developed, to this extent overcoming one of the pantomime difficulties.

It was not until the close of the first decade and the beginning of the second decade of the twentieth century that motion pictures developed a technique of their own. To-day, the producers and actors have evolved an art of their own, irrespective of the regular stage, and by no means inferior to it. Indeed, the motion picture art is well termed to-day the art of the silent drama, and its proponents hail it as an art more difficult and even more significant than the regular dramatic art.

To judge from the calibre of the plays produced upon the regular stage since it has been subject to the competition of the "movies," the latter have had a most beneficial effect upon the spoken and acted drama.

Certainly, aside from artistic considerations, the motion picture has had a social significance which the regular stage could not have. Because of the cheapness of the entertainment provided, much of the problem of wholesome recreation for the great masses of the population was solved. To give only one example of the ramifications of the services rendered by the motion picture film, social workers in immigrant neighborhoods announce that it has provided a new and in some cases the only point of contact between the foreign-born parent and his American child.

Surveys recently made in Washington, D. C., and in other cities indicate that the average daily attendance at moving pictures amounts to one-seventh of the population. Using these figures as a basis, remembering that the rural and sparsely settled districts do not have the same opportunity for attendance as do the urban and more thickly settled districts, it may be said that the average daily attendance in the United States is 12,000,000.

The National Association of the Motion Picture Industry estimates the number of motion picture theatres in the United States as 16,000, with a total seating capacity of 5,400,000—an average of almost 350 seats per theatre. In recent years, the tendency has been toward the construction of larger theatres and the abandonment of many of the smaller theatres, so that the total number of theatres devoted to moving pictures may not have increased.

Reports of the Bureau of Internal Revenue, of the Federal Government, indicate that $750,000,000 is spent annually for admissions to moving picture theatres. This figure would bring the amount spent every day for admission to more than $2,000,000. If the above estimate for the average daily attendance at the "movies" is substantially correct, this would mean that the average price for admission is in the neighborhood of seventeen cents.

More than half of all pictures in the United States are produced in California.

Reports of the Federal Bureau of the Census show that the investment in the production of pictures, including real estate, studios, electrical equipment, wardrobes, etc., is in the neighborhood of $500,000,000. Approximately 20,000 persons are steadily employed in the actual making of the pictures. Moving picture producers estimated the cost of their output for a recent year at $200,000,000, of which $50,000,000 was paid for salaries and wages and $25,000,000 for supplies and materials.

It has been estimated that some 100,000 schools, 45,000 churches and 6,500 factories are, or are planning to be, equipped with motion picture machines.

In a recent year, the company which originated motion picture films for commercial purposes put out more than 800,000,000 linear feet, or more than 150,000 miles, of motion picture films. The imports of films in that year were as follows, in length and value:—Sensitized, but not exposed, 134,118,621 linear feet, $2,443,577; Negatives, 2,121,593 linear feet, $734,920; Positives, 5,253,413 linear feet, $306,986. The exports of films from the United States were as follows:—Not exposed, 53,814,601 linear feet, $1,376,928; Exposed, 154,931,010 linear feet, $7,013,881. In rank of quantity of films, the exports went chiefly to the United Kingdom, Canada, Australia, France and Argentina.

The tax by the Government collected on the leasing of motion picture films in a recent year amounted to $4,381,276.31. As this tax was 5% of the total amount paid for leasing, the latter was indicated as $87,625,526 for the fiscal year.

In a recent year the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures reviewed 1,846 different pictures, totalling 5,784 reels. This agency examines practically all of the recreational films, as distinct from the educational and current events films; so that it is probable that the number of recreational pictures produced annually in this country is in the neighborhood of 2,000.

with an average of about three reels to the picture.

Muck-Raker.—The term was first used by Bunyan in his "Pilgrim's Progress," and came into political use during President Roosevelt's administration, contemptuously characterizing reformers (q. v.), especially writers, who insisted upon stirring up fraudulent and questionable practices among the industrial enterprises of the country, not so much to accomplish improvements as merely to rake up the unpleasant.

Mugwump.—A corruption of the Algonquian Indian word "mugquomp," which signifies a chief, ruler, or a person of importance. After long use in local politics the word came into national use in the Presidential campaign of 1884. The newspapers applied the term to those Republicans who refused to support James G. Blaine, the regular party nominee, and it has since been used to designate any person of independent politics or who is supposed to be lacking in loyalty to his political party.

Mulligan Letters.—A bookkeeper by the name of Mulligan, in the office of Warren Fisher of Boston, wrote certain letters calculated to implicate James G. Blaine in improper transactions with Fisher in connection with the Little Rock and Fort Smith Railroad. These letters were used as a basis for attacks on Blaine in the nominating convention of 1876, and in the convention and campaign of 1884. Blaine's denial and corroborative evidence in connection with the letters fully satisfied his friends of his innocence.

Mumfordville (Ky.), Battle of.—Here on Sept. 17, 1862, the Confederate army under Gen. Bragg attacked the Federals under Gen. J. T. Wilder. The post surrendered to the Confederates, the number of captured being about 4,000.

Munich, Bavaria.—Third International Exhibition of Fine Arts to be held at, 5193.

Municipal Government, District of Columbia should be model of, 6728.

Municipal Ownership.—In its strict sense, the term applies to the ownership by municipalities of public utilities, but it is generally used to describe not only ownership of certain forms of municipal activities, but also management and operation of them, by the municipalities. In the United States, because of the traditional feeling for individualism and private enterprise, and because of its rapid economic development, the movement has not been so pronounced as in Europe, where Germany and Great Britain in particular represent notable achievements in the field of municipal ownership. Nevertheless, as described below, there is a considerable and an increasing amount of municipal ownership in the United States.

In Germany, even before the World War, almost three-fourths of the cities with a population of more than 50,000 owned gas-works. There were more than 3,000 miles of municipal street railways, representing some 150 separate systems. Municipal electric light and power plants were also common and even more prevalent was municipal ownership of abattoirs and stock-yards. German cities in many cases operate other enterprises which in the United States are almost universally left to private hands—such as pawnshops, quarries, restaurants, brickyards, mills, warehouses, bakeries, hotels, canneries, fisheries.

In Great Britain, the majority of electric light and power plants are municipal and about one-half of the gas-works. Most of the street railway systems also are city-owned and -operated. There are also many municipal housing arrangements for the poorer classes. Probably the most notable and extensive example of municipal undertakings in the world is found in Glasgow, Scotland. In Great Britain, and also to a smaller extent in Germany, private profit-making enterprise is limited not only by municipal undertakings but also by the Cooperative Movement (q.v.).

Municipal ownership in the United States is confined almost entirely to such public utilities as water-works, gas and electric light and power plants, ferries and bridges and street railways, excluding such forms of public endeavor as education, libraries, etc., generally admitted to be properly a division of municipal government. Where our public utilities are still in private hands, they are almost universally supervised and directed as to rates by state or district public service utility commissions. Certain cities also conduct enterprises, such as asphalt plants and municipal garages, for the use of the city governments only. These are not included in the figures quoted below.

Of the total value of municipally-owned public utilities in the 227 cities with a population of 30,000 and over in the United States, 71½% represents water-works, 16½% docks, wharves and landings, and 12% electric light and power systems, gas-plants, markets, etc. The total value of the lands, buildings and equipment of such public utilities is placed at $1,761,034,983, of which $1,257,831,733 is represented by the water-systems, $48,314,907 by electric light and power systems, $27,942,985 by markets and public scales, $288,398,567 by docks, wharves and landings, $17,032,977 by cemeteries and crematories, $12,548,535 by public halls, $14,283,060 by subways for pipes and wires, $9,572,487 by street railways, $70,146,451 by toll bridges of New York City and $7,694,000 by Oakland (Cal.) waterfront development.

The annual revenues of the municipal public service enterprises in these cities amounted in a recent year to $127,399,258, of which almost one-half came from cities of over 500,000 population. In this total were included $95,304,064 from water-supply, $10,447,286 from electric light and power, $1,635,107 from gas, $1,885,576 from markets and public scales, $9,822,969 from docks, wharves and landings, $1,479,983 from cemeteries and crematories, $3,875,698 from municipal railways, $1,779,660 from ferries.

All the ten cities with a population of over 500,000 own their own water-systems, ten of the eleven in the 300,000-500,000 class, 38 of the 45 in the 100,000-300,000 class, 50 of the 66 in the 50,000-100,000 class and 47 of 85 in the 30,000-50,000 class. In the first class, Chicago, Cleveland and Los Angeles have municipal electric light and power systems, one city in the second class, two in the third, eight in the fourth and seven in the fifth. The large cities with municipal street-railways are San Francisco, New Orleans, Seattle and Tacoma (Detroit in preparation).

One hundred forty-five, including practically all of the larger cities, of the 227 cities of over 30,000 have municipal markets and public scales. There are muni-

cipal docks, wharves and landings in seven of the ten cities with a population above 500,000, five of the eleven in the 300,000-500,000 class and 56 altogether. (Some of the smaller cities are not located on water.)

There are municipal cemeteries and crematories in three of the ten largest cities, in two of the eleven next largest and 93 altogether. Fifty-nine cities have other forms of municipal ownership of public utilities.

The annual governmental cost for the municipal enterprises in these 227 cities was $66,700,066, of which $46,582,220 was represented by the water-systems, $6,830,078 by electricity plants, $1,436,533 by gas plants, $1,366,926 by markets and scales, $3,366,390 by street railways, $1,399,506 by ferries.

In the course of a year $58,734,400 was expended for more or less permanent improvements, of which $43,280,244 went on water-systems, $3,392,778 on electricity systems. The total funded, floating and special assessment indebtedness incurred by the cities for municipal undertakings at the end of the year was $1,170,192,274, of which $599,512,707 went for water-supply systems, $26,700,532 for electric light and power and gas plants, $199,450,889 for the rapid transit of New York City, $119,862,705 for New York City docks and ferries, $77,133,501 for New York City toll bridges, $35,899,700 for the Boston rapid transit and $18,032,000 for the Cincinnati Southern Railroad.

Munitions, sale of, to belligerents during European War, question of, discussed, 8289.

Munitions Board.—A board created by and under the Council of National Defense (q. v.) to control so far as possible under the existing law the production and distribution of munitions in the United States for the use of both that country and of her allies in the World War.

Munitions of War. (See Arms and Ammunition.)

Munn vs. Illinois.—One of the "elevator cases" decided by the Supreme Court of the United States. In 1872 Munn and another were found guilty of violating an article of the Illinois constitution in regard to grain warehouses. They had failed to take out a license and give bond and were charging higher rates for storage than the law allowed. The offenders were fined, and the supreme court of the State affirmed the action of the criminal court. The case was then appealed to the United States Supreme Court. That body affirmed the judgment on the ground that the act of the Illinois legislature was not repugnant to the Constitution of the United States, and that a State could lawfully determine how a man might use his own property when the good of other citizens was involved.

Munsee Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Murfreesboro (Tenn.), Battle of, fought Dec. 31, 1862, and Jan. 2, 1863, between forces of General Rosecrans and General Bragg. (See Stone River (Tenn.), Battle of.)

Murmansk, Russia, American and Allied troops dispatched to, 8591.

Muscat; seaport on Gulf of Oman:
Presents offered President Van Buren by Imaum of, declined, 1809.
Offered United States, recommendations regarding, 1809, 2169.
Treaty with, 1272, 1457, 1593, 5195.

Muscle Shoals Nitrate Plant.—Muscle Shoals (often spelled "Mussel Shoals"—the correct spelling being still in dispute) are a succession of cascades, among many islands, in a stretch of the Tennessee River, there from half a mile to three miles in width, east of Florence, Alabama. In the Shoals proper, from Muscle Shoals to Bainbridge, the river falls eighty-seven feet in seventeen miles. From Bainbridge to Florence, known as "Little Muscle Shoals," the river falls twenty-three feet in seven miles. Including the approaches to the Shoals, in some forty miles the Tennessee River falls one hundred fifty-five feet.

The Shoals occupy a highly strategic position as a nucleus of industrial energy. They are in the middle of the great cotton belt. They are about two hundred miles from Chattanooga by river, and about that distance from Nashville, Memphis and Birmingham. If the river were made navigable, the centre of the agricultural section of the South and much of the new industrial South would be connected by a river gateway with the agricultural West. Above all, in the vicinity of the Shoals a rock has been discovered in quantity which is the basis for nitrates, invaluable in the manufacture of fertilizer.

Proposals for the development and improvement of the Tennessee River may be traced as far back as 1827, and in 1904 the immense power potentialities of Muscle Shoals were pointed out in a report of the United States Geological Survey, but so far as current interest in the Shoals is concerned, their industrial history dates with 1916. Under the National Defence Act of June 3 of that year, the Government began the construction of a dam (Dam No. 2 or the Wilson Dam) which was designed to make some fifteen miles of the Shoals navigable. By the end of the war, when construction on the dam ceased, the Government had spent about $17,000,000 on it. When finished, it will have a total length of 4,267 feet, of which 2,890 feet is a spillway section and 1,221 feet, a power section. The height above present low water is 95 feet, including crest gates 18 feet high; the width at bottom being about 75 feet, and at top about 27 feet. When completed, it will have more than 1,000,000 cubic yards of masonry in its structure, making it the largest dam in the world after the Assuan Dam on the Nile in Egypt. Dam No. 3, on which the Government did practically no work, is about fifteen miles upstream from Dam No. 2, and is designed to overflow the remaining portions of the rapids and thus improve navigation for sixty-three miles. In a letter from the Secretary of War to the House of Representatives, under date of February 1, 1922, it is estimated that it will cost about $50,000,000 to complete the two dams.

The prime interest of the Government in construction at Muscle Shoals during the war, however, was in plants to make gas for war purposes from nitrates. At Sheffield, Alabama, is United States Nitrate Plant No. 1, constructed by the Government, under agreement with the General Chemical Company, for about $13,000,000. It was designed to produce annually about 22,000 tons of ammonium nitrate, using the direct synthetic ammonia or Haber process of the General Chemical Company. The plant, which has about 19,000 acres within

its site, proved unsuccessful in a test operation.

At Muscle Shoals, Culbert County, Alabama, is United States Nitrate Plant No. 2. It was constructed under contract with the Air Nitrates Corporation for the production of munitions, and cost about $67,500,000, including Waco Quarry. It was built for an estimated annual capacity of 111,000 tons of ammonium nitrate, under the cyanamid process of the American Cyanamid Company. The plant, which was successful in a partial test operation, contains about 2,300 acres within its site. The power plant located on it was leased to the Alabama Power Company.

Waco Quarry is about five miles southeast of Russellville, and embraces about 460 acres. Its crushing plant can produce 2,000 tons of crushed and sized limestone daily.

About ninety miles southeast of Nitrate Plant No. 2, in Walker County, Alabama, is the Government-owned Warrior Steam Plant at Gorgas, Alabama. It was constructed under contract with the Alabama Power Company near a coal mine, with a view to using coal direct from the mine. It has a capacity of 30,000 kilowatts and it furnishes power for the operation of Nitrate Plant No. 2. It cost about $5,000,000.

After the end of the war, there were many suggestions that the work at Muscle Shoals be continued and soon after the Harding Administration assumed office, Secretary of War Weeks announced that he would recommend favorably to Congress any private proposal to develop Muscle Shoals which would give a fair return upon the Government investment there. As a result, in July, 1921, Mr. Henry Ford, the Detroit automobile manufacturer, made a detailed offer regarding the Muscle Shoals development, and in January, 1922, modified the offer to meet certain objections of the Government. The chief points of the offer as modified are as follows:

Mr. Ford will complete Dam No. 2 and construct Dam No. 3, both according to the Government's plans, generating 850,000 horsepower, after which the Government will reimburse him the actual cost of this work. He will lease the dams and power plants for one hundred years at an annual rental equal to 4% of the cost of the work on the dams, the rentals beginning six years after Dam No. 2 is ready to furnish 100,000 horsepower and three years after Dam No. 3 is ready to furnish 80,000 horsepower. During these six-year and three-year periods, he will pay upon the two dams annual rentals of $200,000 and $160,000, respectively. He will maintain the power-houses, the Government keeping the remainder of the dams in repair and condition. As compensation for this upkeep by the Government, Mr. Ford will pay $35,000 annually on Dam No. 2 and locks, and $20,000 annually on Dam No. 3 and lock.

Mr. Ford will furnish electricity for operating the locks without charge and in addition will pay $23,373 semi-annually to build up a sinking fund to return to the United States at the end of the lease period a sum estimated, if invested at 4%, at $49,000,000. The Government will sell to Mr. Ford Nitrate Plants Nos. 1 and 2, the Waco Quarry and the Warrior Steam Plant, with all appurtenances, for $5,000,000,—$1,000,000 down and the remainder in annual installments of $1,000,000 each, with 5% interest on deferred payments.

Mr. Ford agrees to operate Nitrate Plant No. 2 at the annual capacity of its machinery and equipment for the production of nitrogen and other fertilizer compounds, and to sell the fertilizer produced at a profit not above 8% of the cost of production as determined by a board chosen chiefly by three leading farm bodies. The plant is to be kept in constant readiness for the manufacture of materials necessary for the production of explosives in time of war and to be turned over to the Government whenever it shall be required for the national defence. Mr. Ford requires a preference in purchasing or leasing the property at the end of the lease period and the right to electric power at reasonable rates to the extent of his average annual consumption during the previous ten years in case his company does not lease or purchase the property. The entire offer to be accepted as a whole and not in part.

The legal situation regarding the above offer is complicated by the fact that the Air Nitrates Corporation and the Alabama Power Company maintain that their contracts with the Government give them the exclusive rights to purchase the Nitrate Plant No. 2 and the Warrior Steam Plant, respectively. There have been several other offers for the Government property at Muscle Shoals.

Muscle Shoals, water power rights at, disposition of, discussed, 6777.

Museum, National, appropriation for, recommended, 4431, 4458.

Musical Instruments.—The production of musical instruments was covered in the last federal census of manufactures. The census was taken as of 1919, to which year the following statistics refer, although it was not published until 1922. A synopsis of the establishments manufacturing pianos, organs, piano and organ materials, metal and stringed instruments, phonographs and talking machines is as follows:—

Number of Establishments	778
Wage-earners, average number	68,741
Capital	$268,318,333
Wages	75,867,659
Cost of materials	137,459,827
Value of products	320,905,149

The growth of the industry may be seen from the fact that the wage-earners numbered 48,768, in 1914, 45,041 in 1909, 38,617 in 1904, 24,981 in 1899 and 18,096 in 1889.

PIANOS

Number of establishments, 191; persons engaged, 25,760; capital, $116,106,536; salaries, $6,397,666; wages, $25,474,200; cost of materials, $54,364,656; value of products, $107,088,050.

The leading states in the industry are New York and Illinois. There was one establishment (in Illinois) with over 1,000 wage-earners; 6, from 500 to 1,000; 17, from 250 to 500; 49, from 100 to 250.

The number of pianos produced was—Upright, 313,973, valued at $82,853,459. Of these, New York produced 106,860, $28,653,453 and Illinois, 91,684, $23,999,487. Grand, 22,318, $11,613,302. Of these, New York produced 13,208, valued at $6,349,180 and Massachusetts, 3,676, $2,313,762.

The number of pianos with player attachments was 177,127. There were produced also 2,145 automatic and 1,366 electric pianos. There were produced 21,819 player attachments and actions made separately, valued at $1,840,438, with perforated music rolls valued at $3,103,554.

ORGANS

Number of establishments, 68; persons engaged, 2,285; capital, $6,770,587; salaries and wages, $2,502,190; cost of materials, $2,217,097; value of products, $5,973,268.

There were 3 establishments employing from 100 to 250 wage-earners and 8, from 50 to 100. The number of organs produced was—Reed, 26,429, as compared with 40,533 in 1914 and 113,065 in 1904, valued at $1,827,057. Pipe, 1,872 as compared with 2,273 in 1914 and 901 in 1904, valued at $4,731,939. The leading state is Illinois.

PIANO AND ORGAN MATERIALS

Number of establishments, 113; persons engaged, 11,886; capital, $32,323,669; salaries and wages, $12,509,561; cost of materials, $16,693,140; value of products, $36,789,627. The leading state is New York. There were 3 establishments with from 500 to 1,000 wage-earners, 13, from 250 to 500; 16, from 100 to 250.

MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS, GENERAL

The establishments under this head manufactured primarily various kinds of wind, percussive and stringed musical instruments. The various products were not reported separately, but the general survey was as follows:—

Number of establishments	240
Persons engaged	4,957
Capital	$7,876,182
Salaries and wages	5,016,828
Cost of materials	4,444,729
Value of products	12,506,334

Nineteen per cent of the wage-earners were females. The leading states were Indiana, Illinois and New York.

PHONOGRAPHS AND TALKING MACHINES

The establishments under this head manufactured primarily phonographs, graphophones and talking machines, together with parts. The general survey was as follows:—

	1919 (pub. 1922)	*1914*
Number establishments	166	13
Persons engaged	33,826	11,366
Capital	$105,241,359	$33,770,511
Salaries & wages	42,650,716	8,770,664
Cost of materials	59,740,205	7,048,040
Value of products	158,547,870	27,115,916

The leading state was New Jersey, which employed 43% of the wage-earners and produced 35% of the total value of products.

There were 4 establishments employing over 1,000 wage-earners; 6, from 500 to 1,000; 5, from 250 to 500; 24, from 100 to 250. There were 24 establishments with annual products valued at over $1,000,000 each; 13, from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 51, from $100,000 to $500,000.

The separate products were as follows:—

	Number	*Value*
Phonographs, graphophones, talking machines	2,203,553	$90,152,254
Dictating machines	22,853	1,315,886
Records & blanks	106,996,510	44,689,795
Needles		1,609,002
Other parts and products		20,680,130

In addition, phonographs, graphophones and talking machines and parts were made by establishments engaged primarily in other lines to the value of $7,173,143.

Muskogee Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

"Mutsu," retention of, by Japan, discussion and results of, 9054.

Naples, Italy:
Claims against, by—
Merchants of United States, 598, 1112.
United States, 556, 598, 867, 1109, 1112, 1157.
Extension of time allowed commissioners for settlement of, recommended, 1267.
Minister of United States to, 557.
Treaty with, referred to, 1195.

Narragansett Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Nashville Convention.—The Mississippi State convention of 1849 suggested to other Southern States the feasibility of holding conventions to make some public expression on the slavery question and the encroachments of Northern antislavery men. Accordingly, a convention was called in Nashville, Tenn., in June, 1850, composed of delegates from all the Southern States. The Wilmot Proviso and the Missouri Compromise were disapproved of by this meeting. Delegates from Texas, Mississippi, and South Carolina advocated open resistance to Federal authority, but more conservative action prevailed. The convention met again in November, but only moderate resolutions were passed.

Nashville (Tenn.), Battle of.—After the battle of Franklin, Nov. 30, 1864, Gen. Schofield retreated to Nashville, closely followed by Hood, who formed his lines near that city Dec. 4. Reenforcements were sent to Thomas at Nashville, swelling his forces to 56,000 men. Dec. 15 Thomas's army advanced against Hood. The day was consumed in manœuvering and skirmishing. There were not many killed or wounded, but the results of the day's operations were the driving of the Confederates from every position held by them and the capture of 16 guns, 1,200 prisoners, 40 wagons, and several hundred stand of small arms. The Union forces bivouacked on the field and renewed the attack the next morning. By 4 o'clock in the afternoon the Confederates were in retreat toward Franklin. They were pursued until Dec. 28, when Hood crossed the Tennessee with the remnants of his army. The loss in killed and wounded was comparatively light, but more than 50 guns and almost 5,000 Confederate prisoners were captured.

Nashville, The, mentioned, 6765, 6766, 6767, 6768, 6769, 6836, 6838.

Nassau, Duchy of:
Convention with, 2303.
Exequatur issued consul of, revoked, 3709.

Natal. (See Union of South Africa.)

Natchez:
Commissioners of United States assemble in, 186, 192, 236.
Government in, establishment of, recommended, 236.

Natchez, The. (See *General Urrea,* The.)

National Academy of Sciences.—The National Academy of Sciences was incorporated under an act of Congress approved March 3, 1863. It was self-created and retains autonomous powers, but derives national character from the provision in the article of incorporation that "the academy shall, whenever called upon by any department of the government, investigate, examine, experiment and report upon any subject of science of art, the actual expense of such investigations, examinations, experiments and reports to be paid from appropriations which may be made for the purpose; but the academy shall receive no compensation whatever for any services to the Government of the United States." The first meeting was held April 22, 1863, and Alexander D. Bache was elected president. Originally the membership was limited to fifty. This limit was removed in 1870, but the policy remained exclusive, election being regarded as a dignity conferred in recognition of special scientific work and only five names are considered for each year's election. A stated session is held annually in Washington on the third Tuesday in April, and another is commonly held elsewhere during each autumn. The membership (at present, 147 members and 46 foreign associates) comprises many of the leading scientific specialists of the United States who are grouped into committees on (1) mathematics and astronomy, (2) physics and engineering, (3) chemistry, (4) geology and paleontology, (5) biology, and (6) anthropology. There are in addition a number of foreign scientists distinguished for scientific attainments, who have been elected associates.

National Academy of Sciences:
Forestry system plans to be formulated by committee of, 6167.
Requested to perpetuate National Research Council, 8496.

National Air.—The tune, or song, adopted, usually by custom, as a musical symbol of the country; as, in England, "God Save the King"; in France, "The Marseillaise"; in the United States, "The Star Spangled Banner." (See Star Spangled Banner.)

In all public assemblages it is a custom, amounting to an unwritten law, for all persons to stand when the national air is played or sung; likewise it is the custom, under similar circumstances for all men when out of doors to uncover. This mark of respect is held so sacred that any one violating it is apt to be roughly treated. This is especially true when the martial spirit prevails. Foreigners, even though not in sympathy with the air being played, are expected to obey this custom as a matter of "courtesy to the host."

The National Airs, of some of the great nations of the world are as follows:

Austria—Hymn to the Emperor.

Belgium—Brabanconne.

Denmark—Song of Danebrog.

France—Marseillaise.

Germany—Die Wacht am Rhein; Deutschland.

Great Britain—God Save the King; Rule Britannia.

Hungary—Rakoczy March.

Italy—Garibaldi's Hymn; Marcia Reale; War Song of the Alpine Huntsmen.

Japan—Kimi Ga Yo.

Soviet Russia—Internationale.

Spain—Spread the Tidings Afar.

Switzerland—Hail Thee, Helvetia.

United States—Star Spangled Banner.

National Anti-Slavery Party.—A party organized in 1833 for united opposition to slavery. It merged into the Liberty Party (q. v.), and finally into the Abolition Party (q. v.).

National Army.—The term applied to the first draft army of 500,000 called to the colors in the war with Germany. (See Army.)

National Army, Message of President Wilson to, 8352.

National Association of Naval Veterans.—Organized 1887; 6,000 members; 1,500 contributing members; 30 associations in all the principal cities of the United States.

National Bank Circulation:
Act to fix amount of United States notes and, vetoed, 4222.
Discussed by President—
Arthur, 4720, 4766, 4832.
Cleveland, 4926, 5876, 5966, 5986, 6074, 6157, 6175.
Harrison, Benj., 5474.
Johnson, 3563, 3769.
Roosevelt, 7050.
Taft, 7373, 7793.
Wilson, 7869, 7879, 7908, 8026.

National Bank Examiners, reports of, referred to, 4655.

National Banks. (See Banks, National.)

National Board of Health.—By act of Congress approved March 3, 1879, a National Board of Health was established, consisting of 7 civilian physicians, 1 army surgeon, 1 navy surgeon, 1 surgeon of the Marine-Hospital Service, and 1 officer of the Department of Justice. This board was abolished by law. A national quarantine law was passed June 3, 1879.

National Board of Health:
Establishment of—
Discussed, 4631.
Recommended, 5983.
Report of, transmitted, 4857, 4972.

National Cemeteries. (See Cemeteries, National.)
Establishment of, and number of Union soldiers buried in, discussed, 3649.

National City Bank of New York, participation of, in Chinese Consortium loan, 8933-5.

National Civic Federation. (See Civic Federation.)

National Commission of Fine Arts. (See Fine Arts Commission.)

National Conservation Association. (See Conservation Commission.)

National Consumers' League.—A body of men and women organized to further, by discriminating purchase of goods, the welfare of those who produce them. The movement becomes distinct in England in 1890 and in the United States in 1891, when the Consumers' League of New York was organized. Other similar state and municipal Leagues soon followed, to be united in a national body in 1899.

The League pays especial attention to the welfare of working women, and in that connection issues a white label signifying that the goods upon which it is found meet with the requirements of the League. These requirements signify especially obedience to the national, state and municipal laws covering working conditions; the fact that the goods labeled were made on the premises of the plants under whose name they are produced; the employment of no child under the age of 16 upon them; the limit of the working hours to at least ten daily in the manufacture of them; and the willingness of the manufacturer of such goods to have his establishement investigated for the purposes of the League.

The League has been active especially in influencing labor legislation, and in its direct influence has functioned particularly in improving working conditions in retail stores and in eliminating sweatshops.

National Debt. (See Debt, Public.)

National Defense. (See Defenses, Public.)

National Defense Act.—The name of the act of Congress of June 3, 1916, providing for increases in the provisions for the United States Army. (See Army.)

National Food Board.—This was an organization created by and under the Council of National Defence (q. v.), in order to handle as well as possible the problems arising from the food situation of the country, until Congress passed legislation requested by the President in order to make food regulation efficient and official.

National Forests. (See Forests, National, and Lands, Timber.)

National Foundry, erection of, recommended, 1607, 1714.

National Geographic Society.—This body was formed in 1889 for the increase and diffusion of geographic knowledge. It has now more than 600,000 members, membership including subscription to the "National Geographic Magazine," published by the Society. The Society makes exhaustive investigations of geographic facts, dispatches expeditions of research, conducts a bureau of general information to the public on geographic matters, and publishes books, monographs and papers on geographic subjects.

National Guard.—The enrolled militia of the States is known collectively as the National Guard. (See Militia.)
Encampment of, in coast works recommended, 5476.
Encouragement of, 5550.
Reorganization of, 6672, 6805, 7236.

National Incorporation Act, suggested, 7074, 7455, 7456, 7457, 7458, 7522.

National Intelligencer, publication in, of proceedings of President and Cabinet respecting interpretation of reconstruction acts discussed, 3725.

Nationalism, Principle of (see also Americanism):
Affirmed, 8923, 8947.
Preserved by Armament Limitation Conference, 9071.

National Monuments.—(See also Statues and Monuments.) By act approved June 8, 1906, the President is authorized to set apart, as National Monuments, certain portions of the land, or landmarks on the land owned and administered by the Government, which may be of historic or scenic interest.

At present, there are thirty-seven national monuments, of which twenty-four are administered by the National Park Service of the Department of the Interior, eleven by the Department of Agriculture and two by the War Department. Those administered by the National Park Service, together with their area and date of organization as national monuments, are as follows:

Devil's Tower, Wyoming, 1908, 1,152 acres.

Montezuma Castle, Arizona, 1906, 160 acres.

El Morro, New Mexico, 1906-1917, 400 acres.

Petrified Forest, Arizona, 1906-1911, 25,625 acres.

Chaco Canyon, New Mexico, 1907, 20,629 acres.

Muir Woods, California, 1908, 295 acres.

Pinnacles, California, 1908, 2,080 acres.

Natural Bridges, Utah, 1908, 1909 and 1916, 5,600 acres.

Lewis and Clark Cavern, Montana, 1908-1911, 320 acres.

Tumacacori, Arizona, 1908, 10 acres.

Navajo, Arizona, 1909-1912, 960 acres.

Zion, Utah, 1909-1918, 92,640 acres.

Shoshone Cavern, Wyoming, 1909, 210 acres.

Gran Quivira, New Mexico, 1909, 160 acres.

Sitka, Alaska, 1910, 57 acres.

Rainbow Bridge, Utah, 1910, 160 acres.

Colorado, Colorado, 1911, 13,883 acres.

Papago Saguaro, Arizona, 1914, 2,050 acres.

Dinosaur, Utah, 1915, 80 acres.

Sieur de Monts, Maine, 1916, 5,000 acres.

Capulin Mountain, New Mexico, 1916, 681 acres.

Verendrye, North Dakota, 1917, 253 acres.

Casa Grande, Arizona, 1889, 1909 and 1918, 480 acres.

Katmai, Alaska, 1918, 1,088,000 acres.

The following national monuments are administered by the Department of Agriculture:

Gila Cliff Dwellings, New Mexico, 1907, 160 acres.

Tonto, Arizona, 1907, 640 acres.

Grand Canyon, Arizona, 1908, 806,400 acres.

Jewel Cave, South Dakota, 1908, 1,280 acres.

Wheeler, Colorado, 1908, 300 acres.

Mount Olympus, Washington, 1909, 1912 and 1915, 1,516,490 acres.

Oregon Caves, Oregon, 1909, 480 acres. acres.

Devil Postpile, California, 1911, 800 acres.

Walnut Canyon, Arizona, 1915, 960 acres.

Bandelier, New Mexico, 1916, 22,075 acres.

Old Kasaan, Alaska, 1916, 38 acres.

The following national monuments are administered by the War Department:

Big Hole Battlefield, Montana, 1910, 5 acres.

Cabrillo, California, 1913, 1 acre.

National Museum.—The National Museum is an offshoot of the Smithsonian Institution at Washington, and was organized under the provisions of the act of 1846 creating the parent institution. It is a museum of record, research and education, and the legal depository of all national collections. It is especially rich in American archæology and natural history, but contains specimens from all over the world. The new building was completed in 1910 at a cost of $3,500,000. It contains the specimens collected by the scientific expedition into Africa conducted by Ex-President Roosevelt. Through the beneficence of this private enterprise the museum was enriched by specimens of African mammals superior to that of any other museum in the world. The series of birds, reptiles and plants is also of great importance. Some idea of the size of the collection may be gained from the statement that in 1916 alone there were received almost 250,000 specimens in botany, geology, anthropology, mineralogy, zoology, animal and vegetable products, paleontology, mineral technology, and additions to the National Gallery of Art.

(See illustration, frontispiece, Vol. VIII.)

National Museum, appropriation for, recommended, 4431, 4458.
Referred to, 6676.

National Parks and Reservations. (See Parks, National.)

National Party.—In 1900 the National Party was organized as the result of defection from the First Liberty Congress (q. v.). Donelson Caffery was nominated for President and M. Howe for Vice President. The platform declared against expansion, but in favor of the Gold Standard, and it was decided that one elector of the National Party should be voted for at the head of either the Republican or Democratic ticket.

National Party.—This political party was formed in the latter part of 1917 as a combination of Independents, Prohibitionists, Progressives, Single Taxers and Socialists who supported the United States in its prosecution of the war against Germany. The platform of the party advocated national prohibition, the gradual adoption of the single tax attitude with respect to land (see Single Tax), the public ownership and democratic control of the telephones, telegraphs, mines, forests, etc., freedom of speech, etc. It soon evaporated.

National Prison Congress at Baltimore referred to, 4162. (See also International Prison Congress.)

National Problems, new, request for study of, 8331.

National Republican Party.—After the defeat of John Quincy Adams by Jackson in 1828 the broad-construction wing of the Democratic-Republican party organized and came out with a platform directly opposed to Jackson on the question of the tariff and the United States Bank. They opposed the spoils system in the public service, favored internal improvements at national expense, a bank of the United

States, and a division of the proceeds of land sales among the States. In 1832 they supported Henry Clay for the Presidency and advocated a protective tariff. Clay was defeated, receiving but 49 electoral votes, and in 1835 the party, reenforced by other elements, took the name of Whig.

National Research Council, perpetuation of, 8496.

National Rivers and Harbors Congress.—This body exists to collect and prepare data on the improvement and development of the rivers and harbors in the United States, including findings of the Board of United States Engineers and problems of water transportation, and to disseminate this information as widely as possible. The membership consists of commercial organizations, improvement associations and corporations, and individuals in sympathy with the purposes of the Congress. The organization issues publications, maintains a news bureau, and employs field representatives.

National Security League. (See Preparedness Societies.)

National Silver Party.—Organized in 1896; nominated William Jennings Bryan for President and Arthur Sewell for Vice President (the candidates on the Democratic ticket). The platform adopted followed generally the lines of the Democratic platform.

National University.—Washington strongly disapproved of foreign education for American youth and early conceived the idea of establishing a national university in the central part of the United States. He bequeathed fifty shares of the Potomac Company toward the endowment of such an institution in the District of Columbia, but ultimately the stock of the company proved valueless. Several of the presidents from time to time in their messages recommended the establishment of a national university or universities, or, as they sometimes called them, "seminaries of learning."

National University (see also Education; Seminaries of Learning):
- Establishment of, recommended, 58, 194, 197, 398, 470, 553, 878, 4208.
- Lands, donation of, to, recommended, 398, 470, 4208.

National Waterways Commission.—A special commission created by Congress in 1909, and the membership of which was drawn entirely from Congress, to make an investigation of transportation by water, and to make recommendations to Congress. It was largely the result of the Lake-to-the-Gulf Deep Waterway Association (q. v.), and of the National Rivers and Harbors Congress (q. v.).

National Zoological Park referred to, 6676.

Nationality.—Federal and not state law determines the status of the nationality of persons in the United States. Until the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, the Constitution established no rules regarding the loss or acquisition of nationality. Birth in the country is, as a rule, the test, but not all persons born in the United States are considered as endowed with nationality. The naturalization act of 1790 extended nationality to children born to American parents beyond the sea. In 1855 an act passed restricting this to children whose fathers were citizens. The Civil-Rights Act (q. v.) of 1866 declared "all persons born in the United States and not subject to any foreign power" to be citizens of the United States. The Fourteenth Amendment defines citizens as "all persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof." The citizens of Hawaii became citizens of the United States by virtue of annexation, it being so stated in the act of Congress of 1900 which made Hawaii a Territory. The inhabitants of the Philippine Islands and Puerto Rico are entitled to the protection of the Constitution but cannot enjoy the privileges of citizenship until Congress admits their countries to the Union as states or organizes them as territories.

Nationality, Principle of (see also Poland, Czecho-Slovakia, Jugo-Slavia, Fiume, Austria-Hungary, Italy):
- Difficulty in following, 8791.
- Recognition of, essential, 8202, 8424, 8425, 8450.
- Violated in settlements of World War, 8837, 8840.

Nations, Congress of. (See under Panama, Isthmus of.)

Nations, Foreign. (See Powers, Foreign; the several Powers.)

Nations, Rights of, 6922, 6994. (See also Nationality.)

Native Birds, reservation established for, on Smith Island, 7959.

Natural Rights.—The rights which by nature inhere in man (as distinguished from the rights given by law) such as life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. (See Declaration of Independence, Volume I, page 1.) The right to these blessings does not carry with it the power to secure them, but government must be formed to establish guarantees of natural rights by the enactment of positive law.

Naturalization.—The investment of an alien with the rights and privileges of citizenship. Section 8 of Article I. of the Constitution empowered Congress "to establish a uniform rule of naturalization." Naturalization laws were passed by the colonial legislatures of Maryland, Virginia, New York, South Carolina and Massachusetts between 1666 and 1715. In 1740 the British Parliament enacted a law regulating colonial naturalization. In 1790 Congress legislated for the first time so as to provide for uniformity of naturalization under the Constitution. The conditions of this law were that any free white alien might be admitted to citizenship by any court of record of the state in which he has resided for one year, having been a resident of the United States two years. An act of 1795 required five years' residence and application three years prior to naturalization; that of 1798 required fourteen years' residence and application five years prior to naturalization. The act of April 14, 1802, restored the conditions of the act of 1795 and required a proof of five years' residence in the United States and one in the state, good character, an oath of allegiance, and a renunciation of titles and prior allegiance. No alien may be naturalized if his country is at war with the United States. Conditions and procedure in naturalizing an alien are prescribed by

sections 2163-2174 of the Revised Statutes of the United States. Naturalization of Chinese is prohibited by section 14, chapter 126, laws of 1882; and of anarchists by the immigration act of 1903. Naturalized citizens of the United States receive the same protection when abroad as native-born citizens. (See also Expatriation.)

The following paraphrase and condensation of the naturalization laws of the United States have been revised by the Commissioner of Naturalization of the Department of Labor, and includes such minor changes in the law as were provided by the recent amendments embodied in the act of Congress, approved June 25, 1910.

The following courts alone have the power to naturalize aliens: United States District Courts now existing, or which may hereafter be established by Congress in any state, United States District Courts for the Territories of Hawaii and Alaska, also all courts of record in any state or territory now existing, or which may hereafter be created, having a seal, a clerk and jurisdiction in actions at law or equity, or law and equity, in which the amount in controversy is unlimited.

The power to naturalize, conferred upon the above mentioned courts, is limited to persons residing within the geographical limits over which their respective jurisdiction extends.

Any alien who is a white person, or of African nativity or African descent, is required, if he desires to become naturalized, to file a declaration of intention in the clerk's office of any court having jurisdiction over the place in which he lives, and such declaration may not be filed until the alien has reached the age of eighteen years. This declaration must contain information as to the name, age, occupation, time and place of arrival in the United States, and must further show that it is the declarant's *bona fide* intention to become a citizen of the United States and to renounce forever all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign prince, potentate, state or sovereignty, and particularly to the one of which he may be at the time a citizen or subject.

Any alien, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, who has served five consecutive years in the United States navy or one enlistment in the United States marine corps, may be admitted to citizenship without any previous declaration of intention.

The widow and children who are under age at the time that an alien who has made his declaration of intention has died, without having secured a certificate of naturalization, are also exempted from the necessity of filing a declaration of intention.

By act of June 25, 1910, any person who on May 1, 1905, was an inhabitant for five years and qualified to become a citizen of the United States and who for the five years preceding May 1, 1910, had resided in the United States continuously and who, because of misinformation in regard to his citizenship, had in good faith exercised the rights and duties of a citizen of the United States because of wrongful information and belief, may, upon proof of these facts satisfactory to a court having jurisdiction to naturalize aliens, petition for naturalization without filing the required declaration of intention upon compliance with the other requirements of the law.

Not less than two years after an alien has filed his declaration of intention, and after not less than five years' continuous residence in the United States, he may file a petition for citizenship in any one of the courts above stated which has jurisdiction over the place in which he resides, provided he has lived at least one year continuously, immediately prior to the filing of such petition, in the state or territory in which such place is located. This petition must be signed by the petitioner in his own handwriting and shall give his full name, place of residence, occupation, place of birth and the date thereof, the place from which he emigrated, and the date and place of his arrival in the United States. If such arrival occurred subsequent to the passage of the act of June 29, 1906, he must secure a certificate from the Department of Labor showing the fact of such arrival and the date and place thereof, for filing with the clerk of the court to be attached to his petition. If he is married he must state the name of his wife and, if possible, the country of her nativity and her place of residence at the time of the filing of his petition, and, if he has children, the name, date and place of birth and present place of residence of each living child. The petition must set forth that he is not a believer in or opposed to organized government, or a member of or affiliated with any organization or body of persons teaching disbelief in or opposition to organized government; that he is not a polygamist or a believer in the practice of polygamy, and that he absolutely and forever renounces all allegiance and fidelity to any foreign country of which he may, at the time of filing such petition, be a citizen or subject. This petition must be verified at the time it is filed by the affidavit of two credible witnesses, who are citizens of the United States and who shall state that they have known the petitioner during his entire residence in the state in which the petition is filed, which must be not less than one year, and that they have known him to be a resident of the United States continuously during the five years immediately preceding the filing of the petition; that during such time he acted as a man of good moral character, attached to the principles of the Constitution of the United States and well disposed to the good order and happiness of the same. If a portion of the five years has been passed by the petitioner in some other state than that in which he resides at the time of filing his petition the affidavit of the witness may verify so much of the petitioner's residence as has been passed in the state, and the portion of said five years' residence out of the state may be shown by depositions at the time of hearing on the petition.

No petition may be heard until the expiration of at least ninety days after it is filed nor within thirty days preceding a general election. At the hearing upon a petition, which shall be a date fixed by order of the court, the witnesses are required to again attend and testify in open court so that the judge or judges thereof may be satisfied that the petitioner is qualified and that he has complied with all the requirements of the law.

An alien who has borne a hereditary title or been a member of an order or nobility must renounce such title or position expressly before becoming naturalized. No alien may become naturalized, if physically capable, who does not speak the English language.

Aliens who are admitted to citizenship by order in open court will be required to take the oath of allegiance and thereafter will be entitled to a certificate of naturalization.

The law also provides as to those persons who, though not citizens, owe permanent allegiance to the United States, and who may become citizens of any state or organized territory of the United States, that they may be naturalized upon compliance with all the requirements of the law, except that they will not be called upon to renounce allegiance to any foreign sovereignty.

At the time of filing his declaration of intention an alien is required to pay to the clerk of the court a fee of one dollar. At the time of filing a petition for naturalization a petitioner is required to pay to the clerk of the court a fee of four dollars.

The naturalization of Chinese is expressly prohibited by Sec. 14, Chap. 126, Laws of 1882.

The act of May 9, 1918, in reference to naturalization of honorably discharged soldiers and sailors who served during the World War was superseded by the act of July 19, 1919, as follows: Any person of foreign birth, who served in the military or naval forces of the United States during the War, after final examination and acceptance by the military or naval authorities, and shall have been honorably discharged after such acceptance and service, shall have the following benefits, for one year after all of the American troops are returned to the United States:

Exemption from declaration of intention and certificate of arrival; exemption from $4.00 fee; exemption from proof of United States residence for five years and State residence for one year. An applicant for naturalization under this statute must first appear before a naturalization examiner with his honorable discharge and two citizens to identify him as the person named therein and after passing the required preliminary examination, he may file his petition for naturalization and be heard immediately by any naturalization court.

In cases of applicants in military or naval service petitions may be filed in the most convenient court without proof of residence within its jurisdiction. Honorable discharges or certificates of service are deemed *prima facie* proof as to residence and character, and the petition of a person in actual service may be heard immediately even though within thirty days of an election. Aliens in the military or naval service of the United States abroad (i. e., "not within the jurisdiction of any court authorized to naturalize aliens"—wording of statute), may file petitions without appearing in person, and may take the oath of allegiance by written verification. Service by aliens on vessels of other than American registry is not accepted as residence within the United States.

Alien seamen who have sailed three years on United States merchant or fishing vessels may claim protection as American citizens by simply asking for it and, at the same time, declaring their intention of becoming citizens. Aliens honorably discharged on account of disability in performance of duty while in military or naval service during the war or at its termination, may be relieved of the necessity of proving continuous five years' residence. Citizens having lost citizenship by entering the service of the Allies may resume citizenship by taking the oath of allegiance.

By act approved September 22, 1922, an American woman no longer loses her citizenship on marrying an alien and an alien woman must quality for naturalization independently of her husband.

The last federal census showed 49% of the foreign-born population above 21 as naturalized, with 9½% having taken out first papers and 6% unreported. More women than men were naturalized, but more men had taken out first papers than women. The leading nationalities in naturalization ranked as follows:—

Welsh, 73%; German, 73%; Danish, 69%; Norwegian and Swedish, 68%; Irish, 66%; English, 63%; Scotch, 61%; French, 57%; Canadian, 54%; Czech and Slovak, 46%; Russian, 40%; Austrian, 38%; Hungarian, 29%; Italian, 28%; Polish, 28%; South Slav, 25%; Greek, 17%; Mexican, 5%.

Since the World War, about 140,000 aliens have been naturalized, 315,000 have taken out first papers and 157,000 have filed petitions for naturalization annually. In order, the chief nationalities now being naturalized are Italians, Poles, Russians, British, Germans. In a recent year, some 25,000 certificates were denied, about 15% of the whole number. More than 6,000 were denied because of unfavorable draft status, 675 on charge of slackerism, 288 for disloyalty, 6,331 for want of prosecution, 2,070 for incompetent witnesses, 1,601 for invalid declaration, 1,467 for ignorance. Over 2,000 courts grant naturalization.

Naturalization:
Act on subject of uniform rule of, vetoed, 508.
Aliens, of, report on, 6935.
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Nautical Almanac.—The Ephemeral and Nautical Almanac of the United States Navy Department was first published in 1853. It contains tables indicating the rising and the setting of the sun, moon and stars, with various astronomical observations of importance to mariners, including announcements of eclipses. It contains data for finding latitude and longitude, and its ephemerides are calculated for both the meridian of Washington and the meredian of Greenwich. It is published three years in advance of the year with which it deals, so that all the information it contains may be used on the longest voyages. (See Navigation.)

Navajo Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Naval Academy. (See Navy, Department of.)

Naval Academy.—An institution for the training of naval officers, founded at Annapolis, Md., in 1845, through the efforts of George Bancroft, then Secretary of the Navy. The Academy was not established by formal legislation of Congress, but was opened in October, 1845, under orders from the Secretary of the Navy. It was not until Aug. 10, 1846, that Congress took any action toward the encouragement of the enterprise. At that time $28,000 was appropriated for repairs, improvement and instruction, and the following year a like sum was appropriated. In 1850 the school was reorganized and the name changed to the United States Naval Academy. At the outbreak of the Civil War the Academy was removed to Newport, R. I., where it remained until the summer of 1865, when it was re-established at Annapolis.

The Naval Academy is under the jurisdiction of the Bureau of Navigation of the Navy Department and in the immediate control of an academic board, consisting of a superintendent, who is a naval officer; a commandant of cadets, and the heads of the different departments of study.

The students of the Naval Academy are called Midshipmen. Five appointments are allowed each Senator, Representative and Delegate in Congress, five for the Resident Commissioner from Porto Rico, five for the District of Columbia and fifteen from the United States at large. The last twenty are appointed by the President, who usually selects sons of officers in the Army and Navy. The method of selection lies entirely in the hands of the Senator, Representative or Delegate who has a vacancy to fill.

In addition, there has been authorized the appointment to the Academy of one hundred enlisted men from the Regular Navy, the Marine Corps and the Naval Reserve Force on active duty. These appointments are made as the result of competitive examinations. Examinations for these enlisted men are held once a year, although candidates may also be accepted on certificate.

The act of June 29, 1906, prescribes that the Secretary of the Navy shall, as soon as possible after June 1 of each year preceding the graduation of Midshipmen in the succeeding year, notify in writing each Senator, Representative and Delegate in Congress of any vacancy that will exist at the Naval Academy because of such graduation, and which he shall be entitled to fill by nomination of a candidate and one or more alternates therefor. The nomination of candidate and alternate or alternates to fill said vacancy shall be made upon the recommendation of the Senator, Representative or Delegate, if such recommendation is made by March 4th of the year following that in which said notice in writing is given, but if it is not made by that time the Secretary of the Navy shall fill the vacancy by appointment of an actual resident of the State, Congressional District or Territory, as the case may be, in which the vacancy will exist, who shall have been for at least two years immediately preceding the date of his appointment an actual and bona fide resident of the State, Congressional District or Territory in which the vacancy will exist, and of the legal qualification under the law as now provided.

The course of study at the Naval Academy covers four years. Examinations covering the work done are held at the end of each term. First, second and third year midshipmen go to sea for about three months

each summer. Each midshipman receives $780 as annual pay. Each candidate for admission must sign articles binding him to serve in the United States Navy during the pleasure of the President, unless sooner discharged. His period of probation at the Naval Academy is included in this pledge. Examinations for admission to the Academy are held twice every year.

After graduation, midshipmen receive commissions as ensigns in the Navy, although occasionally certain ones are given vacancies in the Marine Corps and in the staff corps of the Navy.

Regular candidates for admission must be between the ages of 16 and 20. Their height must be at least five feet two inches between 16 and 18 and at least five feet four inches between 18 and 20. The minimum weight permissible is one hundred eleven pounds at the age of 16, with an increase of three pounds for each additional year or half-year of age. Candidates must be unmarried and any midshipman married before graduation is dismissed from the service. Before admission to the Academy, each candidate must deposit $350 to cover the initial expense of his outfit.

The candidates from among the enlisted men of the Navy, Marine Corps or Naval Reserve Force must be no more than 20 years old on April 1 of the year in which they enter the Academy. They must have been in the service at least one year by August 15 of their year of entrance. The other requirements for admission are similar to those of the regular candidates.

All candidates for admission must be citizens of the United States.

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- Increased number of officers and men needed, 8108.
- Instruction at, should be more practical, 7117.
- Removal of, discussed, 3561.
- Reorganization of, discussed, 2713.

Naval Aeronautics.—The division of Naval Aeronautics in the Navy Department investigates and develops in particular the use of air-craft from the decks of vessels and from the surface of the seas. (See Aeronautics; Navy; Navy Department.)

Naval Aids recommended for Secretary of the Navy, 7807.

Naval Appropriation Bill:
- Addition suggested to, concerning naval supply account, 9018.
- Amendment proposed to, for international economic conference, 9187.
- Borah resolution for armament limitation conference added to, 9037.

Naval Armaments, conference on limitation of. (See Armament Limitation Conference.)

Naval Auxiliary Reserve. (See Naval Reserve.)

Naval Cadet, title of, should be replaced by "midshipman," 6667.

Naval Coast Defence Reserve. (See Naval Reserve.)

Naval Code. (See Code.)

Naval Code, revision of, 2625.

Naval Communications, Office of Director of.—This important division of the Office of Naval Operations of the Navy Department is charged with organizing and operating all the systems of communications—radio, telegraph, telephone and cable—within the naval service. This duty includes the preparation and distribution of codes and ciphers. During war, the Director becomes the chief cable censor.

Naval Communications Service. (See Radio Service.)

Naval Consulting Board.—The Naval Consulting Board was organized in July, 1915, by Secretary of Navy Josephus Daniels. It is composed of members selected by the leading scientific societies of the United States, and it is headed and directed by Thomas A. Edison. Although it advises the Navy Department on all matters of importance in the development of the Navy, it is concerned especially with new inventions, which it investigates and on which it reports, and with plans for industrial preparation for naval purposes, in which work it is assisted by branch committees in all the states of the Union. It also conducts a laboratory in experimental and research work, in order to study all new developments in naval warfare.

Naval Courts of Inquiry, 892.

Naval Expeditions. (See Arctic Expeditions; Exploring Expeditions.)

Naval Intelligence, Office of.—This important division of the Office of Naval Operations of the Navy Department is charged with the collection of information for the Department and for other naval activities requiring it; also with the publication and dissemination of such information. It also directs all naval attachés of the United States abroad.

Naval Militia.—In 1888 Congress passed an act authorizing the maritime states to organize a naval reserve, to be trained and fitted for operating the coast and harbor defense vessels, etc., in time of war, thus liberating the regular naval force to man the heavy seagoing war ships, etc. Massachusetts was the first state to pass laws providing for such organization. New York took similar action, and by 1898 most of the maritime states had regularly organized naval militia. The first appropriation for the equipment of the force was $25,000, made by Congress in 1891. The naval militia at a recent date was organized in twenty-two states and in the District of Columbia.

Naval Militia, development of, discussed, 5759, 6166, 6669.

Naval Observatory.—A division of the Bureau of Equipment of the Navy Department. Its functions are to determine accurately the positions of the sun, moon, planets and the earth for use in preparing

the *Nautical Almanac;* to test chronometers and to issue correct time daily; to distribute to vessels of the navy instruments of precision for navigating purposes; to conduct astronomical investigations of general and special scientific interest, and, since 1894, to publish the *Nautical Almanac.*

In 1830 the Navy Department established a depot of charts and instruments in charge of Lieutenant L. M. Goldsborough, and he mounted a 3-inch transit instrument. In 1833 Lieutenant Wilkes moved the depot to a site on Capitol Hill, and at his own expense built an observatory containing a transit instrument of 3¾ inches aperture and 63 inches focal length; a Borda's circle; a 3¼-foot achromatic portable telescope; a portable transit instrument; and a sidereal clock. In 1838 the Secretary of the Navy granted authority for the purchase of all necessary supplies for making a constant series of observations in astronomy, magnetism and meteorology, and detailed naval officers to the work under the instructions of Lieut. J. M. Gilliss. The new equipment then installed consisted of a sidereal clock and a mean time clock; a meridian circle of 5.5 inches aperture furnished with a circle 30 inches in diameter; a portable achromatic telescope of 3¼ inches aperture and 42 inches focal length. Berlin, Paris, Greenwich and Vienna presented some 200 rare volumes of the highest standard as the nucleus for an astronomical library. The work done at Capitol Hill between 1838 and 1842 was published as *Astronomical Observations Made at the Naval Observatory,* being the first American work of this nature.

In 1842 Congress, through the efforts of Lieut. Gilliss, authorized the erection of a new observatory. Lieut. Maury was placed in charge of the new establishment and gained an international reputation through his studies of ocean currents and other hydrographic and nautical subjects. He was succeeded in 1861 by Lieut. Gilliss and later by Charles H. Davis and John Rodgers.

Among the earliest scientific achievements of the new observatory were the observations of the planet Neptune, secured in 1846, immediately after its discovery, which enabled Sears C. Walker, by identifying two older foreign observations, to discuss the elements of Neptune during his short connection with the observatory. The adaptation of electricity to record observations by Prof. John Locke, formerly lieutenant in the navy, resulted in the installation of the first practical chronograph at the observatory in 1849. With the 9.6-inch equatorial Assistant Astronomer James Ferguson discovered several planetoids between 1854 and 1860. With the 26-inch refractor (made by Alvan Clark), at that time the largest telescope in the world, Prof. Asaph Hall discovered the moons of Mars in 1877. This instrument was set in place in time to observe the transit of Venus in 1874.

The present observatory buildings on the more favorable site of Georgetown Heights were completed in 1893. They comprise a commodious office building occupied by the astronomical, nautical instrument, time service and *Nautical Almanac* departments, while the 26-inch equatorial, a 9-inch and a 6-inch transit circle, and a 5-inch prime vertical instrument are placed in suitable dome and houses to the south, east, west and north of a clock house, the longitude of which is 5h. 8m. 15.78s. west and the latitude 38° 55′ 14″ north. Besides the above-named instruments there are a 12-inch equatorial, a 6-inch altazimuth, a 5-inch transit, a 5-inch photoheliograph.

Although one of the youngest among the great astronomical institutions, it has developed in a short time to a rank with those at Greenwich and Pulkowa. Its object is rather the development and application of the known facts of astronomy than the making of further discoveries. Professors Newcomb and Hall, of the older scientific staff of the Naval Observatory, were later succeeded by Professors Skinner, See, Updegraph, Eichelberger, Littell and Harschmann. The library now contains some 22,000 volumes and stands second to Pulkowa only.

Naval Observatory:
Estimates for observation of transit of Venus, referred to, 4668.
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Referred to, 4249.
Removal of, recommended, 5158.
Separation of, from Navy Department, recommended, 7430.
(See also Navy, Department of.)

Naval Officers. (See Navy.)

Naval Order of the United States.—Composed of a General Commandery and commanderies in the States of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, New York, California and Illinois, and in the District of Columbia. The General Commandery meets triennially on Oct. 5th, and the State Commanderies meet annually in the month of November. The Massachusetts Commandery is the parent Commandery, and was organized at Boston on July 4, 1890. The General Commandery was established three years later, on June 19, 1893. The Companies of the Order are officers and the descendants of officers who served in the navy and marine corps in any war or in any battle in which the said naval forces of the United States have participated. The membership clause, as adopted at the triennial congress held at Boston, Oct. 5, 1895, provides for two classes of members: First, veteran officers and their male descendants; and, second, enlisted men who have received the United States naval medal of honor for bravery in the face of the enemy.

Naval Parade, to be held in New York Harbor, 5760.

Naval Pension Fund. (See Pensions.)

Naval Radio Station, land in Alaska set apart for, 8215.

Naval Reserve.—By act of Congress, approved August 29, 1916, provision was made for the establishment of a naval reserve in the United States Navy. Under this head, the act created six classes of service: Fleet Naval Reserve, Naval Reserve, Naval Auxiliary Reserve, Naval Coast Defence Reserve, Volunteer Naval Reserve, and Naval Reserve Flying Corps. The same act also provided for the establishment of a Marine Corps Reserve. The legislation provides for a naval reserve force embracing all former officers and men of the navy now in civil life, the officers and men of the merchant marine, and civilians capable of serving the navy in connection with the defense of the coasts. After 16 or 20 years of service, enlisted men may transfer from the active list to the Naval Reserve. It is estimated that at the time of the passage of the act, it provided for a reserve force of 20,000

men, and that after a few years that number will have increased to 30,000 men.

Pay.—In the Fleet Naval Reserve, officers receive 2 months' base pay of their rank; and men of 4 years' service, $50 a year; men of 8 years' service, $72 a year; and men of 12 years' service, $100 a year. Pay is increased 25% for each enrollment. In the Naval Auxiliary Reserve, officers receive 1 month's base pay of their rank, and men 2 months' base pay of their rating, with a 25% increase for each enrollment. Men in the Volunteer Naval Reserve receive no pay. In all other classes, officers and men receive 2 months' base pay of their rank or rating. Enlisted men who transfer to the Naval Reserve after 16 or 20 years' service receive between $40 and $60 per month.

Service.—Members of the Naval Reserve may be ordered into actual service in the Navy by the President in time of war or national emergency. Enrollment and re-enrollment are for terms of four years, but in times of peace or of no national emergency members of the Naval Reserve shall be discharged at their request, provided that they reimburse the Government for any clothing gratuities which may have been furnished them during their enrollment. Members upon enlisting are assigned ranks according to their qualifications for service, which are determined by examinations. In time of actual service, all members of the Naval Reserve shall be subject to the same regulations as apply to the enlisted men in the Navy, and their pay during time of actual service shall be equal to that of enlisted men and officers in the regular service of the Navy of corresponding grade.

Divisions.—In the Fleet Naval Reserve, all former officers, including midshipmen, of the Naval Service, who have been honorably discharged after not less than one four-year term of enlistment, are eligible. In the Naval Reserve, men between the ages of eighteen and thirty-five who have followed the sea-going profession are eligible. In the Naval Auxiliary Reserve, those eligible are men who have been or who are engaged on vessels of the American merchant marine which have been listed by the Navy Department as suitable for service in time of war. The Naval Coast Defence Reserve is reserved for those citizens who may be of especial value to the Navy Department in connection with the defense of the coasts. Those citizens who are willing to serve in the Naval Reserve without retainer pay and uniform gratuity in time of peace are eligible to the Volunteer Naval Reserve. The Naval Reserve Flying Corps is composed of those persons who are skilled in the designing, building, or operating of aircraft. The Marine Corps Reserve is divided into classes corresponding to the first five classes listed above.

Naval Reserve Flying Corps. (See Naval Reserve.)

Naval Reserve, National, establishment recommended, 6669, 7808.

Naval Stations.—Naval bases or shore stations are ports on home or foreign shores owned or leased by the government, where fuel and supplies are stored, and which are regularly visited by vessels on cruise. Recruiting and instruction are also carried on at these stations, and they form the bases for sea manœuvres. Following are the locations of the permanent stations at home and abroad:

Annapolis, Md. (naval academy); Baltimore, Md. (recruiting station); Boston, Mass. (yard and recruiting station); Charleston, S. C. (yard and barracks); Great Lakes, Ill. (training station); Indian Head (proving ground); Key West, Fla.; Las Animas, Colo. (hospital); Mare Island, Cal. (yard, barracks, prison, iron works); Narragansett Bay, R. I. (training station); New York, N. Y. (Brooklyn yard); Norfolk, Va. (Newport News yard); Philippine Islands (Olongapo, Cavite, Canacao); Panama (Canal Zone); Pensacola, Fla.; Philadelphia, Pa. (recruiting station, home, hospital, etc.); Port Royal, S. C. (disciplinary barracks); Portsmouth, N. H. (yard, iron works, hospital, etc.); Puget Sound (Bremerton, Wash., dock, etc.); San Francisco, Cal.; Washington, D. C. (administrative dept.); Guam; Guantanamo, Cuba; Hawaii, H. I.; Tutuila, Samoa; Yokohama, Japan.

Naval Stations:
- Establishment of—
  - Discussed, 4573, 4586.
  - In West Indies, recommended, 3777.
- Lands for. (See Lands, Public.)
- Survey for, mentioned, 1038.
- (See also Navy Yards and Docks.)

Naval Training Stations.—The regular naval training stations of the United States are Newport, R. I.; Norfolk, Va.; Great Lakes, Ill.; San Francisco, Cal.

Stations at which general detail men and graduates of training stations receive further training while awaiting assignment to ships are Boston, Mass.; Charlestown, S. C.; Gulfport, Miss.; Key West, Fla; Mare Island Navy Yard; New York Navy Yard; New Orleans, La.; Pensacola, Fla.; Philadelphia Navy Yard; Portsmouth, N. H.; Puget Sound Navy Yard; San Diego, Cal.

Training stations for reserves and national volunteers are Portsmouth (N. H.) Navy Yard; Bumkin Island, Boston Harbor; Newport, R. I.; Bensonhurst, L. I., N. Y.; Pelham Bay Park, N. Y.; U. S. S. *Iowa, Indiana, Massachusetts;* Cape May, N. J.; S. S. *Bulgaria,* Norfolk Navy Yard; Cherrystone Island, Va.; Charlestown (S. C.) Navy Yard; Key West Fla.; New Orleans Navy Yard; Los Angeles, Cal.; Seattle, Wash.; Chicago, Ill.

Naval War College.—A course of lectures on and instruction in the manipulation of torpedoes established by the Government at Coasters Harbor Island, Newport, R. I., in 1889. The class consists chiefly of officers and men in the torpedo service, but lectures are delivered on all branches of naval improvements and progress. The course continues three months in each year.

Naval War College, discussed, 6166.
- (See also Navy, Department of.)

Navassa Island, West Indies:
- Occupation of, by American citizens, referred to, 3120.
- Recognition of, as appertaining to United States, referred to, 5625.
- Trial of laborers in, charged with killing agents of Navassa Phosphate Co., discussed, 5625.

Navassa Phosphate Co., trial of laborers charged with killing agents of, in Navassa Island, discussed, 5625.

Navies of the World.—The capital ship tonnage of the five great naval Powers was determined by the naval treaties of the Armament Limitation Conference, now in effect. (See pages 9077 to 9081.) The following table gives the Navy Department's figures of naval strength on January 1, 1922, as given by the official Navy Year Book published in 1923. For details of the United States Navy, see Navy.

	Great Britain		*United States*		*Japan*		*France*		*Italy*	
	No.	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*
Battleships—										
First line	26	635,650	18	500,650	7	212,120	7	161,911	6	143,000
Second line	7	127,150	13	202,740	4	71,500	4	74,062	4	50,400
Battle cruisers—										
First line	6	175,400	..	.....	4	110,000	..	.....	..	.....
Second line	4	72,100	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....
Cruisers—										
First line	2	37,200	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....
Second line	4	46,100	10	131,300	5	59,200	10	119,108	5	46,500
Light cruisers—										
First line	47	208,915	..	.....	11	54,850	4	17,802	5	21,000
Second line	14	74,465	9	30,450	1	4,100	1	3,444	5	17,300
Destroyers—										
Leaders	20	34,376	..	.....	..	.....	1	2,485	6	10,300
First line	179	208,742	294	349,555	43	44,613	10	89,073	27	22,679
Second line	6	4,200	21	15,582	12[1]	7,850	34	23,947	16	11,840
Submarines—										
First line	45	36,563	58	35,843	14	10,888	16	12,333	10	8,040
Second line	37	15,671	42	15,905	10	3,259	24	9,447	35	9,610
Fleet	12	18,480	3	3,318	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....
Monitor	3	4,800	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....
Aircraft carriers	7	88,720	..	.....	1	5,875	1	24,830	..	.....
Total	419	1,787,932	468	1,285,343	112	584,255	112	538,442	117	340,669

[1]Japan retains 33 other destroyers, of 381 tons each, in active commission.

NOTE—In the above table, battleships, battle cruisers, cruisers, light cruisers and coast defence vessels are not included if launched before October 1, 1899. Torpedo boats, torpedo boat destroyers and submarines are not included if launched before October 1, 1904. A large number of Japanese ships have been eliminated on account of the twenty-year limit.

The German navy, as limited by the Treaty of Versailles, consists of 6 battleships, 78,136 tons; 6 light cruisers, 21,300 tons; 12 torpedo boat destroyers, 15,050 tons and 12 torpedo boats, 2,400 tons. Total, 36 warships, 116,886 tons.

It was considered impossible to get reliable information of the naval strength and building program of Soviet Russia. Austria-Hungary was practically deprived of her navy by the peace treaties following the Great War.

In addition, the building programs of the five great naval Powers on January 1, 1922, were as follows:—

	Great Britain		*United States*		*Japan*		*France*		*Italy*	
	No.	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*
Battleships	..	.....	9	357,000	6	253,800	..	.....	..	.....
Battle cruisers	4	160,000	6	261,000	8	352,000	..	.....	..	.....
Light cruisers	2	19,500	10	75,000	16	85,700	3	24,000	2	16,000
Destroyers—										
Leaders	1	1,750	..	.....	..	.....	6	14,400	6	12,270
First line	6	7,450	15	19,620	58	66,865	12	16,800	12	11,680
Submarines—										
First line	6	7,580	35	31,000	84[1]	29,022[1]	12	13,200	4	2,600
Fleet	..	.....	9	14,850	..	.....	..	.....	..	.....
Aircraft carriers	..	.....	1	19,360	3	27,000	..	.....	..	.....
Total	19	196,320	85	777,830	175[1]	814,387[1]	33	68,400	24	42,550

[1]Including 52 of unknown tonnage.

The following table shows the number of battleships and battle cruisers able to take their position in line of battle authorized by the five great naval Powers from 1907 to 1918, both dates inclusive:—

	Great Britain	*United States*	*France*	*Japan*	*Italy*
Battleships	36	26	16	10	5
Battle Cruisers	8	6	..	8	4

The following table shows the heavy guns according to calibres which the fleets of the five Powers would have contained at the completion of their programs as projected on July 1, 1919:—

	Great Britain	*United States*	*France*	*Japan*	*Italy*
16-inch	..	152	...	32	..
15-inch	100	...	...	..	32
14-inch	10	124	...	80	..
13½-inch	144	...	154*	..	..
12-inch	136	80	48	12	64
Totals	390	356	202	124	96

The following table shows the naval expenditures of the great Powers for some significant and for recent fiscal years. For United States and Italy, the year begins on July 1; for Great Britain and Japan, April 1; for France, January 1. Conversion of values on standard gold exchange rate.

Year	*Great Britain*	*United States*	*France*	*Italy*	*Japan*
1900-1	$ 145,792,850	$ 61,721,696	$ 72,683,180	$ 23,829,206	$ 23,829,206
1905-6	161,117,947	109,725,059	61,565,779	24,494,400	11,378,202
1910-1	202,056,258	111,791,980	74,102,439	40,595,204	36,889,158
1913-4	237,530,459	136,858,301	90,164,625	49,550,147	48,105,152
1914-5	260,714,275	142,959,092	123,878,872	56,920,440	69,111,653
1915-6	1,001,202,544	152,821,541	143,012,400	135,736,207	63,000,000
1916-7	1,020,003,279	261,403,177	176,132,400	161,482,062	73,000,000
1917-8	1,136,944,455	1,214,995,767	312,800,020	224,933,966	85,000,000
1918-9	1,625,000,000	1,915,155,835	445,802,202	238,113,136	125,000,000
1919-20	787,644,000	613,321,892	174,829,243	45,711,604	150,000,000
1920-1	441,639,378	697,687,633	199,668,287	78,389,226	187,207,522
1921-2	400,847,940	425,848,079	181,509,986	81,068,743	249,318,539
1922-3[1]	315,800,000	298,307,369	155,000,000	163,000,000	138,000,000
1923-4[1]	282,250,000	297,097,250	216,500,000	148,500,000	197,000,000

[1]Appropriations and budget estimates rather than actual expenditures.

The warship tonnage of the five great naval Powers on July 1, 1919, and when the tonnage projected on that date would have been completed was as follows:—

Power	*July 1, 1919*	*On Completion of Projected Tonnage*
Great Britain	2,652,130	2,898,780
United States	1,160,355	2,155,668
France	623,850	870,990
Japan	580,716	847,966
Italy	454,293	601,543

Navigation:
Accidents in, resulting from criminal negligence in use of steam power, discussed, 1253.
Advancement in science of nautical affairs, 2670.
Appropriation for improvement of, recommended, 2666.
Bridges so constructed over waters as to obstruct, discussed, 4934.
Depressed state of, 559.
Extension of laws of, etc., referred to, 2544.
Laws of, having tendency to prolong War of 1812, should be revised, 525.
Prosperous condition of, 2404.
Referred to, 74, 77, 78, 81, 95, 227, 318, 346, 470, 480, 559, 2571.
Treaty with Spain regarding, 106, 110, 164.
Utility of canal, explained, 482, 785.

Navigation Act.—An important move in England's struggle with the Dutch for possession of the carrying trade of the world. The act was first promulgated in 1645, amplified in 1650, and renewed with a few changes by Charles II. in 1660. It related to five subjects—coasting trade, fisheries, commerce with the colonies, commerce with European countries, and commerce with Asia, Africa and America. The clauses of importance to American history were those providing that all colonial trade should be carried on in ships built and owned in England and the colonies and that in the case of many specified goods trade should be confined to English markets. The former clause acted as a powerful stimulant to colonial shipbuilding. The act was rendered largely inoperative by the prevalence of smuggling, and the efforts of Great Britain to enforce it were among the leading causes of the Revolution.

Navigation, Bureau of, Navy Department. (See Bureau of Navigation.)

Navigation Laws.—The Constitution gives Congress power to pass navigation laws in accordance with the principles of international law. By act of 1789 a tonnage tax of 6 cents per ton was levied on all American vessels and one of 50 cents a ton on all vessels built and owned in foreign countries and entering American ports, which practically gave a monopoly of American trade to American bottoms. In 1792 the act requiring American registration was passed. In 1793 the coasting trade was closed to foreign vessels. In 1816, 1817 and 1820 the American navigation laws were remodeled and made to correspond closely to those of Great Britain. Tonnage taxes, which had been abolished, were renewed at the outbreak of the Civil War. With the advent of iron vessels came the decrease in American shipbuilding and the decrease in the American marine was further due to the law forbidding any but American-built ships to fly the American flag. This restriction was, however, modified by the act of 1892. The act of 1886 reduced the tonnage rates considerably. (See Seamen's Act.)

Navigation Laws, recodification of, needed, 9349.

Navigators Islands. (See Samoan Islands.)

Navy.—During the Revolution this country had practically no navy. In September, 1775, the British troops, closely environed in Boston, could receive supplies only by water. To intercept these Washington detailed certain of his officers and men who were familiar with nautical matters to patrol Boston Harbor in small armed cruisers. Some of the states had already constructed vessels at public expense to protect their coast line. New England seamen cruised with such effect in Massachusetts Bay as not only to deprive the British garrisoned in Boston of their necessary supplies, but also to add to the resources of the Continental Army by the capture of numerous prizes. At the end of 1775 the Continental Congress began the construction of a navy by ordering thirteen frigates to be built. These performed some service, but most of the achievements of the war were by privateers. By 1781 all of the thirteen Federal vessels had been either captured or destroyed.

INSIGNIA OF RANK OF OFFICERS OF THE U. S. NAVY

COMMISSIONED LINE OFFICERS

COLLAR SLEEVE SHOULDER

ADMIRAL OF THE NAVY

COLLAR SLEEVE SHOULDER

ADMIRAL

VICE ADMIRAL

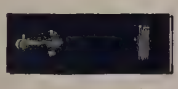
REAR ADMIRAL

CAPTAIN

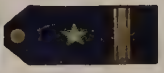
COMMANDER

LIEUTENANT COMMANDER

LIEUTENANT



LIEUTENANT JUNIOR GRADE



ENSIGN

STAFF OFFICERS' INSIGNIA—WORN ON COLLAR, WITH INSIGNIA OF RANK

MEDICAL CORPS

PAY CORPS

NAVAL CONSTRUCTOR

PROFESSOR MATHEMATICS

CIVIL ENGINEER

CHAPLAIN

DENTAL CORPS

SERVICE BUTTONS

U. S. NAVY

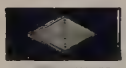
U. S. NAVAL RESERVE

U. S. COAST GUARD

U. S. PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

WARRANT OFFICERS' SLEEVE MARKS

CHIEF BOATSWAIN



CHIEF SAILMAKER

CHIEF GUNNER

CHIEF PHARMACIST

CHIEF MACHINIST

CHIEF PAY CLERK

CHIEF CARPENTER

MATE

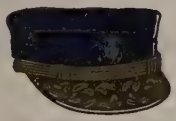
WARRANT OFFICERS' SLEEVE BRAIDING

CHIEF BOATSWAIN, GUNNER OR MACHINIST

CHIEF CARPENTER, SAILMAKER, PHARMACIST OR PAY CLERK

BOATSWAIN, GUNNER OR MACHINIST

CARPENTER, SAILMAKER, PHARMACIST OR PAY CLERK



FLAG OFFICER'S CAP

WARRANT OFFICER'S CAP

CAP INSIGNIA

COMMISSIONED OFFICERS

WARRANT OFFICERS

PETTY OFFICERS

NAVAL AVIATION CORPS

INSIGNIA OF PETTY OFFICERS U. S. NAVY AND MISCELLANEOUS INSIGNIA

PETTY OFFICERS' RATING BADGES AND SPECIALTY MARKS

CHIEF MASTER-AT-ARMS

BOATSWAIN'S MATE, FIRST CLASS

WORN ON SLEEVES OF COATS, OVERSHIRTS AND JUMPERS

THE NUMBER OF CHEVRONS INDICATE THE CLASS OF PETTY OFFICER. THE DISTINGUISHING MARK ABOVE THE CHEVRONS INDICATES THE PARTICULAR BRANCH TO WHICH THE PETTY OFFICER BELONGS

GUNNER'S MATE, SECOND CLASS

QUARTERMASTER, THIRD CLASS

MASTER-AT-ARMS

BOATSWAIN'S MATE

QUARTERMASTER

BLACKSMITH

TURRET CAPT.

CARPENTER'S MATE

GUNNER'S MATE

STOREKEEPER

YEOMAN

SAILMAKER'S MATE

PRINTER

ELECTRICIAN

MACHINIST'S MATE

HOSPITAL CORPS

MUSICIAN

COMMISSARY STEWARD

SEAMAN GUNNER

RADIO OPERATOR

GUN CAPTAIN

GUN POINTER, U. S. M. C.

TORPEDOMAN

COOK

EX-APPRENTICE

GUN POINTER, FIRST CLASS

NAVY E

GUN POINTER

BUGLER

EXPERT RIFLEMAN

ENLISTED MEN, NAVAL MILITIA

QUARTERMASTER AVIATION CORPS

CARPENTER, AVIATION CORPS

DRUMMER, U. S. M. C.

MACHINIST, AVIATION CORPS

MISCELLANEOUS INSIGNIA

U. S. NAVAL MILITIA

COMMANDER

FIRST CLASS

MIDSHIPMEN

SECOND CLASS

THIRD CLASS

FOURTH CLASS

U. S. COAST GUARD

SENIOR CAPTAIN

U. S. MARINE CORPS

MAJOR GENERAL COMMANDANT

MAJOR

FIRST LIEUTENANT

LIGHTHOUSE SERVICE

CHIEF ENGINEER

COAST AND GEODETIC SURVEY

GRADE 2

GRADE 1

PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

SURGEON GENERAL

SURGEON

MISCELLANEOUS CAP DEVICES

COAST GUARD

MARINE CORPS

LIGHTHOUSE SERVICE

COAST AND GEODETIC SURVEY

PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE

RED CROSS

AIR PLANE DISTINGUISHING MARKS

Y. M. C. A. SLEEVE MARK

UNITED STATES

GREAT BRITAIN

FRANCE

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS SLEEVE MARK

In 1797 and 1798, in anticipation of war with France, Congress authorized the construction of the *Constitution, United States,* and *Constellation* and the purchase of twenty-four other vessels. Hostilities with France having been averted, the newly acquired navy was used with good effect in resisting the Barbary States. At the outbreak of the War of 1812 the United States had about a score of vessels, three of them being first-class frigates—the *Constitution,* the *President,* and the *United States*—as against England's 830. The brilliant achievements of American vessels in that war secured increased appropriations. In 1816 $1,000,000 annually for eight years was appropriated.

By the law of 1819 the Navy was largely increased and a resolution provided for naming ships of the line after the states, frigates after the rivers of the United States, and sloops of war after the chief cities and towns. The vessels were divided among four squadrons and stationed in the Mediterranean, the Pacific, the West Indies, and on the coast of Brazil, and in 1841 an additional squadron was ordered to cruise along the coast of the United States. During the Mexican War the Gulf Squadron blockaded Vera Cruz and bombarded the fort of San Juan de Ulloa into submission, while the Pacific Squadron seized Monterey and Los Angeles, Cal.

At the outbreak of the Civil War the United States had only about forty vessels in commission. The character of naval warfare at this time had been changed by improved armament. The old wooden vessels were useless when opposed by the Whitworth and other modern guns of long range and heavy caliber. The turreted ironclad was born of the emergency. A new navy had to be constructed in order to maintain the blockade of Southern ports, and by Jan. 1, 1864, the National Government had over 600 vessels, seventy-five of them ironclads, with more than 4,600 guns and 35,000 men. After the war the Navy was reduced. Notwithstanding the appropriation of large sums of money, 1882 found the United States in possession of only 140 vessels, and more than 100 of these were incapable of sea service. In the following year, the policy of the so-called "new navy" went into effect.

The officers of the navy are trained for their profession at the United States Naval Academy at Annapolis (which see).

Salutes.—It is the custom of foreign ships of war entering the harbor, or in passing in the vicinity of a fort, to hoist at the fore the flag of the country in whose waters they are and salute it; on the completion of the salute to the flag, a salute (of twenty-one guns) is returned as soon as possible by the nearest fort or battery; if there are several forts or batteries in sight, or within the radius of six miles, the principal fort returns the salute. The Presidential salute of twenty-one guns was adopted that a uniformity in national salutes might be maintained, it being the same number of guns as the royal salute of England. Salutes in addition to the Presidential one are as follows: To the Vice-President of the United States and the President of the Senate, 19 guns; members of Cabinet, Chief Justice of United States, Speaker of the House of Representatives, 17 guns; rear-admiral, 13 guns; commodore, 11 guns; captain, 9 guns; to a sovereign or chief magistrate of any foreign country, 21 guns; to the heir apparent or consort of a reigning sovereign, 21 guns.

A salute in accordance with their rank is also given to the viceroy, governor-general or governors of provinces belonging to foreign states, to ambassadors extraordinary and plenipotentiary, to envoys extraordinary and plenipotentiary, to ministers resident accredited to the United States, to chargés d'affaires in charge of missions in the United States, to consuls-general accredited to the United States, and to officers of foreign services.

Pay.—All commissioned officers of the active list of the Navy receive the same pay according to rank and the term of service, the annual base pay of each grade being as follows:

Admiral (in command of fleet)	$10,000
Vice Admiral (second in command)	9,000
Rear Admiral (upper half)	8,000
Rear Admiral (lower half)	6,000
Commodore	6,000
Captain	4,000
Commander	3,500
Lieutenant Commander	3,000
Lieutenant	2,400
Lieutenant (junior grade)	2,000
Ensign	1,700

To each commissioned officer below the rank of rear admiral is allowed 10% of his yearly base pay for each five years of service in the Army, Navy or Marine Corps, but not exceeding in all 40%. Additional provision is made by law that the pay of a captain shall not exceed $5,000; of a commander, $4,500; and of a lieutenant commander, $4,000 yearly. All officers on sea or shore duty beyond the continental limits of the United States receive while so serving 10% additional of pay.

An officer on shore duty where no Government living quarters are furnished is paid an additional $12 monthly for each room to which he is entitled by his rank, as follows:—Rear admirals, 9 and 8 rooms; Captains, 7 rooms; Commander, 6; Lieutenant Commander, 5; Lieutenant, 4 and 3; Ensign, warrant officer and nurse, 2. There are also additional allowances for heat and light, depending upon the month and the place of duty.

Officers of the Navy appointed student naval aviators while detailed for duty involving actual flying in aircraft receive 35% additional pay of their rank; and those who qualified while so detailed receive an additional 50%.

Warrant officers are boatswains, gunners, pay clerks, machinists, carpenters, sailmakers, and pharmacists, and are paid during their first three years' service, $1,500 yearly if at sea; $1,125 if on shore; and $875 while waiting for orders. During the second three years' service, the pay is increased $125 yearly from the above amounts. During the third three years' service, there is an additional $125 yearly from the second three years' service, except in the case of being on shore, when the increase is $375. During the fourth three years' service, the increase is $250 while at sea, and $125 while on shore or while waiting for orders. After twelve years' service, the additional pay above the last figures is $250, the totals then for three classes being respectively $2,250, $2,000, and $1,500.

After six years from date of warrant, duly qualified warrant officers are commissioned chief warrant officers and receive the pay and allowances of ensigns. After six years from date of commission each commissioned warrant officer may be given the pay and allowance of a lieutenant of the junior grade, and twelve years after the date of commission the pay and allowance of a lieutenant.

The following table summarizes the ships of the Navy of the United States in the latter part of the year 1923. For the size of the Navy as affected by the naval treaties of the Armament Limitation Conference, which are now in effect, see pages 9077 to 9081.

	In Commission		*Under Construction or authorized*	
	No.	*Displacement Tons*	*No.*	*Displacement Tons*
Battleships, first line	19	533,245	8[1]	274,400[1]
Battle cruisers, first line	..	.....	4[2]	174,000[2]
Cruisers, second line	5	75,240	..	.....
Light cruisers, first line	4	30,000	6	45,000
Light cruisers, second line	4	13,350	..	.....
Aircraft carriers	..	.....	2	87,000
Aircraft carrier, second line	1	12,700	..	.....
Mine layers, second line	2	7,605	..	.....
Destroyers, first line	103	125,145	..	.....
Mine layers, light	6	7,146	..	.....
Submarines, first line	78	.....	27	.....
Submarines, second line	3	.....	..	.....
Patrol vessels, Eagles	26	13,000	..	.....
Patrol vessels, submarine chasers	32	.....	..	.....
Patrol vessels, gunboats	8	5,912	1	1,575
Patrol vessels, converted yachts	5	5,542	..	.....
Destroyer tenders	6	74,175	2	21,200
Submarine tenders	7	44,443	1	10,000
Repair ships	2	25,170	1	10,000
Store ships	3	38,100	..	.....
Aircraft tender	1	11,000	..	.....
Colliers	5	73,510	..	.....
Oilers	11	151,816	..	.....
Ammunition ships	2	21,200	..	.....
Cargo ships, auxiliary	6	52,245	..	.....
Transports	3	36,800	..	.....
Hospital ships	2	19,900	..	.....
Fleet tugs	29	25,789	..	.....
Mine sweepers	30	28,500	..	.....
Miscellaneous auxiliary	39	.....	..	.....

[1]Work suspended on seven of these. [2]Work suspended on all of these.

The following table describes the more important men-of-war of the United States Navy which were actually in commission in the latter part of 1923.

BATTLESHIPS, FIRST LINE

Completed	*Name*	*Displacement Tons*	*Main Armament*	*Speed Knots*	*Cost Construction*
1910	Delaware	20,000	Ten 12-inch	21.56	$8,235,917
1910	North Dakota	20,000	" "	21.01	8,551,481
1911	Florida	21,825	" "	22.08	10,359,979
1911	Utah	21,825	" "	21.04	8,504,492
1912	Arkansas	26,000	Twelve 12-inch	21.05	10,061,454
1912	Wyoming	26,000	" "	21.22	11,077,119
1913	Texas	27,000	Ten 14-inch	21.05	10,971,525
1914	New York	27,000	" "	21.47	11,323,131
1915	Nevada	27,500	" "	20.53	11,401,073
1915	Oklahoma	27,500	" "	20.58	11,548,573
1916	Pennsylvania	31,400	Twelve 14-inch	21.05	13,393,682
1917	Arizona	31,400	" "	21.0	12,705,750
1917	Mississippi	32,000	" "	21.0	14,625,980
1918	New Mexico	32,000	" "	21.0	15,988,217
1919	Idaho	32,000	" "	21.0	14,443,958
1920	Tennessee	32,300	" "	21.0	[1]18,437,154
1921	California	32,300	" "	21.0	[1]18,940,921
1921	Maryland	32,600	Eight 16-inch	21.0	[1]19,694,786
1922	Colorado	32,600	" "	21.0	[1]14,010,240

CRUISERS, SECOND LINE

1893	Rochester	9,700	Four 8-inch, eight 5-inch	21.0	4,378,989
1905	Pittsburgh	13,680	Four 8-inch, fourteen 6-inch	22.44	5,698,242
1905	Pueblo	13,680	" " " "	22.24	4,995,499
1906	Seattle	14,500	Four 10-inch, sixteen 6-inch	22.27	5,201,906
1908	Huron	13,680	Four 8-inch, fourteen 6-inch	22.15	5,509,094

LIGHT CRUISERS, FIRST LINE

1921	Omaha	7,500	Twelve 6-inch	33.7	[1]5,681,498
1922	Milwaukee	7,500	" "	33.7	[1]5,538,401
1922	Richmond	7,500	" "	33.7	[1]4,591,818
1923	Detroit	7,500	" "	33.7	[1]3,253,396

LIGHT CRUISERS, SECOND LINE

1903	Cleveland	3,200	Eight 5-inch	16.45	1,370,202
1904	Denver	3,200	" "	16.75	1,372,955
1904	Tacoma	3,200	" "	16.58	1,368,640
1908	Birmingham	3,750	Four 5-inch, two 3-inch	24.33	1,953,950

[1]As of June 30, 1921.

The following table shows the more important vessels of the Navy in process of construction toward the end of the year 1923. The dates are the years in which authorized.

Completed	Name	Displacement Tons	Main Armament	Speed Knots	Cost Construction
		BATTLESHIP, FIRST LINE			
1916	West Virginia	32,600	Eight 16-inch	21.0	
		AIRCRAFT CARRIERS			
1916	Lexington	43,500	Eight 16-inch	33.25	
1916	Saratoga	43,500	Eight 16-inch	33.25	
		LIGHT CRUISERS, FIRST LINE			
1916	Cincinnati	7,500	Twelve 6-inch	33.7	
1916	Raleigh	7,500	" "	33.7	
1917	Concord	7,500	" "	33.7	
1918	Marblehead	7,500	" "	33.7	
1918	Memphis	7,500	" "	33.7	
1918	Trenton	7,500	" "	33.7	

The following table shows the more important vessels of the Navy which had been in process of construction when work on them was suspended before the latter part of 1923. The dates are the years in which authorized.

		BATTLESHIPS, FIRST LINE			
1916	Washington	32,600	Eight 16-inch	21.0	
1917	Indiana	43,200	Twelve 16-inch	23.0	[1]$21,000,000
1917	Montana	43,200	" "	23.0	[1]21,000,000
1917	South Dakota	43,200	" "	23.0	[1]21,000,000
1918	Iowa	43,200	" "	23.0	
1918	Massachusetts	43,200	" "	23.0	
1918	North Carolina	43,200	" "	23.0	[1]21,000,000
		BATTLE CRUISERS, FIRST LINE			
1916	Constellation	43,500	Eight 16-inch	33.25	
1916	Ranger	43,500	" "	33.25	
1917	Constitution	43,500	" "	33.25	[1]23,000,000
1918	United States	43,500	" "	33.25	[1]23,000,000

[1]Limit of cost of hull and machinery only.

The following table describes the more important men-of-war of the United States out of commission, including those ordered out of commission in the latter part of 1923. The first thirteen were formerly considered first line battleships, but were later classed as second line battleships.

1906	Rhode Island	14,948	Four 12-inch, eight 8-inch	19.01	$6,456,778
1906	Virginia	14,948	" " " "	19.01	6,406,763
1906	New Jersey	14,948	" " " "	19.18	6,413,456
1906	Georgia	14,948	" " " "	19.26	6,535,288
1907	Nebraska	14,948	" " " "	19.06	6,621,197
1906	Connecticut	16,000	" " " "	18.78	7,705,603
1906	Louisiana	16,000	" " " "	18.82	7,342,063
1907	Minnesota	16,000	" " " "	18.85	7,449,487
1907	Vermont	16,000	" " " "	18.33	7,363,744
1907	Kansas	16,000	" " " "	18.09	7,346,681
1908	New Hampshire	16,000	" " " "	18.16	7,066,771
1910	Michigan	16,000	Eight 12-inch	18.79	6,655,774
1910	South Carolina	16,000	" "	18.86	6,671,886
		CRUISERS, SECOND LINE			
1905	Charleston	9,700	Twelve 6-inch	22.04	$3,696,869
1908	Charlotte	14,500	Four 10-inch, sixteen 6-inch	21.91	5,524,760
1905	Frederick	13,680	Four 8-inch, fourteen 6-inch	22.41	5,432,143
1905	Huntington	13,680	" " " "	22.15	5,400,787
1908	Missoula	14,500	Four 10-inch, sixteen 6-inch	22.26	5,790,347
1906	St. Louis	9,700	Twelve 6-inch	22.13	3,765,070
		LIGHT CRUISERS, SECOND LINE			
1900	Albany	3,430	Eight 5-inch	20.52	Bought
1905	Chattanooga	3,200	" "	16.65	$1,637,274
1908	Chester	3,750	Four 5-inch	26.52	2,080,870
1904	Des Moines	3,200	Eight 5-inch	16.65	1,465,409
1904	Galveston	3,200	" "	16.41	1,677,766
1905	New Orleans	3,430	" "	20.00	Bought
1898	Olympia	5,865	Ten 5-inch	21.69	2,754,879
1908	Salem	3,750	Four 5-inch	25.95	1,929,582

While warrant officers are attached to a sea-going ship they are paid a ration allowance of $.40 daily.

All officers in the regular Navy must provide their own uniforms and pay for their subsistence both afloat and ashore.

Pay for the Enlisted Personnel.—The enlisted personnel of the Navy is of extremely complicated and lengthy classification, according to the duties assigned; and pay is according to classification, even within the separate groups.

The following table gives the total appropriations for our navy in recent years, including both naval appropriation bills and miscellaneous acts:—

1883	$ 16,920,288.80
1884	10,689,149.26
1885	22,606,315.97
1886	17,411,700.21
1887	25,824,105.58
1888	20,977,832.61
1889	23,655,537.44
1890	25,454,850.75
1891	32,776,040.64
1892	23,994,238.84
1893	22,625,615.06
1894	25,691,900.47
1895	29,586,656.09
1896	31,458,822.13
1897	35,391,012.06
1898	144,556,940.77
1899	57,297,569.78
1900	66,949,286.62
1901	83,020,090.23
1902	85,347,345.29
1903	84,993,697.99
1904	103,852,170.96
1905	118,459,897.51
1906	105,815,342.50
1907	100,893,431.98
1908	130,013,153.60
1909	140,042,655.85
1910	133,216,693.19
1911	127,818,681.48
1912	129,739,055.88
1913	142,744,167.27
1914	148,254,332.41
1915	151,033,908.03
1916	318,212,207.77
1917	1,045,044,084.85
1918	2,951,434,503.86
1919	636,383,894.56
1920 and 1921	775,203,007.17
Total	$8,145,348,185.46

Chief petty officers average a monthly pay of $68.85, but all chief petty officers who have served as such for one year with credit are given a permanent appointment at $83.00 monthly.

Petty officers of the first class receive, on the average, the monthly pay of $56.42.

Petty officers of the second class receive an average monthly pay of $48.11.

Petty officers of the third class average a monthly pay of $41.00.

Seamen of the first class average monthly pay of $40.76.

Seamen of the second class average monthly pay of $38.38.

Seamen of the third class average monthly pay of $33.80.

Messmen average monthly pay of $49.75.

Additional monthly amounts are paid as follows: $1.50 for each successive reenlistment within four months of date of honorable discharge from previous enlistment. $5.50 for first reenlistment and $3.30 for each subsequent reenlistment if a citizen of the United States and completed previous enlistment. $1.20 per hour spent under water for divers. $5.00 per month for submarine service. There are also many other additional increases for various forms of special or trained work.

A man detained beyond the expiration of his enlistment receives one-fourth of all pay in addition while so detained.

A man receives a gratuity of four months' pay if he reenlists within four months of and presents an honorable discharge from his last enlistment.

Clothing and small stores are furnished free of charge to all enlisted men on their first enlistment. Afterwards articles drawn are furnished at cost price.

Subsistence is furnished enlisted men by the Government. Men on detached duty are furnished money in place of subsistence.

Transportation to their homes is furnished men discharged.

Retired List.—Officers on the retired list receive three-fourths of their active duty pay. Enlisted men are retired after 30 years' service, and receive three-fourths of the total pay and allowances they received at date of retirement and cash in lieu of quarters and subsistence.

When first called into active service in time of war or national emergency a uniform gratuity of $150 is allowed each officer of the Naval Reserve and $60 each enlisted man.

Dependents.—All enlisted men must contribute to the support of their immediate families not more than 50% of their pay and not less than $15 monthly. On application, the Government will add to this allotment an allowance of its own of from $5 to $50 per month, according to the size of the family. The amount thus given by the government is fixed by law as follows: $15 for a wife, $25 for a wife and child, $32.50 for a wife and two children, with $5 for each additional child. The sums are monthly. The enlisted men must contribute an amount equal to the government allowance unless such contribution would exceed 50% of their pay.

Insignia.—The personnel of our Navy (excepting aviators) wear blue or white uniforms. Aviators wear "khaki" or "Olive-drab." Insignia denoting rank of officers of the Naval Service consist of cap, shoulder, collar and sleeve devices, and specialty marks. (See colored plate: Insignia of Rank U. S. Navy.)

The Navy Year Book published by the Government in 1923 showed that the average cost of maintaining ships of the Navy in commission for the fiscal year 1921 averaged $2,373,795 for first line battleships and $1,139,415 for second line; $731,732 for armored cruisers; $1,030,089 for first line, $885,413 for second line and $702,147 for third line cruisers; $280,885 for destroyers and $85,233 for submarines.

The Navy Department estimated in 1922 that the total investment represented in the ships, shore stations, equipment and stores of the United States Navy was more than $3,000,000,000, with more than $1,000,000,000 invested in the stores ashore and afloat.

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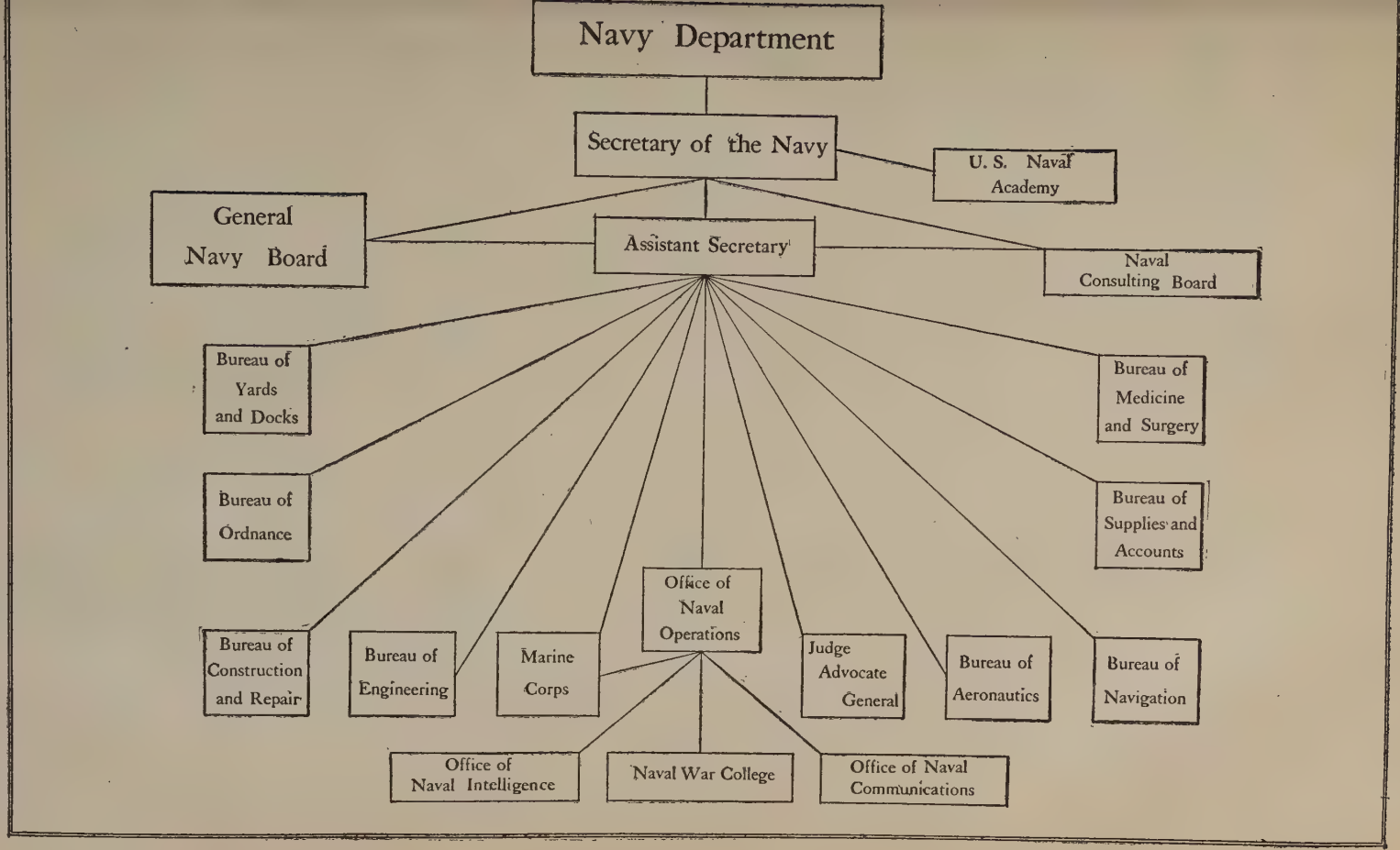
Navy Department
Secretary of the Navy
U. S. Naval Academy
General Navy Board
Assistant Secretary
Naval Consulting Board
Bureau of Yards and Docks
Bureau of Medicine and Surgery
Bureau of Ordnance
Bureau of Supplies and Accounts
Office of Naval Operations
Bureau of Construction and Repair
Bureau of Engineering
Marine Corps
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Grant, 4150, 4202, 4249, 4304, 4362.
Harrison, Benj., 5479, 5551, 5635, 5758.
Hayes, 4565.
Jackson, 1022, 1392, 1411, 1476.
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Lincoln, 3385, 3450.
McKinley, 6344.
Madison, 455, 461, 471, 504, 513, 538, 551.
Monroe, 594, 615, 618, 631, 649, 677, 765.
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Upon the adoption of the Constitution, in 1789, naval matters were placed under the jurisdiction of the War Department and so remained until April 30, 1798, when in consequence of depredations of French cruisers, twelve new ships were added to the fleet; and the modern Department of the Navy was organized with a Secretary at its head. In 1815 a board of three "Navy Commissioners" was created which was charged with the duty of procuring naval stores, of constructing and equipping vessels and of superintending the navy yards; the order creating these Commissioners expressly provides that they should not interfere with the powers of the Secretary of the Navy Department.

In 1842 five bureaus, namely, Navy Yards and Docks, Construction, Equipment and Repairs, Clothing and Provisions, Ordnance and Hydrography, and Medicine and Surgery took the place of the Commissioners. Another reorganization took place in 1862 which placed the Department substantially upon its present basis. The Hydrographic Office was then established and the office of Judge-Advocate-General, created in 1865, was reorganized in 1880. Although assistants to the Secretary had been from time to time appointed before that date, it was not till 1890 that the office of Assistant Secretary was established.

The Secretary of the Navy has the general supervision of the work of the Department, and, although under the Constitution the President is Commander-in-chief of the Navy, the official acts of the Secretary are final. The details of the Secretary's duties are executed by different Bureaus, each presided over by a naval officer having the actual or nominal rank of Rear-Admiral. The Bureau of Navigation attends to the promulgation and enforcement of the Secretary's orders; the education of officers (see Naval Academy); the enlistment and education of enlisted men; keeps their records and preserves the Naval Register; and directs the enforcement of all regulations. It directs the Naval Observatory, including the preparation of the *Nautical Almanac*, and it directs the Hydrographic Office, whose duties are concerned with the preparation of charts and the gathering of information upon all varieties of nautical subjects. The Bureau of

Ordnance supervises the manufacture of offensive and defensive armor and apparatus, and, in connection with the Bureau of Construction and Repairs, their installation on the ships. The Bureau of Construction and Repairs designs and constructs war-ships, has charge of the docking of the ships and repairing all permanent fixtures. The Bureau of Engineering constructs and repairs all machinery on the Navy's ships. The Bureau of Medicine and Surgery has charge of and furnishes supplies to the Medical Department and all naval hospitals. The Bureau of Supplies and Accounts furnishes all the general supplies and keeps all naval accounts. The Bureau of Yards and Docks attends to the design and construction of all public works under the Navy and Marine Corps; and the Bureau of Aeronautics has charge of the Naval and Marine Corps aircraft.

In addition to these Bureaus, the offices of the Judge-Advocate-General form the law department of the Navy. The Commandant of Marines is the head of the Marine Corps (q. v.). The General Board, composed of naval officers of various grades, advises the Secretary on technical matters and submits plans for naval manœuvres, etc.

Naval Schools.—There was established on board the *Des Moines*, in 1913, a school for academic, vocational and technical instruction of enlisted men. The experiment met with such success that it was proposed to install the school generally upon the ships and at the shore stations of the navy. Four schools are now maintained for training recruits—at Newport, Norfolk, Chicago and San Francisco.

For more detailed information as to the scope and activities of the Navy Department consult the index references to the Presidents' Messages and Encyclopedic articles under the following headings:

Bureau of Construction and Repair.
Bureau of Medicine and Surgery.
Bureau of Navigation.
Bureau of Ordnance.
Bureau of Engineering.
Bureau of Yards and Docks.
Hydrographic office.
Judge Advocate General.
Marine Corps.
Marine, Secretary of.
Nautical Almanac.
Naval Academy.
Naval Consulting Board.
Naval Militia.
Naval Observatory.
Naval Reserve.
Naval War College.
Navigation Act.
Navigation Laws.
Navy Yards.
Office naval operations.

Following is a list of the secretaries of the Navy and the Presidents under whom they served:

President	Secretary of the Navy	Appointed
Adams	George Cabot, Massachusetts	1798
"	Benjamin Stoddert, Maryland	1798
Jefferson	" "	1801
"	Robert Smith, Maryland	1801
"	Jacob Crowninshield, Mass.	1805
Madison	Paul Hamilton, South Carolina	1809
"	William Jones, Pennsylvania	1813
"	B. W. Crowninshield, Mass.	1814
Monroe	" "	1817
"	Smith Thompson, New York	1818
"	Samuel L. Southard, New Jersey	1823
J.Q.Adams	" "	1825
Jackson	John Branch, North Carolina	1829
"	Levi Woodbury, NewHampshire	1831
"	Mahlon Dickerson, New Jersey	1834
Van Buren	" "	1837
"	James K. Paulding, New York	1838
Harrison	George E. Badger, N. Carolina	1841
Tyler	" "	1841
"	Abel P. Upshur, Virginia	1841
"	David Henshaw, Massachusetts	1843
"	Thomas W. Gilmer, Virginia	1844
"	John Y. Mason, Virginia	1844
Polk	George Bancroft, Massachusetts	1845
"	John Y. Mason, Virginia	1846
Taylor	William B. Preston, Virginia	1849
Fillmore	William A. Graham, N. Carolina	1850
"	John P. Kennedy, Maryland	1852
Pierce	James C. Dobbin, N. Carolina	1853
Buchanan	Isaac Toucey, Connecticut	1857
Lincoln	Gideon Welles, Connecticut	1861
Johnson	" "	1865
Grant	Adolph E. Borie, Pennsylvania	1869
"	George M. Robeson, New Jersey	1869
Hayes	Richard W. Thompson, Indiana	1877
"	Nathan Goff, Jr., West Virginia	1881
Garfield	William H. Hunt, Louisiana	1881
Arthur	Wm. E. Chander, N. Hampshire	1882
Cleveland	William C. Whitney, New York	1885
B. Harrison	Benjamin F. Tracy, New York	1889
Cleveland	Hilary A. Herbert, Alabama	1893
McKinley	John D. Long, Massachusetts	1897
Roosevelt	" "	1901
"	William H. Moody, Mass.	1902
"	Paul Morton, Illinois	1904
"	C. J. Bonaparte, Maryland	1905
"	Victor H. Metcalf, California	1907
"	Truman H. Newberry, Michigan	1908
Taft	George von L. Meyer, Mass.	1909
Wilson	Josephus Daniels, N. Carolina	1913
Harding	Edwin Denby, Michigan	1921

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Navy Yards.—Yards, docks, and shops for construction and repair of vessels, and stations for coaling, storing supplies, and as bases for operation are maintained by the Navy Department as follows:

1. New York Navy Yard, Brooklyn, N. Y.
2. Boston Navy Yard, Boston, Mass.
3. Norfolk Navy Yard, near Norfolk, Va.
4. Portsmouth Navy Yard, Portsmouth, N. H.
5. Philadelphia Navy Yard, Philadelphia, Pa.
6. Mare Island Navy Yard, near San Francisco, Cal.
7. Washington Navy Yard, Washington, D. C.
8. Puget Sound Navy Yard, Bremerton, Wash.
9. Charleston Navy Yard, Charleston, S. C.

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Near Eastern Division, State Department.—This division was organized in 1909 by Secretary of State Knox. It falls under the supervision of the third assistant secretary of state (q. v.); and it has charge of matters other than administrative in Germany, Austria-Hungary, Russia, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria, Montenegro, Turkey, Greece, Italy, Abyssinia, Persia, Egypt and the colonies of these countries. (See State Department.)

Nebraska.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "Black Water State." Motto, "Equality before the law." It extends from lat. 40° to 43° north and from long. 95° 25′ to 104° west. It is bounded on the north by South Dakota (partly separated by the Missouri River), on the east by Iowa and Missouri (separated from both by the Missouri River), on the south by Kansas and Colorado, and on the west by Colorado and Wyoming, and has an area of 77,520 square miles.

Nebraska originally formed part of the Louisiana Purchase and was later made a part of the Territory of Missouri. It was made a Territory in 1854, and included portions of the Dakotas, Montana, Wyoming and Colorado. Nebraska was admitted to the Union in 1867. The State takes its name from the river. It was first permanently settled at Bellevue in 1847.

The State is one of the first in the production of corn, being extremely fertile in the eastern part and along the Platte River. Its principal industries are agriculture and stock raising, slaughtering and meat packing, South Omaha being one of the great cattle markets of the world. Butter, cheese, condensed milk and kindred dairy products are the chief manufactured products.

In 1910, the population was 1,192,214. The figure in 1920 was 1,295,502. In 1910, there were 175,865 foreign-born, of whom 57,302 were German. In 1910, 26% of the population was urban. The total school population at latest reports was 387,394, of whom the enrolment in the public schools was 292,362, with an average daily attendance of 219,246 and with a teaching staff of 12,697. In addition, there were 368 public high schools, with 1,121 teachers and 3,804 students.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census place the number of farms in the State at 129,678, comprising 38,622,021 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $2,079,817,647. The average value of land per acre was $41.80, an increase from $16.27 in 1900.

The latest annual statistics for the agricultural production are as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	7,030,000	184,186,000	$224,707,000
Wheat	4,384,000	60,675,000	122,564,000
Hay	1,769.000	4,300,000a	60,185,000
Oats	2,133,000	69,960,000	45,475,000
Potatoes	115,000	6,325,000	12,018,000
Sugar Beets.	59,750	580,285a	5,780,000

a-tons.

In addition, there is much raising of fruit and the apple crop is important. The raising of stock is prosecuted on a large scale. The latest figures for the farm animals are as follows:—Horses, 1,018,000, valued at $76,350,000; 106,000 mules, $11,554,000; cows, 601,000, $49,883,000; other cattle, 2,911,000, $131,868,000; sheep, 323,000, $3,585,000; swine, 3,366,000, $70,349,000. The last annual wool clip was estimated at 1,730,000 pounds.

Nebraska's only mines are those of silica. There is some quarrying of sandstone and limestone, and a considerable output of bricks and tiles.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Nebraska having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 2,493. The amount of capital invested was $121,020,000, giving employment to 33,695 persons, using material valued at $174,114,000, and turning out finished goods worth $221,616,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $24,011,000.

Nebraska (see also Omaha):
Act—
Extending time of payment to purchasers of Indian lands in, vetoed, 5525.
For admission of, into Union, vetoed, 3687.
For sale of Indian reservation in, 4656.
To provide for lease of Fort Omaha Military Reservation to, vetoed, 6119.
Admission of, into Union, proclaimed, 3714.
Indian lands in, titles to, extinguished, proclaimed, 5535.
Memorial from citizens of, regarding creation of new Territory, 3111.
Military forces sent to and reasons therefor, discussed, 4673.
Public lands in, survey of, referred to, 4959.
Red Cloud Agency in, deficiency in supplies at, 4312, 4313.
Supplies issued, suffering people in, referred to, 4272.
Survey-general in, recommendations for discontinuance of office of, 4959.

Negotiations, Diplomatic, Breaking of. (See Diplomatic Negotiations, Breaking of.)

Negro Exposition, appropriation for, and proclamation of, 8064.

Negro Plot.—An alleged attempt on the part of certain negroes, incited and assisted by whites, to burn New York City. March 18, 1741, a fire occurred in the chapel and barracks of Fort George. It was at first thought to be accidental, but eight other fires of unaccountable origin within a month strengthened the allegation of one Mary Burton, a servant in the employ of John Hughson, that a number of negroes and sailors were implicated in a plot to destroy the town. It was charged that the Spanish were inciting plots among the negroes. Twenty whites and more than 160 negro slaves were imprisoned. Four whites and 18 negroes were hanged and 13 others were burned at the stake before the excitement abated.

Negro Troops.—In early Revolutionary days and in the first two years of the Civil War negro troops were employed to a limited extent. In July, 1863, a general provision was made for their enlistment in the Union Army and numbers were in service. Since the Civil War there have always been negro troops in the regular army. They served in the war with Spain in 1898, and proved to be less subject to the prevailing fever and the enervating effects of heat than white soldiers.

Negroes in the United States.—The first negroes to be imported into the United States were landed as slaves at Jamestown, Virginia, in 1619. Within the next one hundred years from 55,000 to 60,000 were landed, mostly from the west coast of Africa, although many came also from the West Indies. Their commercial value, especially in the agricultural processes of the South, was realized particularly in the eighteenth century, and by 1750 it is estimated that there were 300,000 negroes in the United States. When the first United

States census was taken in 1790, it was found that there were 757,208 negroes in the United States at that time. Further importation of negro slaves was forbidden in 1808, but nevertheless from this date up to the Civil War many negroes were smuggled into the country as slaves. The increase in the negro population in the last century, however, has been shown to be due mostly to its natural increase.

For the history of the Slavery movement and discussions of it, consult the articles under that head.

In 1800 negroes constituted 19% of the population; in 1830, 18%; in 1860, 14%; in 1880, 13%; in 1890, 12%; in 1900, 11½%; in 1910, 10.7%; in 1920, 9.9%.

After the close of the Civil War, the South for some years was under the political control of the negroes, and the situation was so difficult that since 1890 the negro has been generally disenfranchised by the constitutions of the Southern states.

In 1915, there were 3,685,097 negro church communicants, of whom 2,294,000 were Baptists and 1,183,000 were Methodists.

The negro population of the United States in recent census years has been as follows:—

1870	4,880,009	1900	8,833,994
1880	6,580,793	1910	9,827,763
1890	7,488,788	1920	10,463,131

The following table shows the negro population of those cities of over 100,000 inhabitants where negroes are present in large numbers, together with their percentage of the entire population of those cities:—

New York City	152,487	2¾%
Philadelphia	134,229	7½
Washington	109,966	25
Chicago	109,458	4
Baltimore	108,322	14¾
New Orleans	100,930	26
Birmingham	70,230	39¼
St. Louis	69,854	9
Atlanta	62,796	31¼
Memphis	61,181	37¾
Richmond	54,041	31½
Norfolk	43,392	37½
Detroit	40,888	4
Louisville	40,087	17
Pittsburgh	37,725	6½
Nashville	35,633	30
Indianapolis	34,678	11
Cleveland	34,451	4¼
Houston	33,960	24½
Kansas City, Mo.	30,719	9½
Cincinnati	30,079	7½

The states with the largest percentage of negroes are as follows:—

Mississippi	52¼%	D. Columbia	25%
S. Carolina	51½	Tennessee	19¼
Georgia	41¾	Maryland	17
Louisiana	39	Texas	16
Alabama	38½	Delaware	13½
Florida	34	Kentucky	9¾
Virginia	30	Oklahoma	7½
N. Carolina	29¾	W. Virginia	6
Arkansas	27	Missouri	5¼

In the years from 1910 to 1920, the negro population of the South Atlantic states decreased from 33¾% to 31% of the whole; of the East South Central states, from 31½% to 28½%; of the West South Central states, from 22½% to 20% of the whole.

In 1910, 72½% of the negro population lived in rural districts; in 1920, 66%.

For illiteracy among negroes by states, see Illiteracy. The proportion has decreased from 70% in 1880, 44½% in 1900, 30½% in 1910 to 23% in 1920.

The 1920 Census showed 48% of the male negroes gainfully employed as in agriculture, etc.; 24% in manufacturing and mechanical pursuits; 9½% in transportation; and 8½% in personal and domestic service. Of the negro women gainfully employed, 50¼% were in domestic and personal service and 39% in agriculture, etc.

There were 925,708 negro farm operators (705,070 tenants, 218,612 owners and 2,026 managers), occupying more than 40,000,000 acres of land and farm property valued at more than two and one-fourth billions.

For the Death Rate and Birth Statistics for negroes, consult those headings.

Negroes (see also Freedmen; Liberia):
Colonization of—
Discussed, 3255, 3328, 3341, 3401, 3588.
In Mexico, and action taken by United States for relief of, discussed, 6066, 6096.
Vessels to bring back, 3433.
Education and industrial training, recommended, 7032.
Emigration of—
Agreement with Bernard Koch for, canceled, 3368.
Discussed, 3653.
Exposition to commemorate achievements of, 8064.
Freedom of, centennial celebration of, 7439.
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Patriotism of, recalled and commended, 7377.
Problem of, discussed by President—
Coolidge, 9348.
Harding, 8946.
Roosevelt, 7029, 7032.
Taft, 7376.
Recruiting of, in War between the States, order regarding, 6335.
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Discharged for misconduct, 7329.
In Civil War—
Employment of, for military purposes, order regarding, 3318.
Enslaved and executed, retaliatory measures for, 3378.
Opinion of Attorney-General on rights of, referred to, 3410.
Recruiting of, order for, 3318.
Services of, discussed, 3389.
Troubles with, discussed by President Roosevelt, 7335.
Riot against, at New Orleans, illustration, opposite 3888.
Sale of, taken from United States by British forces, referred to, 6278.
To be employed for military purposes in war between the States, order regarding, 3318.
Welfare of, discussed by President Taft, 7376.

Nepal.—A state in southern Asia, north of India and south of Tibet. Internally, it is independent, but its foreign affairs are guided by the British Government of India. Its area is approximately 54,000 square miles. The dominant race is the Gurkhali, or Gurkha, descendants of Brahmans and Rajputs who retreated from India during the Mohammedan invasions of the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, and conquered the country in the eighteenth century A. D. The inhabitants are almost entirely Buddhists, but their languages differ according to racial distinctions, the Gurkha dialect being of Sanskrit origin, and the remaining dialects akin to Tibetan. The population is estimated at 5,600,000.

Physical Features.—The Himalayas traverse the centre of western Nepal, and extend along the northern boundary of the eastern division, where the highest peak of the whole range, Mount Everest, rises to 29,002 feet above sea level, the greatest land altitude yet ascertained.

Western Nepal contains many fertile valleys north and south of the range, and the southern portion of eastern Nepal contains low-lying alluvial land known as the tarai.

History.—The conquest of Nepal by the Gurkhas was completed in 1765, since which date the whole country has been under the hereditary rule of the Sahi dynasty. Since 1816 the actual power has been in the hands of successive Prime Ministers. The southern trend of the Gurkha conquests led to a war with the British Government of India in 1814-1816, since which time a British resident has been accepted at Katmandu.

Government.—Internal affairs are unfettered, but foreign relations are controlled by the Government of India, and by arrangement with Nepal, India obtains many fine recruits for its Gurkha regiments.

Education.—Education is provided by the State free of cost in a central college at the capital, with branch schools in the surrounding district. Instruction is given in Sanskrit, Urdu, and English, and there is a considerable sprinkling of English-speaking Nepalese.

Finance.—The revenue is derived from land rents, forests, customs duties, mining royalties and monopolies, and exceeds $5,000,000. The trade with India bears a duty each way of about 12 per cent.

Production and Industry.—Every available acre is cultivated for the production of grain, fruit and foodstuffs, and the live stock (which consists only of a few sheep and cattle) is grazed in the jungles or stall-fed. The principal crop is rice, and wheat, pulse, maize and other grains are grown, while fruit, flowers and vegetables are freely cultivated. In the hills tea, cotton and tobacco are grown, and hemp, dye plants and medicinal herbs are obtained.

Gold, silver, lignite and coal have been found, and iron, copper, zinc, lead and sulphur are plentiful. Limestone and marbles abound in central Nepal, and there are numerous mineral springs.

Coarse cottons, paper, bells, brass and iron metal work, weapons, and gold and silver ornaments are the principal manufactures. The dominant Gurkha race despises trade and peaceful industries, which are in the hands of the Newars, a subject Mongol race.

The chief exports are cattle, hides and skins, opium and other drugs, gums and resins, dyes, jute, wheat, rice and other grains, tobacco, timber, etc. The chief imports are cattle, sheep and goats, salts and spices, sugar, tobacco, cotton and woolen goods, etc. In a recent year, Nepal sent to India goods valued at $12,500,000 and imported from India goods valued at $7,000,000.

Nero, The, soundings taken by, 6719.

Nesqually Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Nesqually, Wash., proclaimed port of delivery, 2588.

Netherlands.—The kingdom of the Netherlands is a maritime country of northwest Europe, extending from 53° 32′ 21″ to 50° 45′ 49″ N. lat., and from 3° 23′ 27″ to 7° 12′ 20″ E. long. The greatest length from north to south is 164 miles, and the greatest breadth is 123 miles. The kingdom is bounded on the east by Germany, and on the south by Belgium, the northern and western boundaries being the North Sea. At the northeastern extremity the boundary crosses the Dollart, a basin at the mouth of the river Ems.

Physical Features.—The coast of the southwest provinces of Zeeland and South Holland, and of the northern provinces of Friesland and Groningen is broken in many places, and groups of islands have been formed by the inroads of the sea. For nearly 200 miles, however, the western coast consists of unbroken sand dunes, protected from the sea by breakwaters, and on the landward side by plantations. The southern archipelago lies between the estuaries of the Meuse and Scheldt, and north of the Meuse estuary is an irregular land formation known as the Hook of Holland; the northern archipelago extends in a semi-circle from the Texel Gat to the Ems basin. Behind the chain of northern islands or Frisian archipelago, are the great gulf or inland sea, known as the Zuyder Zee, or South Sea, to distinguish it from the external North Sea, the northeastern Shallows or Wadden, and the inundated Ems basin, or Dollart, all of which were formed during the thirteenth century by inroads through the original coast line, now marked by the chain of Frisian islands. The area of the Zuyder Zee and Wadden extends 2,000 English square miles, and the Netherlands portion of the Dollart twenty-three square miles, giving a total area for the kingdom of the Netherlands of close on 14,800 English square miles.

As the name implies, the Netherlands are generally low-lying and flat. Of the total land area, 12,582 squares miles, nearly 5,000 square miles would be submerged at high water but for the protecting barriers of sand dunes, dikes and dams, the latter accounting for many of the place names in the country.

The principal rivers are the Rhine (Rijn) and the Meuse (Maas), the former crossing the eastern border from Germany and flowing in several branches to the North Sea and Zuyder Zee, and the latter traversing the province of Limburg and flowing to the North Sea. The estuaries of the Scheldt (Schelde) are also in Netherlands territory. The country is also intersected with lesser streams, and these are turned to account for the purposes of navigation, irrigation and land drainage, and are connected by numerous artificial canals, or gracbts, lined with trees and studded with windmills. The intervening land often consists of drained morasses, or polders, transformed into fertile agricultural or grazing land. In addi

tion to the communicating canals there are many ship canals, the largest being the New Waterway from Rotterdam to the Hook of Holland, and the North Sea Canal from Amsterdam and the Zuyder Zee, along the bed of the river Y to Ymuiden on the North Sea coast. There are many inland lakes, or meers, particularly in the northeast, of much importance to the fishing industry, but the principal hydrographical feature is the Zuyder Zee, a land-locked inlet about eighty-four miles from north to south, and forty-five miles from east to west at its widest part. The mean depth is between 11 and 12 English feet, and the nature of much of the bed has prompted several drainage projects, the reclaimed soil being capable of practical cultivation. The present Government are preparing fresh proposals for the reclamation of large portions of the Zuyder Zee.

History.—The territory now known as the Netherlands was incorporated as a Province of the Roman Empire in the first century, A. D., being at that time peopled by various Germanic tribes, the names of the Batavi and the Frisii being still preserved in the kingdom. As the Roman empire crumbled to pieces, the south Netherlands became part of the Frankish dominions, and the inhabitants were converted to Christianity, but the Frisians of the north retained their independence and heathendom until the eighth century, when they were subdued and converted by Charlemagne, himself a Netherlander by descent. The twelfth century witnessed the rise of the towns, but by the fifteenth century the lordship of these towns had passed with that of most of the feudal states to the rulers of Burgundy, and the overlordship passed successively to France and Austria and so to the head of the Holy Roman empire, and at the abdication of Charles V. to his son Philip II., King of Spain. The sixteenth and seventeenth centuries witnessed the beginnings of the Reformation and the rise of the Dutch Republic. The religious dissensions had divided the country into a Protestant Northern Netherlands and Catholic Southern Netherlands, the latter forming the country now known as Belgium. The Netherlands were acknowledged to be independent by the Treaty of Münster (1648), and in 1688 their Stadtholder, William, Prince of Orange, who had married the daughter of the Duke of York (James II.), became King William III. of Great Britain. From 1700-1713 the Netherlands were the scene of many battles of the War of the Spanish Succession, and at the close of the eighteenth century the people threw over their Stadtholder (whose office had been declared hereditary in 1747) and the Batavian Republic was set up under the protection of the French Republic, but in 1806 Louis Bonaparte, brother of the Emperor Napoleon, was crowned King of Holland. By the Treaty of London (June 14, 1814) the Northern and Southern Netherlands (the Dutch and Belgian provinces) were united and formed into the Kingdom of the Netherlands, under the Prince of Orange-Nassau, a descendant of the house which had taken a leading part in the destiny of the nation since the thirteenth century. This prince was crowned in 1815 as King William I., but the artificial union of Protestant and Catholic countries broke down in 1830-1831, when the Belgian Provinces revolted, and became an independent kingdom.

Government.—The crown is hereditary in the male (and eventually in the female) line of the House of Orange-Nassau, and Kings William I, (1815-1840), William II. (1840-1849) and William III. (1849-1890) were followed in 1890 by the only surviving child of the last-named sovereign.

The States General consists of two chambers. The First Chamber contains 50 members, elected for 9 years (and renewable as to one-third every 3 years) by the Provincial Legislature. The Second Chamber consists of 100 members elected for 4 years by direct vote. In December, 1917, an electoral act was passed which provided for women suffrage and proportional representation. Electors are registered at the age of 23.

The Sovereign has power to dissolve one or both houses of Parliament, but in that case must call new elections within forty days and convoke the new meeting within two months. Only the Government and the Second Chamber may introduce laws; the function of the Upper Chamber is to approve or reject legislation, without amendments. The executive is vested in a cabinet of eleven members. There is also a state council of fourteen members, appointed by the Sovereign, which acts in an advisory capacity in legislative and in some executive matters.

Justice is administered in 101 Cantonal Courts, 23 district tribunals which also act as courts of appeal from the cantonal courts. There are 5 higher Courts of Appeal and a Court of Cassation (Hooge Raad) at The Hague.

Each of the 11 Provinces has a legislature elected for 6 years.

The latest figures for the land areas and populations of the eleven provinces into which the Netherlands are divided are as follows:—

Province	*Square Miles*	*Population*
Drenthe	1,028	200,951
Friesland	1,243	384,363
Groningen	881	358,663
Guelders	1,939	723,437
Limburg	847	430,489
North Brabant	1,920	714,973
North Holland	1,066	1,270,808
Overyssel	1,295	431,757
South Holland	1,131	1,636,097
Utrecht	525	327,192
Zeeland	707	245,933
Total	12,582	6,724,663

In 1918, a law was passed providing for the formation of a new province by draining some 525,000 acres of the Zuiderzee.

Including the interior waters, the total area is 13,196 square miles; and including gulfs and bays the total area is 15,760 square miles. There is a slight preponderance of females in the population. Forty-one per cent of the population is urban. The largest towns are Amsterdam, 640,993; Rotterdam, 500,221; The Hague, 344,636; Utrecht, 135,368.

The last religious census showed 2,588,261 members of the Dutch Reformed Church; 746,186 other Protestants; 2,053,021 Catholics. The government budget contains allowances for the churches of the several denominations.

Education.—The educational system is peculiar, in that primary instructional establishments are encouraged by State aid, while public institutions are provided (where private enterprise is lacking) by local taxation. Primary education is compulsory between the ages of 7-13, the average attendance being 95 per cent. of the enrolment. Technical education is highly efficient, horticulture and agriculture being

a feature of special schools. There are State Universities at Leiden (founded in 1575), Groningen (1585), and Utrecht (1634), and a municipal University at Amsterdam (1877) and a technical university at Delft (1864). There are 33 classical public schools, with 535 teachers and 3,465 students; 515 schools for the working people, with 4,000 teachers and more than 47,000 pupils, of whom 8,000 are females; 3,388 public elementary schools, with 19,624 teachers and 629,316 pupils; 2,396 private elementary schools, with 14,826 teachers and 433,000 pupils; 1,334 infants' schools, chiefly private, with 5,023 teachers and 145,094 pupils.

Finance.—For the last year for which figures are available, the revenue was 591,000,000 guilders and the expenditure was 541,000,000 guilders. More than half the expenditure was devoted to defence. The last figure for the public debt was 1,850,646,000 guilders, with annual interest of 82,000,000 guilders. One guilder is equal to $0.402 in United States currency.

Towns.—Capitals, Court: The Hague; Commercial: Amsterdam and Rotterdam. In 1918 there were 11 communes with a population exceeding 50,000, 12 others exceeding 30,000 and 7 more over 20,000. The chief ports are Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Flushing, Terneuzen, Harlingen, Delfzyl, Dordrecht, Zaandam and Schiedam.

Communications.—There are about 2,000 miles of canals, 3,000 miles of roads, and 1,826 miles of street-car lines. The four principal railways, with a 4 ft. 11 in. gauge, have a length of 2,377 miles. The railways are under private control. The telegraph systems are chiefly state lines, which have a length of 5,215 miles, with more than 27,000 miles of wire and 1,272 offices. The telephone system is also a state system; it has 2,218 miles of line and 65,000 miles of wire.

Production and Industry.—Of the total area of some 8,000,000 acres, about 1,200,000 are uncultivated land, 300,000 are morass and water, 2,100,000 are arable land, 3,000,000 are pasture. The last annual yield of the more important crops was as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Yield*
Sugar Beets	114,262	1,458,000a
Oats	385,372	4,201,437b
Rye	470,849	3,212,687b
Wheat	122,059	957,000b
Barley	51,992	485,687b
Flax	30,675	3,617c
Potatoes	432,722	.....

a-tons; b-quarters; c-cwts.

The latest figures for the live-stock showed 2,048,872 cattle, including 1,130,908 cows; 692,324 sheep, and 600,133 pigs.

There are a few coal mines in Limburg, chiefly belonging to the state. The last annual coal production was slightly more than 3,000,000 metric tons. There are no official returns of the manufacturing industries, but distilling and brewing, sugar refining, cotton, woolen and linen weaving are important branches of industry. There are some 6,300 vessels, with 18,000 in the crews, engaged in fishing. The last annual herring catch was valued at 195,000 guilders.

The Netherlands operate under free trade. The annual imports for home consumption before the World War were valued at 3,918,000,000 guilders and the exports of home produce, at 3,083,000,000 guilders. In terms of value, the chief imports are gold and silver, cereals and flour, coal, iron and steel goods, and textiles. The chief exports are condensed milk, margarine, cheese, butter, tobacco, and eggs. The imports come chiefly from the United Kingdom, Germany and the United States; and the exports go chiefly to Germany and the United Kingdom. During the last fiscal year, the United States exported to the Netherlands goods valued at $254,450,000 and imported from the Netherlands goods valued at $100,635,000.

NETHERLAND INDIA.—Lies between 6° N. and 11° S. lat. and 95°-141° E. long., and is divided into two administrations, Java (with Madura) and the "Outposts," under a Governor-General.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.—The possessions in the West Indies are divided into two administrative areas, Surinam (Netherland Guiana) on the mainland of South America, and the island of Curaçao with its dependencies.

Netherlands (see also Hague, The):
Accounts of bankers of United States in Amsterdam, rendered, 113.
Claims of United States against, 852, 1109, 1456, 1693.
Payment of, 1750.
Coffee imported into United States from, duties on, 2250.
Commercial relations with, 599, 918, 1369.
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Discriminating duties—
On production of Dutch East Indies imported from Holland, 4626, 5088.
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Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 2910, 2952, 2994, 4542, 4562, 5176, 5397.
Withdrawn from consideration of Senate, 2916.
King of, umpire between Great Britain and United States. (See Northeastern Boundary.)
Leaf tobacco from, taxation of, discussed, 4979, 4986, 5088.
Loan contracted by United States in—
Amsterdam, 120.
Holland, 73, 78, 98, 133, 167, 169.
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Received, 4718.
Refuses to testify in courts of District of Columbia, 2952.
Petroleum in Holland, etc., taxation of, referred to, 4979, 4986.
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Buchanan, 2994.
Cleveland, 5176, 5397.

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Johnson, 3722.
Pierce, 2835, 2910, 2952.
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Vessel of United States, captured by, 1612.
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Discriminating duties on, referred to, 918, 933, 1369.
Should be abolished, 2250.
Duties on suspended, 5154.
Possession and control of, taken, 8477, 8478.
War with Acheen, neutrality of United States in, 4192.

Netherlands, Treaties with.—The treaty of commerce and navigation of 1839 was in part superseded by the treaty of commerce and navigation of 1852. Together they provide for equitable imposition of duties of import and export, together with the extension to one of the contracting parties of such additional rights, privileges, or exemptions as may hereafter be granted by either of them to a third power. The reciprocal equality of the flags is recognized in home ports and in the colonial possessions. The coasting trade is exempted from the provisions of the treaty. Holland does not relinquish her right of imposing discriminating duties on trade between the home ports of Holland and her colonies; nor does the United States relinquish her right to sustain her discriminating duties on coffee and tea. But in the event of the abolition of these discriminating duties by the one power, the other shall reciprocate. International arbitration was agreed to by a convention signed in Washington May 2, 1908. (For the consular convention of 1878, see Consular Conventions; for the terms of the extradition treaty of 1887, see Extradition Treaties.)

Neutral Flags, protest against use of, by belligerents, 8056.

Neutral Rights.—The most recent definition of the rights and duties of neutral powers and persons during war is set forth in a convention concluded Oct. 18, 1907, at The Hague; ratification advised by the Senate of the United States March 10, 1908; ratified by the President Feb. 23, 1909, and the ratification deposited with the Netherlands government Nov. 27, 1909; proclaimed Feb. 28, 1910. Ratifications were deposited at The Hague Nov. 27, 1909, by Germany, United States, Austria-Hungary, Denmark, Mexico, the Netherlands, Russia, Sweden, Bolivia and Salvador.

His Majesty the German Emperor, King of Prussia; the President of the United States of America; the President of the Argentine Republic; His Majesty the Emperor of Austria, King of Bohemia, etc., and Apostolic King of Hungary; His Majesty the King of the Belgians; the President of the Republic of Bolivia; the President of the Republic of the United States of Brazil; His Royal Highness the Prince of Bulgaria; the President of the Republic of Chile; the President of the Republic of Colombia; the Provisional Governor of the Republic of Cuba; His Majesty the King of Denmark; the President of the Dominican Republic; the President of the Republic of Ecuador; His Majesty the King of Spain; the President of the French Republic; His Majesty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland and of the British Dominions beyond the Seas, Emperor of India; His Majesty the King of the Hellenes; the President of the Republic of Guatemala; the President of the Republic of Haiti; His Majesty the King of Italy; His Majesty the Emperor of Japan; His Royal Highness the Grand Duke of Luxemburg, Duke of Nassau; the President of the United States of Mexico; His Royal Highness the Prince of Montenegro; His Majesty the King of Norway; the President of the Republic of Panama; the President of the Republic of Paraguay; Her Majesty the Queen of the Netherlands; the President of the Republic of Peru; His Imperial Majesty the Shah of Persia; His Majesty the King of Portugal and of the Algarves, etc.; His Majesty the King of Roumania; His Majesty the Emperor of All the Russias; the President of the Republic of Salvador; His Majesty the King of Servia; His Majesty the King of Siam; His Majesty the King of Sweden; the Swiss Federal Council; His Majesty the Emperor of the Ottomans; the President of the Oriental Republic of Uruguay; the President of the United States of Venezuela.

With a view to laying down more clearly the rights and duties of neutral Powers in case of war on land and regulating the position of the belligerents who have taken refuge in neutral territory;

Being likewise desirous of defining the meaning of the term "neutral," pending the possibility of settling, in its entirety, the position of neutral individuals in their relations with the belligerents;

Have resolved to conclude a Convention to this effect:

The territory of neutral powers is inviolable.

Belligerents are forbidden to move troops or convoys of either munitions of war or supplies across the territory of a neutral power.

Belligerents are likewise forbidden to erect on the territory of a neutral power a wireless telegraphy station or other apparatus for the purpose of communicating with belligerent forces on land or sea; or to use any installation of this kind established by them before the war on the territory of a neutral power for purely military purposes, and which has not been opened for the service of public messages.

Corps of combatants cannot be formed nor recruiting agencies opened on the territory of a neutral power to assist the belligerents.

A neutral power must not allow any of the acts referred to in preceding paragraphs to occur on its territory.

It is not called upon to punish acts in violation of its neutrality unless the said acts have been committed on its own territory.

The responsibility of a neutral power is not engaged by the fact of persons crossing the frontier separating to offer their services to one of the belligerents.

A neutral power is not called upon to prevent the export or transport, on behalf of one or other of the belligerents, of arms, munitions of war, or, in general, of anything which can be of use to an army or a fleet.

A neutral power is not called upon to forbid or restrict the use on behalf of the belligerents of telegraph or telephone cables or of wireless telegraphy apparatus belonging to it or to companies or private individuals.

Every measure of restriction or prohibition taken by a neutral power in regard to transportation and communication must be impartially applied by it to both belligerents.

A neutral power must see to the same obligation being observed by companies or private individuals owning telegraph or telephone cables or wireless telegraphy apparatus.

The fact of a neutral power resisting, even by force, attempts to violate its neutrality cannot be regarded as a hostile act.

A neutral power which receives on its territory troops belonging to the belligerent armies shall intern them, as far as possible, at a distance from the theater of war.

It may keep them in camps and even confine them in fortresses or in places set apart for this purpose.

It shall decide whether officers can be left at liberty on giving their parole not to leave the neutral territory without permission.

In the absence of a special convention to the contrary, the neutral power shall supply the interned with the food, clothing, and relief required by humanity.

At the conclusion of peace the expenses caused by the internment shall be made good.

A neutral power which receives escaped prisoners of war shall leave them at liberty. If it allows them to remain in its territory it may assign them a place of residence.

The same rule applies to prisoners of war brought by troops taking refuge in the territory of a neutral power.

A neutral power may authorize the passage into its territory of the sick and wounded belonging to the belligerent armies, on condition that the trains bringing them shall carry neither personnel nor war material. In such a case, the neutral power is bound to take whatever measures of safety and control are necessary for the purpose.

The sick or wounded brought under these conditions into neutral territory by one of the belligerents, and belonging to the hostile party, must be guarded by the neutral power so as to ensure their not taking part again in the military operations. The same duty shall devolve on the neutral state with regard to wounded or sick of the other army who may be committed to its care.

The Geneva Convention applies to sick and wounded interned in neutral territory.

The nationals of a state which is not taking part in the war are considered as neutrals.

A neutral cannot avail himself of his neutrality: If he commits hostile acts against a belligerent: if he commits acts in favor of a belligerent, particularly if he voluntarily enlists in the ranks of the armed force of one of the parties. In such a case, the neutral shall not be more severely treated by the belligerent as against whom he has abandoned his neutrality than a national of the other belligerent state could be for the same act.

The following acts shall not be considered as committed in favor of one belligerent in the sense of the above paragraph: Supplies furnished or loans made to one of the belligerents, provided that the person who furnishes the supplies or who makes the loans lives neither in the territory of the other party nor in the territory occupied by him, and that the supplies do not come from these territories; services rendered in matters of police or civil administration.

Railway material coming from the territory of neutral powers, whether it be the property of the said powers or of companies or private persons, and recognizable as such, shall not be requisitioned or utilized by a belligerent except where and to the extent that it is absolutely necessary. It shall be sent back as soon as possible to the country of origin.

A neutral power may likewise, in case of necessity, retain and utilize to an equal extent material coming from the territory of the belligerent power.

Compensation shall be paid by one party or the other in proportion to the material used, and to the period of usage.

The provisions of the present Convention do not apply except between contracting powers, and then only if all the belligerents are parties to the Convention.

Forty-four countries became parties to this Convention, as follows:

United States,
Argentina,
Austria-Hungary,
Belgium,
Bolivia,
Brazil,
Bulgaria,
Chile,
China,
Colombia,
Cuba,
Denmark,
Ecuador,
France,
Germany,
Great Britain (with reservations),
Greece,
Guatemala,
Haiti,
Italy,
Japan,
Luxemburg,
Mexico,
Montenegro,
Netherlands,
Nicaragua,
Norway,
Panama,
Paraguay,
Peru,
Persia,
Portugal,
Roumania,
Russia,
Salvador,
Santo Domingo,
Servia,
Siam,
Spain,
Sweden,
Switzerland,
Turkey,
Uruguay,
Venezuela.

Neutral Rights (see also Neutrality):
Defined by Hague Conference, 7120.
Discussed, 2808.
Disregarded by—
Belligerent nations, 439.
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Referred to, 2809.
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Grant, 4043, 4045, 4051, 4192.
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Hayes, 4418.
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Johnson, 3581, 3712.
Lincoln, 3444.
Monroe, 582, 627, 639, 657, 685, 762.
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Neutrality, Armed. (See Armed Neutrality.)

Neutrality, Proclamation of.—Neutrality, in international law, is the attitude and conditions of a nation or state which does not take part directly or indirectly in a war between other states, but maintains relations of friendship with all the contending parties. In ancient times war between any two nations was likely to involve any other, either through sympathy or by its being drawn unwillingly into the controversy on accusation of favoring one or the other of the belligerents. Modern civilization has made it possible for a peacefully inclined nation to avoid entanglements in quarrels not of its own making. The position which a state intends to take in case of war between its neighbors should be clearly defined. It is customary, therefore, on the breaking out of hostilities for every nation not participating therein to declare its position with reference to the belligerents. This is usually done by a proclamation by the chief ruler of a state

proclaiming its neutrality and calling upon its citizens to refrain from any acts of hostility or special favor toward either of the parties to the strife. It is also customary for every nation to put on its statute books general laws regulating the acts of its citizens with reference to foreign wars. Upon the declaration of war between France and Great Britain in 1793 it was decided unanimously by Washington and his Cabinet that a proclamation of neutrality should issue and that a French minister should be received. The proclamation was drafted by John Jay and declared the intention of the United States to pursue a policy of friendship toward both nations, and enjoined upon all citizens to avoid a contravention of that disposition upon pain of prosecution. It is a curious fact that the word "neutrality" was omitted from this proclamation, but it was enforced with fairness. President Roosevelt on Feb. 11, 1904, issued a proclamation declaring the neutrality of this country in the Russo-Japanese War. With the outbreak of the European war of 1914 President Wilson issued a number of proclamations all of the same general tenor. (See pages 7969 et seq.)

Nevada.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "The Sage Brush State"; motto, "All for our country." Nevada extends from lat. 35° to 42° north and from long. 114° to 120° west. It is bounded on the north by Oregon and Idaho, on the east by Utah and Arizona, and on the west and southwest by California, and has an area of 110,690 square miles. The State is rich in precious metals, the principal products being silver and gold. The territory was ceded by Mexico in 1848, and the first settlements were made in 1848 and 1850. Silver was discovered in 1859. Nevada Territory was organized in 1861 and was admitted to statehood in 1864.

Nevada is a Spanish word meaning "snowy" or "white as snow," and the name of the State was derived from the Sierra Nevada. The State ranks sixth in size in the Union. Its length from north to south is 484 miles, its width 321 miles, and its area 109,821 square miles.

The history of Nevada is chiefly the history of her mines. Since the discovery of the Comstock lode and other famous ore bodies periods of activity and prosperity have alternated with periods of depression. Each discovery of high-grade ore in noteworthy quantity has been followed by rapid settlement in that locality and the establishment of one or more towns. In 1890-1893 a sharp decline in the price of silver initiated or accompanied a period of depression in Nevada's mining and general industrial prosperity. Silver is so important a resource of the State that to a large extent even now her prosperity depends upon the market for that metal. Of late years, however, an increased production of gold, copper, and recently of platinum has accompanied a gradual and, it is hoped, substantial industrial progress. Permanent towns have grown up and agriculture and related pursuits are becoming firmly established.

In 1910, the population was 81,875. The 1920 census figure put it at 77,407. In 1910, there were about 20,000 foreign-born within the state. Only 16½% of the population in that year was urban. The majority of the inhabitants are Roman Catholics.

Latest educational statistics show 378 public elementary schools, with 735 teachers and 14,518 enrolled pupils. There are 41 public high schools, with 70 teachers and 875 pupils.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay	225,000	526,000a	$10,310,000
Potatoes	6,000	900,000	1,350,000
Wheat	29,000	668,000	1,429,000
Barley	12,000	420,000	630,000
Oats	12,000	384,000	384,000

a-tons.

The latest figures for the farm animals showed 75,000 horses, valued at $4,500,000; 35,000 cows, $3,080,000; 535,000 other cattle, $24,075,000; 1,596,000 sheep, $16,439,000; and 32,000 swine, $448,000. As will be seen, stock-raising is an important activity. The last annual wool clip was 10,500,000 pounds.

The last statistics for the mineral production showed gold and silver as the leading minerals. The annual gold output was 551,683 fine ounces and the silver, 14,460,000 ounces. There were also produced 105,116,000 pounds of copper, 32,000,000 pounds of zinc; and lead, iron, quicksilver, tungsten, borax and other minerals also are mined.

The manufacturing industries are comparatively unimportant. They were chiefly flour and grist mills, car-making and -repairing, butter, and printing. In 1915, there were 180 manufacturing establishments, with 3,650 employees, representing an investment of $13,600,000.

Nevada:
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Creation and organization of, as Territory referred to, 3254.
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Payment of settlers for improvements on lands in Duck Valley in, referred to, 4664, 4776.

New Brunswick, Canadian Province; area, 2,000 square miles; population, estimated, 380,000:
Aggressions on rights of American citizens by citizens of, 963.
Imprisonment of American citizens by, 963, 969, 990, 1575, 1622, 1687.
(See also Great Britain.)

New Caledonia.—A French island in the Pacific Ocean east of Australia, formerly a penal settlement. The area is about 7,650 square miles and the population, about 50,000. The chief products are coffee, copra and cotton and there are some local industries. There is also some attention to cattle-raising. The nickel product is valuable.

New England.—A name applied to the northeastern section of the United States by Capt. John Smith in his map of the New World published in 1616. Though composed of separate Colonies, there was always a similarity in the customs and habits of the people. New England formed part of North Virginia, granted to the Plymouth Company by James I. in 1606. In 1643 most of the New England Colonies were united for defensive purposes in the New England Confederation. New England is now applied collectively to the States of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut.

New England Emigrant Company.—The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska law in 1854 made the institution of slavery in Kansas dependent upon the will of the majority of the people of the state. Pro-slavery advocates in Missouri set to work to establish slavery by assisting in the emigration of Southern families. In 1855 an association was formed in Boston to offset this movement by assisting New England farmers to establish homes in the debatable territory. This organization was known as the New England Emigrant Company, and did much toward making Kansas a free state.

New England Shilling.—The general court of Massachusetts on May 27, 1652, established a mint at Boston and installed John Hull as mint master. The first coins which were struck were but rude planchets stamped "N. E.," near the border on the obverse and the denomination mark (XII) on the reverse, signifying the value of 12d. This was known as the New England shilling and was valued at 18¾ cents.

New France.—A French expedition under Verrazano formed a settlement in America as early as 1524, on land discovered by John and Sebastian Cabot in 1497. In 1535 Jacques Cartier ascended the St. Lawrence River as far as the site of Montreal. The first permanent settlement in New France was founded at Quebec by Champlain in 1608. The colonists cultivated friendly relations with the Indians, and Jesuit missionaries extended the French influence through the region of the Great Lakes to the headwaters of the Mississippi and down that stream to the French possessions in the South. The country was conquered by the English in 1629 and restored in 1632. At the beginning of the Seven Years' War New France was made the scene of a part of the struggle between France and England. By 1750 New France, with Louisiana added, comprised the St. Lawrence and Great Lakes basins and the Mississippi basin, though the settlements were scattered. In 1759 Canada was reconquered by the English and its possessions confirmed to them by the treaty of Paris, Feb. 10, 1763. The result of this treaty was the cession of all the country east of the Mississippi to England and that west to Spain. The French laws were continued in force and religious liberty was extended to Roman Catholics.

New Granada.—A name by which that part of South America now called Colombia was known. (See Colombia.)

New Granada (see also Colombia):

American citizens in, outrages on, 2948, 3049.

Claims of United States against, 2116, 2193, 2948, 3049.

Adjustment of, referred to, 2116, 3175.

Commission to settle, extension of time for, recommended, 3268.

Convention for adjustment of, referred to, 3329.

Mail transported across Isthmus of Panama, complaints regarding, 2552.

Minister of United States to, reasons for not presenting credentials discussed, 3348.

Postal convention with, 2168.

Relations with, discussed, 2978.

Tonnage duties levied on American vessels by, in contravention of treaty discussed, 2948, 3049.

Treaty with, transmitted and discussed, 2217, 2359, 2361, 2576, 2577, 2581, 2582, 2902, 3063, 3122, 3174, 3349.

Contravention of, by New Granada, 2948, 3049.

Provisions of, discussed, 2361.

Regarding Panama Canal. (See Panama Canal.)

Right of passage over Isthmus of Panama guaranteed by, 2361, 2555, 2902, 3048, 6807.

Wars in, discussed, 3349.

New Guinea. (See Oceania.)

New Hampshire.—One of the thirteen original states; nickname, "The Granite State." It extends from lat. 42° 40′ to 45° 18′ north and from long. 70° 43′ to 72° 33′ west. It is bounded on the north by the Province of Quebec (Canada), on the east by Maine and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Massachusetts and on the west by Vermont (separated by the Connecticut River) and Quebec. New Hampshire is called the "Switzerland of America," being noted for the grandeur of its mountain scenery and the beauty of its lakes. It has an area of 9,341 square miles. It is one of the leading states in the manufacture of boots and shoes, and produces also cotton, woolen, and worsted goods, lumber and timber products, hosiery, and foundry and machine shop products.

New Hampshire was visited by Pring in 1603 and by Capt. John Smith in 1614. It formed part of the territory granted to Gorges in 1621. It was settled by the English at Portsmouth and Dover in 1623. Between 1641 and 1679, and at various times thereafter, it was a part of Massachusetts. Its final separation was in 1741. Vermont was claimed as part of New Hampshire until 1764.

About three-fifths of the area of the State consists of forests.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census, place the number of farms in the State at 27,053, comprising 3,249,438 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $103,704,196. The average value of farm land per acre was $13.70, an increase of $9.83 in 1900.

Latest figures for the annual agricultural production were as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay	450,000	675,000a	$16,200,000
Corn	21,000	1,050,000	1,785,000
Potatoes ..	20,000	2,400,000	4,200,000
Oats	33,000	1,221,000	1,038,000

a-tons.

In addition, there is an important apple crop. The latest reports indicated farm animals in the state as follows:—Horses, 40,000, valued at $5,760,000; cows, 103,000, $3,858,000; other cattle, 70,000, $2,920,000; sheep, 39,000, $382,000; swine, 67,000, $1,608,000. There is some quarrying of granite and some attention to clay products.

The number of manufacturing establishments in New Hampshire having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 1,736. The amount of capital invested was $156,749,000, giving employment to 85,013 persons, using material valued at $114,993,000, and turning out finished goods worth $182,844,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $46,524,000. The most important industry is boots and shoes, followed by cotton and woolen goods. Aside from forest products, the manufactures are chiefly in the southern portion of the state.

In 1910, the population was 430,572. The 1920 census showed it as 443,083. Of the 1910 population, 96,667 were foreign-born, of whom almost 60,000 were Canadian. More than half the inhabitants of the state are Roman Catholics.

Latest figures show 67,461 pupils enrolled in the public elementary schools, with 2,493 teachers; and 10,640 pupils in the 88 public high schools, with 554 teachers.

New Hampshire:
Claims of for maintaining jurisdiction over Indian stream, 269.
Referred to, 1498.
Constitution of United States, evidence of ratification of amendments to, by, 65, 107.
Light-Houses ceded to United States by, 102.
Northeastern boundary, correspondence regarding. (See Northeastern Boundary.)

New Hebrides. (See Oceania.)

New Hope Church, or Pumpkin Vine Creek (Ga.), Battle of.—When Gen. Johnston withdrew the Confederate forces from Resaca, Ga., May 16, 1864, he retired by way of Cassville across the Etowah and occupied a strong position commanding the Allatoona Pass. May 23 Sherman crossed the Etowah and moved towards Dallas. Hooker, with the Twentieth Army Corps, moving from Burnt Hickory toward Dallas, May 25 encountered a force of Confederate cavalry at Pumpkin Vine Creek. They were driven across the stream, and about two miles to the eastward the Federals encountered Johnston's entire army. Here a severe battle took place. The Confederates retired and occupied a strong position from Dallas to Marietta. The losses of each army in these operations were about 2,500 men killed and wounded.

New Ireland.—Jan. 12, 1779, Capt. Mowatt, with three British sloops of war, landed Gen. McLane and 900 troops on the peninsula of Biguyduce (now Castine), on the south coast of Maine. On the 25th of the following July an expedition of nineteen armed vessels and twenty-four transports under Gurdon Saltonstall, a Connecticut sea captain, and 1,500 men from Massachusetts under Gen. Lovell, arrived at Penobscott for the purpose of dislodging the British. They delayed making the attack, however, and the arrival of five British ships from New York on the 13th of August forced them to burn their ships and disperse. As a result of their success the British during the next year attempted to erect Maine into a province under the name of New Ireland.

New Jersey.—One of the thirteen original states. It extends from lat. 38° 56′ to 41° 21′ north and from long. 73° 54′ to 75° 33′ west. It is bounded on the north by New York, on the east by New York (separated by the Hudson River, New York Bay and Staten Island Sound) and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by Delaware Bay and on the west by Pennsylvania and Delaware (both separated by the Delaware River.) It has an area of 8,224 square miles.

New Jersey was first settled by the Dutch at Bergen, probably about 1617. There were succeeding colonies there of Swedes, Finns, and English. In 1664 it was granted by the Duke of York to Sir George Carteret, lieutenant-governor of the Isle of Jersey, to be a perpetual inheritance and to be called New Jersey. It was reconquered by the Dutch in 1673 and restored to England in 1674, and sold to the Quakers. Proprietary government ceased in 1702 and New Jersey was made a royal province. It was under the same governor as New York until 1738.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census, place the number of farms in the State at 33,487, comprising 2,573,857 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $254,832,665. The average value of land per acre was $48.23.

The latest annual agricultural production was as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Potatoes	110,000	10,560,000	$17,846,000
Corn	270,000	10,800,000	16,524,000
Hay	325,000	488,000a	14,200,000
Wheat	109,000	1,960,000	4,315,000
Rye	83,000	1,295,000	2,075,000
Sw. Potatoes	14,000	1,750,000	3,850,000
Cranberries	10,200	161,000b	1,290,000

a-tons; b-barrels.

The latest figures for farm animals show 88,000 horses, valued at $13,200,000; 153,000 cows, $19,584,000; 77,000 other cattle, $4,390,000; 30,000 sheep, $330,000; and 210,000 swine, $5,292,000. In addition to the crops given above, fruit-growing is a most important activity. Of the mineral deposits, only iron and zinc are worked to any extent, but the clay-working industries are most important.

In 1910, the population was 2,537,167. The 1920 census put it at 3,155,374. Of the population in 1910, 91,273 were colored. In 1915, there were 734,052 foreign-born, of whom 144,848 were Italian, 115,711 were German, 75,444 were Irish and 55,357 were English. In 1910, 75% of the population was urban. More than half of the population is Roman Catholic.

The latest figures show an enrolment of 561,825 in the public day schools. The average daily attendance was 423,570 and there were 17,743 teachers. There was also an enrolment of 33,588 in the night schools. There are 156 public high schools, with 1,960 teachers and more than 47,000 students.

The number of manufacturing establishments in New Jersey having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 9,742. The amount of capital invested was $1,352,382,000, giving employment to 431,003 persons, using material valued at $883,465,000, and turning out finished goods worth $1,406,633,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $280,984,000. By value of product, the leading industries were oil-refining, explosives, foundry and machinery, silk goods, chemicals and wire.

New Jersey:
Boundary line with New York, 1268.

Cold storage regulation in, referred to, 8815.
Democrats, letter of President Wilson, to 8473.
Ratification of—
Amendment to Federal Constitution by, referred to, 70, 249.
Fifteenth amendment by, 4081.
Fourteenth amendment by, discussed, 3836.
Request from the governor of, that Congress consent to an agreement made with New York State regarding boundary, 1268.

New Jersey, The, interference by American minister to France in case of, 387.

New Jersey Plan.—At the convention held in Philadelphia in 1787 to amend the Articles of Confederation William Paterson, of New Jersey, proposed a constitution providing for a single house of Congress, with power to regulate taxation and commerce and choose the President; that requisitions from states should be continued as under the Articles of Confederation; that a judiciary should be established; that the executive should coerce refractory states or individuals, and other matters of general but minor interest. The plan was unfavorably reported. The convention accepted the Virginia plan with extensive modifications.

New London (Conn.), Capture of.—Sept. 6, 1781, Benedict Arnold's expedition against Connecticut arrived in the harbor of New London. The only defense of the town was the unfinished Fort Trumbull, manned by about 25 or 30 State militia under Capt. Shopley. About a third of these were lost while escaping in boats to Fort Griswold after firing one volley, disabling 4 or 5 of their assailants.

New Madrid (Mo.), Battle of.—On the surrender of Fort Donelson to Grant the Confederates abandoned Columbus, Ky., on the Mississippi, and fell back to New Madrid, Mo., about eighty miles below Cairo. It was defended by Fort Thompson and several batteries and by 6 gunboats mounting heavy guns under Commodore Hollins. March 4, 1862, Gen. Pope appeared before New Madrid with an army of 20,000, which he had been commanding in eastern Missouri. On the 14th, having received heavy guns from Cairo, he gave the place a severe cannonading, disabling several of the gunboats. Gen. McCown, unable to hold New Madrid, removed his garrison during the night and in the midst of a thunderstorm to Island No. 10. Pope lost 51 men killed and wounded.

New Mexico.—One of the southwestern group of states; nickname, "Adobe State;" motto, "Crescit eundo" ("It increases as it goes"). It extends from lat. 40° 20′ to 37° north and from long. 103° 2′ to 109° 2′ west. It is bounded on the north by Colorado, on the east by Texas and Oklahoma, on the south by Texas and Mexico, and on the west by Arizona.

New Mexico was visited by Niza in 1539, and Francisco Vasquez de Coronado conducted an expedition consisting of 400 Spanish and 800 Indians as far north as the present city of Santa Fé in 1540. Near the close of the sixteenth century Spanish missionaries made settlements about the head waters of the Rio Grande, and in 1605 Santa Fé was founded. The Spanish were temporarily expelled by the Indians in 1680. In 1846 the region was conquered by the Americans under General Kearny, who proclaimed himself provisional governor. By the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, proclaimed in 1848, New Mexico became a part of the United States. A territorial government was established by act of Congress approved Sept. 9, 1850. In 1853 a part of the Gadsden Purchase was added to New Mexico, making the present area 122,634 square miles. On June 20, 1910, Congress passed an enabling act permitting New Mexico to chose statehood; and on January 6, 1912, President Taft issued the proclamation admitting New Mexico as one of the states of the Union.

In 1910, the population was 327,301. By 1920, it had become 360,247. The 1910 population included 23,146 foreign-born, of whom 11,918 were Mexicans. Fourteen per cent of the population was urban. The prevailing religion is the Roman Catholic. There are 1,413 public elementary schools, with an enrolment of 121,829 and a teaching staff of 2,641; and 71 high schools, with 97 teachers and 1,258 pupils.

The chief economic activities of New Mexico are concerned with cattle-raising and mining. The last annual agricultural production was reported as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay	235,000	646,000*	$11,757,000
Corn	240,000	7,200,000	10,872,000
Wheat	383,000	6,100,000	12,200,000
Sorghums	238,000	7,140,000	9,282,000
Beans	128,000	960,000	3,552,000
Oats	65,000	2,340,000	2,223,000
Potatoes	11,000	495,000	940,000

*Tons

The latest statistics of farm animals showed 232,000 horses, valued at $15,776,000; 20,000 mules, $2,080,000; 87,000 cows, $7,221,000; 1,378,000 other cattle, $62,700,000; 2,538,000 sheep, $23,603,000; and 83,000 swine, $1,809,000. The last annual wool clip was 15,076,000 pounds. The state contains a large national forest area (see Forests, National). Much of the land is cultivable only by the aid of the large irrigation projects (see Irrigation).

The 1910 federal census gave the state 35,676 farms with an area of 11,270,021 acres, of which 1,467,191 were improved land, and a value of all farm property of $159,448,000.

There are extensive Indian reservations within the state (see Indians).

The most valuable of the minerals extracted is copper. In a recent year, the annual mineral production included 92,747,000 pounds of copper, 36,571,000 pounds of zinc, 824,000 pounds of lead, 66,877 fine ounces of gold, 1,766,000 fine ounces of silver. The last annual coal production was 4,241,000 tons.

The last federal census of manufactures showed 368 manufacturing establishments, employing 3,776 wage-earners, representing a capital investment of almost $9,000,000 and producing annually products valued at $9,320,000.

New Mexico:
Abduction of citizens from, referred to, 2643.

Admission of, to Union—
Act providing for, vetoed, 7636.
Discussed, 2556, 7020, 7229.
Recommended, 7435, 7598.
Appropriations for, requested, 3666.
Approval of constitution recommended, 7598.
Boundaries of, discussed, 2446.
Boundary line with Texas, 2566, 2568, 2586, 2587, 2601, 2628.
Proposition of United States regarding establishment of, accepted, 2630.
Proclamation regarding, 2643.
Views of President Fillmore on settlement of, 2603, 2630.
Capitol at Santa Fé, appropriation for completion of, recommended, 4737.
Cession of California and, to United States by Mexico—
Area and value of, discussed, 2449, 2484.
Discussed and recommendations regarding, 2306, 2309, 2344, 2356, 2386, 2426, 2437, 2444, 2484.
Treaty for, transmitted, 2437.
Claims of Texas to portion of. (See Boundary line, *ante*.)
Condition of, discussed, 444.
Constitution adopted by, transmitted, 2611.
Forces to be employed in, 2454.
Government of, discussed, 2557, 2564.
Indian hostilities in, discussed, 4528.
Indians in—
Enslaved, discussed and orders regarding, 3540.
Hostilities of, referred to, 3121.
Number of, 2453.
Land laws, extension of, over; recommended, 2623.
Lands granted to, in aid of colleges accepted, 3358.
Lands in—
Claims under Spanish and Mexican grants, discussed, 5484, 5510, 5561.
Records of Mexican Government regarding, 4257.
Set apart as public reservation by proclamation, 5686, 6872.
Legislative sessions of—
Law providing for time for commencement of, referred to, 4675.
Recommendation by territorial governor for holding, 4736.
Mines in, referred to, 2493.
Officer commanding in, 2587.
Proclamation of, referred to, 2601.
Persons convicted of treason in, referred to, 2448.
Prohibition by authorities of Spain to land American cargoes at, 334.
Revenue laws over, recommended, 2493.
Slavery in, right to introduce, discussed, 2490. (See also Slavery.)
Surveyor-General's office in, recommended, 2493.
Territorial government over—
Deemed inexpedient, 2567.
Difficulties in organizing, 2663.
Proposition and proclamation regarding, 2630, 2643.
Recommended, 2392, 2439, 2488.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamations against, 4441, 5932.

New Netherlands.—The second in order of settlement of the thirteen Colonies. It was the name of the region lying between the Delaware and Connecticut rivers. It was claimed by the Dutch by virtue of its discovery by Henry Hudson, an English navigator in charge of a Dutch expedition, in 1609. A trading post, the germ of a colony, was established, 1613-14, and maintained. In 1614 the States-General of the Netherlands granted the exclusive privilege of trading in New Netherlands to the explorers. In 1615 the New Netherlands Company was formed to trade in furs, but little attempt was made to settle families before 1621. In 1623 the new country was made a province of Holland and granted the armorial distinction of a count. Charles II. of England in 1664 granted the country to his brother, the Duke of York, and the garrison of the little block-house at New Amsterdam, being menaced by six times its number, was compelled to surrender. The place was recovered by the Dutch in 1673, but restored the following year. In 1674 the name was changed to New York. The question of the priority of the settlement of New York by the Dutch to that of Plymouth by the expatriated English Pilgrims, fresh from Holland, is one that still divides the historians. Dr. Brodhead, on the authority of Holland documents, seems, however, to have shown that the early trading post set up by the Dutch in 1613 was never abandoned and was really a settlement before the date of the Plymouth colonization. A similar post was established, 1614, near the present site of Albany.

New Orleans, La.:
Alarm excited at, over report that Aaron Burr would assemble armies in, 403.
Blockade of port of, removed by proclamation, 3290.
Branch mint at—
Seizure of, by authorities of Louisiana, referred to, 3199.
Capture of, referred to, 3315.
Cincinnati and Louisville expositions, 4819.
Defense of, should engage attention of Congress, 394, 447, 688.
Investigations of Gen. Smith and James T. Brady at, referred to, 3683.
Italians lynched in, discussed, 5617.
Indemnity for, paid by United States, 5751.

Memorial from, regarding irregularity in mail service, 2883.
Rights of deposit at port of, suspended, 338.
Restored, 346.
Riot at, referred to, 3662.
Spanish subjects in, assaulted, 2654.
Claims arising out of, discussed, 2688.
Title to lots in, referred to, 430.
Vessels bound for, for military necessities allowed to enter port of, 3378.
World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition at, discussed and recommendations regarding, 4773, 4802, 4804, 4863, 4923.
Board on behalf of Executive Departments designated, 4815, 4817.
Also placed in charge of Cincinnati and Louisville expositions, 4819.
Instructions to, 4819, 4820.
Proclamation regarding, 4746.
Report of board of management transmitted, 4953.

New Orleans (La.), Battle of.—Within a week after the battle of Rodriguez Canal both Jackson and Sir Edward Pakenham received reenforcements. Jackson's whole force on the New Orleans side of the river on Jan. 8, 1815, was about 5,000, of which only 2,200 were at the front. Only 800 of the latter were regulars. On the opposite side of the river was Gen. Morgan with 800 militia. This force of 5,800, indifferently armed and disciplined, was confronted by 10,000 of the finest soldiers in the world, most of them fresh from the continental campaign under Wellington. The Americans were intrenched behind their fortifications, which the British were compelled to approach across an open plain. In the conflict 2,600 were lost to the British, of whom 700 were killed, 1,400 wounded, and 500 taken prisoners. The Americans lost only 8 killed and 13 wounded. Probably no other battle in history presents this disparity in the number lost. The battle was fought after peace was proclaimed, but before this news reached New Orleans. (See illustration opposite page 553.)

New Orleans (La.), Capture of.—Feb. 20, 1862, Commodore Farragut, with his flagship, the sloop of war *Hartford*, arrived at Ship Island, 100 miles north-northeast of the mouth of the Mississippi. He was in command of the Western Coast Blockading Squadron, with directions to take possession of New Orleans. A military force to cooperate with Farragut arrived at Ship Island March 25, under Gen. B. F. Butler. The defenses of New Orleans were Fort Jackson, on the right bank or south side of the river, near its last great bend before it separates into the Delta, and Fort St. Philip, a little farther upstream on the opposite side. The former, with its water battery, mounted 75 guns; the latter 40. Just above the forts was a fleet of 15 vessels, including the ironclad ram *Manassas* and a floating battery, covered with railroad iron, called the *Louisiana*. These were in command of Commodore J. K. Mitchell. A heavy chain was also stretched across the river below Fort Jackson. Farragut's fleet consisted of 6 sloops of war, 16 gunboats, 21 schooners, each carrying a 13-inch mortar, and 5 other vessels. The fleet carried more than 200 guns.

Farragut bombarded the forts for six days with his mortar boats without much effect. The Confederate loss was 14 killed and 39 wounded. It was then decided to run by the forts. The obstructions were opened in the face of a heavy fire, and the fleet formed in three divisions and awaited the signal. It was given at half past 3 o'clock on the morning of April 24, 1862. Capt. Bailey led off with his division of 8 vessels. Under the storm of shot and shell they passed the obstructions and ran by the forts against the current in a stream less than half a mile wide, escaping the blazing rafts only to be met at the end of their journey by the Confederate gunboats eager to begin the fight. The second division of the fleet was led through the fiery gauntlet by the *Hartford*, with Farragut on board. The *Sciota*, carrying Fleet Captain Bell, led the third division. The *Kennebec*, *Itasca*, and *Winona* failed to pass the forts, becoming entangled in the rafts and floating débris and delayed beyond the dawn. The latter lost all but one man of her rifled-gun crew. Having passed the forts the fleet savagely attacked the small Confederate gunboats beyond and their destruction was speedily accomplished. May 1 New Orleans was formally occupied by the United States troops. The Federals lost in the taking of New Orleans 37 killed and 147 wounded. The Confederate loss was stated as only 40 killed and wounded.

New Orleans Massacre.—On March 15, 1891, a mob broke into the jail at New Orleans and killed a number of Italians, who were held charged with the murder of Mayor Hennessey. (The Mayor had been active in investigating a secret society of Sicilian origin, called "Mafiosi.") Secretary of State Blaine immediately urged the Governor of Louisiana to proceed against the guilty parties. The Italian Premier, through diplomatic correspondence, urged punishment of the members of the mob and indemnity for the death of the Italians. Blaine insisted that the United States was without authority to act, and that the State of Louisiana had full power. Thereupon the Italian Minister at Washington, Baron Fava, quit his post, thus substantially cutting off diplomatic relations. President Harrison restored friendly relations with Italy by reversing Blaine's position and by offering, in the name of the United States, to pay the indemnity demanded, which amounted to something over $24,000.

New Panama Canal Company, treatment of, by Colombia, 6922.

New South Wales, Australia:
International exhibition at Melbourne to celebrate founding of, discussed, 5176.
Postal convention with, 4882.

New York.—One of the thirteen original states; nickname, "The Empire State"; motto, "Excelsior." It extends from lat. 40° 30′ to 45° 1′ north and from long. 71° 51′ to 79° 46′ west. It is bounded on the north and northwest by Ontario, Canada (separated for the most part by Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence River); on the east by Vermont (partly separated by Lake Champlain), Massachusetts, and Connecticut; on the south by the Atlantic Ocean,

New York Bay, New Jersey and Pennsylvania (partly separated by the Delaware River), and on the west by Pennsylvania and Ontario (separated by Lake Erie and the Niagara River). Long Island, Staten Island, and several small islands are included in the State. The area is 49,204 square miles. It is mountainous in the eastern part, along the Hudson River. A beautiful rolling country constitutes the watershed separating the north and south drainage of the western and central parts of the State. To the north the surface descends in undulating terraces toward Lake Ontario. To the south the country is higher, in places reaching an altitude of 2,000 to 2,500 feet. The valley of the Mohawk extends westward from the Hudson for nearly 150 miles. New York is the first state of the Union in commerce, manufactures, population, and estimated value of property, and the second state in value of farms.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census, place the number of farms in the State at 215,597, comprising 22,030,367 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $1,451,481,495. The average value of land per acre was $32.13, against $24.34 in 1900.

The latest figures for the annual agricultural production were as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay	4,386,000	6,579,000*	$134,870,000
Corn	820,000	35,260,000	58,532,000
Oats	1,160,000	29,580,000	24,551,000
Wheat	524,000	11,178,000	24,032,000
Potatoes	363,000	39,567,000	57,372,000
Buckwheat	233,000	5,126,000	7,433,000
Beans	100,000	1,450,000	7,105,000
Tobacco	3,000	3,750,000†	.....

*Tons. †Pounds.

There is also a large production of sugar beets, and the fruit crop is extremely important.

The latest figures of farm animals showed 560,000 horses, valued at $78,960,000; 6,000 mules, $1,036,000; 1,493,000 cows, $159,750,000; 910,000 other cattle, $43,900,000; 824,000 sheep, $10,218,000; and 920,000 swine, $20,700,000. The last annual wool clip was 4,022,000 pounds.

The most valuable mineral product is iron ore, of which some 1,350,000 pounds are produced in normal years. The state also contains extensive fields of petroleum and natural gas. Other important mineral products are talc and gypsum. The output of granite, marble and other stones is valuable, as is the output of cement and of salt. There is a large production of bricks, tiles, pottery, etc.

In 1910, the population was 9,113,614. Of these 134,191 were negroes and 2,748,011 were foreign-born. Of the foreign-born 480,000 were German, 437,000 were Irish, 147,000 were English, 39,000 were Scotch, 472,000 were Italian, 559,000 were Russian, 245,000 were Austrian, 99,000 were Canadian French. In 1915, 75% of the population was urban. The 1920 census gave the population as 10,384,144.

The latest educational statistics showed 11,936 public elementary schools, with 1,630,419 pupils and 44,511 teachers. There were 956 public high schools, with 191,087 pupils and 6,875 teachers. There are a number of colleges and universities and professional schools of highest standing.

The number of manufacturing establishments in New York having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 48,203. The amount of capital invested was $3,334,278,000, giving employment to 1,289,098 persons, using material valued at $2,108,607,000, and turning out finished goods worth $3,814,661,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $873,771,000. Preeminent among the industries of the State is the manufacture of clothing. This factory industry originated in the State about 1835, and by 1880 it was first among the industries of the State. In 1905 New York was first in the production of clothing.

New York (see also Hudson; New York City):
Boundary line with New Jersey, referred to, 1268.
Branch mint in, recommended, 2352.
Canadian outrages on frontier of, discussed, 1618, 1676, 1695, 1840.
Canals in, recommendations regarding, 3334.
Colonial history of, referred to, 1954.
Constitution of United States, evidence of ratification of amendments to, by, 67, 164, 166.
Courts in—
Crowded condition of docket of, discussed, 5119.
Recommendations regarding, 4633.
Judge, additional, for southern district of, recommended, 5098.
Judges of United States circuit court for district of, opinion of, regarding pensions, 115.
Sheriffs in, duties of, respecting prisoners, 67.
Statue of George Clinton presented to Congress by, 4214.
Unlawful expeditions in, 1616, 2697.
Women of, enfranchisement urged for, 8376.

New York, The, mentioned, 6313.

New York and Montana Iron Mining and Manufacturing Co., act to enable purchase of lands by, vetoed, 3614.

New York Central Railroad, conviction and fine of, 7026.

New York City:
Act to authorize New York and New Jersey Bridge Companies to construct bridge across Hudson River at, vetoed, 5912.
Ancient obelisk presented to, by Egyptian Government, 4520, 4564.
Branch mint in, recommended, 2352, 2407, 2500.
Centennial celebration of inauguration of President Washington to be held in, 5371.
Proclamation regarding, 5453.
Custom-house in—
Affairs of, investigated, 1952, 2007, 4423.
Expenses of, referred to, 2010.
Report of commissioners referred to, 2005, 2014, 4402.

Authority for instituting investigation demanded, 1952.
Reply of President, 1952.
Officers of, suspended and reasons therefor, 4463.
Regulations governing appointments and promotions in, 4502, 5157.
Report on, discussed, 4588.
Dock at, about completed, 2669.
East River at, appropriation for removal of Flood Rock in, recommended, 4788.
In 1790 and 1915, views of, 1305.
Maltreatment of passengers and seamen on ships plying between Aspinwall and, referred to, 3413.
Navy-yard at, new boiler for, recommended, 4681.
Post-office in, rules governing appointments and promotions in, 4507.
Referred to, 4588.
Provision for accommodation of United States courts in, discussed, 2832.
Provision for defense of, 447.
Steamship line between Havre and, referred to, 2011, 2173.
Subtreasury in, regulations governing appointments and promotions in, 4502.

New York Harbor:
Appropriation for removal of Flood Rock in, recommended, 4788.
Naval parade to be held in, 5760.
New buildings for recruiting service at, referred to, 4664.
Statue of Liberty Enlightening the World to be placed on Bedloe's Island in. (See Liberty Enlightening the World.)

New York Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

New York Journal of Commerce, spurious proclamation printed in, orders regarding, 3438.

New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad, criminal proceedings against officials of, ordered, 8023.

New York State Barge Canal.—A system of inland waterways based upon the enlargement and improvement of four canals previously existent—the Erie Canal (q. v.), the Oswego Canal, the Champlain Canal, and the Cayuga and Seneca Canal. (See also Canals.) The entire system represents 790 miles of inland waterways, of which 440 miles represent improvements and new construction. Seventy-two per cent of the entire system is based upon lakes and rivers, the canal portions of the system being never less than twelve feet deep and seventy-five feet wide. Seventy per cent of the area of the whole state of New York is within fifty miles of the system.

The agitation for the improvement or existing canals began in 1891, and in 1895 the legislature of New York State authorized the issue of $9,000,000 worth of 3% bonds to deepen the Erie and Oswego Canals to nine feet and the Champlain Canal to seven feet. But this stage of the movement was only transitional, and in 1903 the people of the state ratified a measure to expend $101,000,000 upon a new barge canal system. The new system is able to accommodate boats 150 feet long and with a draft of 10 feet, and it is estimated that from 12,000,000 to 15,000,000 tons of freight can be passed through the canal annually. There are 35 locks on the Erie Canal and 22 locks on the other canals comprising the canal portions of the system. The standard lock length is 311 feet, so that two 150 feet barges may be raised or lowered at the same time. The height of the lifts is from 6 to 40 feet, and they should be able to accommodate boats of 2,000 tons. There are also 40 dams comprised within the system.

By January 1, 1917, more than 90% of the actual work on the new Barge Canal had been completed. The entrance of the United States into the World War hindered the utilization of the canal, because of the scarcity of skilled laborers and the diversion of all facilities for shipbuilding into governmental work. However, on May 15, 1918, it was opened for navigation throughout its entire length.

New York World, spurious proclamation printed in, orders regarding, 3438.

New Zealand.—The Dominion of New Zealand is distant about 1,200 miles southeast of the mainland of Australia, and consists of three main islands in the South Pacific Ocean, known as the North, South, and Stewart Islands, between 33°-53° S. latitude and 162° E.-172° W. longitude, with several groups of smaller islands lying at some distance from the principal group.

Physical Features.—A mountain chain traverses the west side of the South Island, culminating in Mount Cook, 12,349 feet in height. The North Island is less generally elevated. The North Island has a large central lake (Taupo) 36 miles long, from which the river Waikato flows northwest to the sea. The celebrated "pink terraces" of Rotomahana, formed by the deposit of silica tinted with oxide of iron, were destroyed by volcanic action in 1886, but are again in process of formation. The South Island has many Alpine lakes of great depth.

The extremes of daily temperature vary throughout the year only by an average of 20°. The mean annual temperature of the whole Dominion for the different seasons is: Spring, 55°; summer, 63°; autumn, 57°; and winter, 48°.

AREA AND POPULATION

Islands	*Sq. Miles*	*Population*
North Island	44,130	651,072
South Island	58,120	
Stewart Island	662	448,337
Chatham Islands	375	
Other Islands	1,000*	12,800
Total	104,287	1,112,209

*Estimated.

In addition to the above population, there are about 50,000 Maoris. The latest estimate of the total population is 1,170,000. About 43% of the inhabitants are Angli-

cans, 24% Presbyterians and 14% Roman Catholics. The last census gave the population of the largest cities as follows: Auckland, 133,712; Wellington (capital), 95,235; Christchurch, 92,733; Dunedin, 68,716.

History.—The west coast of the South Island of New Zealand was discovered by Abel Jansen Tasman, the navigator (voyaging under the direction of the Netherlands' East India Company), on December 13, 1642. The islands were visited in 1769 by Captain Cook, who returned to them in 1773, 1774, and 1777. In 1793 the Government of New South Wales despatched H.M.S. *Daedalus* to the islands on a diplomatic mission. The first settlement of Europeans was made in 1814, but no colonization took place until 1825. In 1840 British sovereignty was proclaimed, and on May 3, 1841, New Zealand was, by letters patent, erected into a separate colony distinct from New South Wales. In 1850, the New Zealand Company surrendered its interests to the British Government, and in 1853 a constitutional act was promulgated, self-government getting into operation in 1856. For several decades thereafter, there were serious troubles with the natives. Of late years, New Zealand has become an outpost of advanced political and social legislation, such as woman suffrage, granted in 1893, health insurance, old age and unemployment pensions, compulsory labor arbitration, maternity insurance, etc. In recent years, the Government has been often in the control of the Labor Party.

Government.—The Constitution rests upon the Act of 1852, under which the executive authority is entrusted to a Governor appointed by the Crown and aided by a Council of Ministers, with a Legislature of two houses.

The legislative power lies in the hands of a Governor General appointed by the British crown and a general assembly of two houses —a legislative council and a House of Representatives. The Governor-General has the power of assenting to bills, vetoing them, or returning them for amendment. He may also draft bills, except that in the case of appropriation bills he must first recommend that the House of Representatives make provision.

The legislative council consists of 24 members, later to be increased to 40. They are elected for terms of seven years. Three Maori members may be appointed by the Governor-General. The House of Representatives consists of 80 members, including four Maoris, elected for three-year terms. There is a cabinet to carry out the executive authority of the Government, headed by the prime minister, who is the real head of the administration.

Education.—Illiteracy in New Zealand, exclusive of the Maoris, is less than 5%. There are 37 secondary schools, with 323 teachers and more than 7,000 pupils. There are also 60 district high schools, with 96 teachers and some 2,200 scholars. More than 2,000 pupils are also in attendance upon technical high schools. There are 2,355 public primary schools, with 5,781 teachers and more than 185,000 pupils. Education is compulsory between the ages of 7 and 14. There are also more than 300 private schools, a number of professional schools, 120 native village schools and four colleges.

Finance.—The last annual public revenue was between $95,000,000 and $100,000,000. The public debt is $750,000,000. The British system of currency is in use.

Production and Industry.—The wealth of New Zealand derives chiefly from wool and gold. About two-thirds of the area is suitable for grazing and agriculture, and about one-fourth of it is under crops, chiefly grasses. About one-fourth of the area is still under forests. There are almost 1,000,000 acres of surveyed Crown lands available for selection.

Of the crops, wheat is grown on about 275,000 acres, with an annual production of some 6,500,000 bushels; oats on 155,000 acres, with an annual production of 5,000,000 bushels (attention to oats is on the decline); and barley on some 20,000 acres, with an annual production of 575,000 bushels.

The last census showed live-stock as follows: Sheep, 26,540,000; horses, 380,000; cattle, 2,888,000; pigs, 258,000. The last industrial census showed 4,670 plants, employing 57,800 workers, with a capital of $110,000,000 and an annual production valued at $225,000,000. According to value of output, the chief industries were meat freezing and preserving; butter and cheese; tanning and wool-scouring; grain milling; saw mills, etc.; printing and bookbinding; clothing; engineering; tailoring.

During the last year for which figures are available, only $6,000,000 worth of gold was exported. The coal production was 2,260,000 tons, valued at more than $6,500,000, of which 325,000 tons were exported. In a recent year, exclusive of gold and specie, the imports amounted to $100,000,000 and the exports to $150,000,000. By order of value, the chief imports were textiles, machinery and metal manufactures, apparel, sugar, oils, paper and books. The chief exports were wool ($60,000,000), frozen meat, butter and cheese, hides and skins, fibres.

The trade is chiefly with the United Kingdom, followed by the United States and Australia. In the last calendar year, later than that of the above figures, the United States exported to New Zealand goods valued at $28,171,535 and imported from New Zealand goods valued at $21,329,035.

Communications.—Under New Zealand register are 560 vessels of some 88,000 tons, including 376 steamers of 65,000 tons. About 650 vessels, of some 1,700,000 tons, visited New Zealand in a normal year before the World War. Most of these flew the British flag.

There are 1,270 miles of railway (Governmental) in the North Island and 1,714 in the South Island, with some 30 miles of private railroad, a total of more than 3,000 miles. The chief towns have street railway systems. There are 13,700 miles of line and more than 50,000 miles of wire on the Governmental telegraph system, with the telephone system also Governmental.

Dependencies of New Zealand.—Antipodes Group, Auckland Islands, Bounty Islands and Campbell Islands, all uninhabited. Chatham Islands and Cook Islands. The Cook and other islands, annexed to the British Empire in October, 1900, and included in the boundaries of New Zealand since June, 1901, consist of the islands of Rarotonga, Aitutaki, Mangaia, Atiu, Mauke, Mitiaro, The Herveys and Takutea.

New Zealand:
Sequestration of lands in, claimed by William Webster, referred to, 4327.

Titles to lands in, claimed by American citizens, referred to, 5179.

Newbern (N. C.), Capture of.—After securing Roanoke Island Burnside proceeded to the execution of another clause of his orders by advancing upon Newbern. March 14, 1862, he landed a force of men on the banks of the Neuse River, eighteen miles below the city. They advanced within five miles of the place where they encountered a redoubt, which was taken by assault. The bridge over the Trent, a tributary of the Neuse, was burned by the Confederates as they retreated. With the capture of Newbern 46 heavy guns, 3 batteries of light artillery, and a large amount of stores fell into Burnside's hands. The Federal loss was 90 killed and 466 wounded. The Confederate loss was 23 killed, 58 wounded, and about 2,500 prisoners.

Newburg Addresses.—There were many things to criticise and much to complain of in the conduct of the Revolutionary War, but heroic achievement and devotion to the cause of freedom, as a rule, overshadowed the jealousies of officers and the complaints of men. Gen. Horatio Gates had always been a rival of Washington for command of the army, and frequently conspired against the latter's popularity. In 1783, while Washington's army was encamped at Newburg, two anonymous appeals were issued to the officers, urging them to hold a meeting to consider the question of the money due them by Congress. The appeals were written by Capt. Armstrong, of Pennsylvania, and were supposed to have been instigated by the Gates faction. Washington immediately denounced the meeting as subversive of discipline and called a regular meeting of the officers to consider the matter. Gates was placed in the chair. Washington's friends carried motions characterizing as "infamous proposals" the suggestions of the Newburg addresses, and furthermore declaring their unshaken confidence in Congress.

Newfoundland.—The Island of Newfoundland is situated between 46° 37′-57° 39′ N. latitude and 52° 35′-59° 25′ W. longitude, on the northeast side of the Gulf St. Lawrence, and is separated from the North American Continent by the Straits of Belle Isle. The island is about 317 miles long and 316 miles broad, and is triangular in shape, with Cape Bauld north, Cape Race southeast, and Cape Ray southwest at the angles.

Physical Features.—The coast is extremely rugged, and the coastal regions are mountainous, the north and east being excessively cold owing to the quantities of ice brought down from the Greenland seas. The interior is undulating and is covered with tolts (round hills) interspersed with lakes, rivers, and swamps, but containing many fertile valleys, where the climate is favorable to agriculture, and a great wealth of forests, mainly of pine and birch. The climate is salubrious, and the people are a strong, healthy, hardy, industrious race. The thermometer seldom falls below zero in winter, and ranges in the shade in summer from 70° to 80°.

Area and Population.—A recent census of Newfoundland gives the area as 42,734 square miles and the population as 252,464. Of these, more than 67,000 were engaged in the fisheries. The capital is St. John's, with a population of 34,000. In religious faith, the population is divided almost evenly among Roman Catholicism, Church of England and Methodism.

History.—Newfoundland is the oldest English colony in America, for it was discovered by John Cabot on June 24, 1497; the first land seen was hailed as Prima Vista—the present Cape Bonavista. The island was afterwards visited (1500) by the Portuguese navigator, Gaspar de Cortereal, and soon became the centre of an extensive fishing industry, with settlements of Portuguese, Biscayans, and French. In August, 1583, the island was formally occupied by Sir Humphrey Gilbert, in the name of Queen Elizabeth, and by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713) the whole island was acknowledged to be British. A Governor was first appointed in 1728, and in 1885 "Responsible government" was accorded to the island.

Government.—The executive is entrusted to a Governor appointed by the Crown, aided by an Executive Council, with a Legislature of two houses.

Production and Industry.—The inhabitants are chiefly located on the coast-line of the shore and bays, and for the greater part are engaged in fishing—for cod in summer, and seal fishing in winter and spring; agriculture, mining, and lumbering are also engaging attention, while large pulp and paper mills have been erected. The larger portion of the interior is practically in a state of nature; but the railways have opened up large tracts of rich agricultural, mineral, and timber lands hitherto of small value.

It is estimated that some 80 vessels and 1,300 men are engaged in the bank cod fisheries and 15,000 vessels and 43,000 men in the shore cod fisheries. There is also extensive fishing for seals and lobsters.

The chief agricultural products are hay, potatoes, cabbage, oats and turnips. The average annual production of all crops does not exceed $3,000,000 in value. The last census of agriculture showed 13,288 horses, 40,427 cattle, 110,447 sheep and 27,575 swine. Of the mineral deposits, large beds of iron ore have been found and more than 1,000,000 are exported annually. Copper ore, pyrites and coal beds are worked, and some deposits of gold, silver and lead ore have been discovered.

In the last fiscal year, the imports amounted to $27,500,000 and the exports to $30,100,000. In order of value, the chief imports were flour, hardware, textiles and coal. The chief exports were dried codfish, pulp and paper, seal and cod oil, iron and other ore and herring. Canada and the United States supplied imports almost equally, but the larger share of the exports went to the United States.

There are some 850 miles of Governmental railroad (narrow gauge) and 50 miles of private line. Communication along the coast is maintained by a fleet of fast steamers. There are some 750 post-offices, 4,600 miles of telegraph and 1,000 miles of telephone wire.

The legal monetary standard is the gold dollar.

The normal annual budget is between $5,000,000 and $6,000,000.

LABRADOR, a dependency of Newfoundland, forms the most easterly part of America, and extends from Blanc Sablon, in the Straits of Belle Isle, on the south, to Cape Chudleigh, at the entrance to Hudson's Straits (or to Cape Wolstenholme), on the north; the boundaries between Quebec and Labrador being a matter of keen controversy

which is expected to come up for settlement before the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council. Labrador possesses valuable cod, herring, trout, and salmon fisheries. One of the grandest spectacles in the universe is provided by the Great Falls of Labrador, on the Hamilton River. The inhabitants of this 850 miles of coastal America are mainly Eskimos, engaged in fishing and hunting. There are no towns, but there are Moravian mission stations at Maggovik, Hopedale, Nain, Okak, Hebron and Killinek. Pulp and paper mills have been founded at Sandwich Bay and Hamilton Inlet, to deal with the almost inexhaustible supply of timber.

The area of Labrador is 120,000 square miles and the population, 4,100.

During the last calendar year, the United States exported to Newfoundland and Labrador goods valued at $15,188,905 and imported thence goods valued at $5,361,441.

Newfoundland:
- Certain articles of treaty at Washington extended to, 4227, 4243.
- Commercial intercourse with, referred to, 2867.
- Importations from, proclamation removing duties on, 2922.
- Postal convention with, 4203.
- Reciprocity with, 6717.

Newlands Act.—A law enacted in 1913, as a result of the railroad strike threatening at that time. This legislation was an amplification of the existing Erdman Act, which provided machinery for arbitration and mediation. The Newlands Act provided for a permanent board of mediation under a commissioner and assistant commissioner, with two other members. It provided also that the awards of disputes must be confined to the questions submitted and to problems definitely allied to them. (See Labor Arbitration.)

Newport, Vt., privileges of other ports granted to, by proclamation, 3428.

Newspaper Reports and Editors, discussed by President Wilson, 8033, 8053.

Newspapers, American, in foreign lands, urged, 7790.

Newspapers, transportation of:
- Referred to, 120, 124.
- Repeal tax on, recommended, 134.

Nez Percé Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Nez Percé War. (See Indian Wars.)

Niagara, The, employed to return negroes to Africa, 3058.

Niagara Falls:
- American victory on Canadian side of, 533.
- Attack of American forces upon British troops near, unsuccessful, 501.
- Ship canal around, discussed, 4150.

Nicaragua.—Nicaragua is the largest of the Central American Republics and is situated between 10° 45′-15° N. lat. and 83° 40′-87° 38′ W. long. It is bounded on the north by Honduras and on the south by Costa Rica, the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans washing the east and west coasts. The Atlantic (Caribbean or Mosquito) coast of about 300 miles is low and swampy, with numerous lagoons and estuaries, with harbors at Gracis á Dios, in the extreme northeast, Bluefields, and San Juan del Norte or Greytown in the extreme south. The Pacific Coast of about 200 miles is rocky and elevated, but possesses good harbors in Fonseca, Corinto, Brito and San Juan del Sur. The area is 49,200 square miles.

Physical Features.—A mountain range known in the southeast as the Cordillera de Yolaina runs from the Caribbean coast to the northwestern boundary. Parallel with this range and close to the Pacific is a range of volcanic peaks, of which several are liable to eruption. Between these ranges are low-lying plains and the Lakes of Nicaragua and Managua and east of the main range the country slopes gradually to the low-lying Mosquito Coast.

The principal rivers are the Wanks or Cocos or Segovia, which forms part of the northern boundary with Honduras; the Rio Grande, with its tributary, the Tuma; the San Juan, which forms part of the southern boundary with Costa Rica and flows from Lake Nicaragua to the Caribbean at San Juan del Norte. The main hydrographical features of the country are the vast lakes, Nicaragua and Managua. Lake Nicaragua has a total area of almost 3,000 square miles and a total length of over 100 miles. The lake contains numerous islands and islets, the largest containing the two volcanic peaks of Ometepe and Madera. Lake Managua is about thirty miles long and has a total area of 580 square miles. The Paneloya channel connects the two lakes, but the higher level of Managua presents a navigable connection between the two lakes.

There is little direct communication between the eastern and western halves of the country. Passengers between them usually go by way of Costa Rica, and goods by way of Panama.

History.—Nicaragua was discovered by Columbus in 1502 and was overrun by the Spaniards under Davila in the first quarter of the sixteenth century, and formed part of the Spanish Captaincy-General of Guatemala until the revolt of the Spanish Colonies. In 1821 Nicaragua declared its independence of Spain and from 1823-1839 formed part of the Federation of Central American States, but since 1839 the Republic has been independent.

Government.—The present constitution came into operation in 1913. Under it the President holds office for a term of four years. He is assisted in the exercise of the executive power by a cabinet composed of the heads of the executive departments. Congress consists of a house of 40 deputies, elected by direct suffrage for terms of four years, and a Senate of 13, elected for six years.

There is a supreme court at the Capital, and courts of appeal at Leon, Masaya and Bluefields, with courts of first instance in all centres of population.

Service in the Army is compulsory and universal between the ages of 17 and 55.

Ethnography.—On the east coast are many uncivilized tribal Indians known as Mosquitos, their numbers being estimated at 30,000, while pure-blooded Indians are still living in the central districts. There is also a sprinkling of Europeans and their descendants, the greater number being Spanish and German. The total population is about 800,000.

Most of the inhabitants live in the western half of the country, and are racially different from those in the east. The prevailing form of religion is Roman Catholicism. There are some 360 elementary schools and 10 secondary schools.

Production and Industry.—The principal agricultural product is coffee, which is grown, principally in the department of Matagalpa, under German management and exported to Hamburg. Bananas are also grown in the eastern districts and on the Mosquito coast. Rice, beans, sugar, cocoa, and tobacco are also cultivated, but large quantities of foodstuffs are imported. The live stock includes cattle, horses, and pigs. The forest products are important, mahogany and rubber being exported.

There are several gold mines and copper and precious stones also are found. The last annual export of gold was valued at almost $1,000,000. It is estimated that the annual coffee crop amounts to 22,500,000 pounds, and in the last year for which figures are available the value of the timber shipped, chiefly to the United States, was $1,250,000.

Finance.—The last annual budget was about $1,500,000. The total debt is about $6,000,000. The internal debt amounts to some 10,000,000 cordobas. The unit of currency, the gold cordoba, has the same value as the gold dollar of the United States.

Commerce.—The latest figures show annual imports of $6,350,000 and exports of $5,590,000. The chief exports, in rank of value, were coffee, timber, hides and skins, and bananas. The chief imports were cotton goods, flour and other food, and iron and steel goods. The trade is chiefly with the United States, although a proportion goes to France. Figures for the last calendar year show that the United States exported to Nicaragua goods valued at $6,694,497 and imported from Nicaragua goods valued at $5,496,275.

Communications.—Most of the trade passes through the two good ports on the west coast, Corinto and San Juan del Sur. During the last year, 932 ships of 378,000 tons visited Nicaraguan ports, of which 318 were steamers of 362,884 tons. There are few good roads in the country. The single railroad has a length of 170 miles. There are 3,637 miles of telegraph wire, with 130 telegraph offices, also 800 miles of telephone wire.

The capital is Managua, on Lake Managua, with a population of some 35,000. The other large town is the former capital, Leon, with some 63,000 inhabitants.

Nicaragua (see also Mosquito Indian Strip):
Adventurers undertake to establish government in, 2814.
American citizens in, outrages on, 3048.
Arrest of William Walker in, discussed, 2997, 3001, 3017.
Bombardment of San Juan. (See San Juan, Nicaragua.)
Boundary line with Costa Rica—
Arbitration of, referred to President of United States and award of, discussed, 5369.
Proposition for settlement of, referred to, 2736.
Settlement of, indispensable to commencement of ship canal, 2702.
Survey of port and river San Juan to be made, 3444.
British authority and aggressions in, discussed, 2571.
British troops landed at Bluefields. (See Mosquito Indian Strip.)
Civil convulsions in, discussed, 2657.
Civil war in, outcome of, 7500.
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Correspondence regarding, referred to, 4460.
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Clayton-Bulwer treaty for protection of canal through, discussed, 2580, 2617, 2903, 2943, 3117.
Correspondence regarding, transmitted, 2722, 2894.
Diplomatic relations with, discussed, 2948, 4562, 6264, 6427.
Distracted condition, referred to, 2869, 2905, 2947.
Expedition against—
Discussed, 2978, 2997, 3000.
Proclamation against, by President—
Buchanan, 3027.
Pierce, 2921.
Referred to, 3001, 3017.
Forfeiture of concessions of, to Nicaragua Canal, referred to, 5960.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 4067, 4100.
Grant of exclusive right of transit over territory of, to European, referred to, 3987.
Greytown—
Bombardment of, and reasons for, discussed, 2814. (See illustration opposite 2849.)
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Measures for protection of American citizens and property in, recommended, 3048, 3069, 3100, 3181.
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Ministers from two contending parties in, not received by United States, 2948.
Mosquito Indian Strip, affairs of, discussed. (See Mosquito Indian Strip.)
Negotiations with, transmission of in-

formation regarding, refused, 2690.
Transmitted, 2695.
Report of T. C. Reynolds on, transmitted, 5116.
Revolutions in, discussed, 5870, 6432.
Rupture with Costa Rica amicably settled, 6325, 6426.
Tariff laws of, evidence of modifications of, proclaimed, 5698.
Discussed, 5747.
Transit way across, discussed and measures for protection of, recommended, 2813, 2901, 2947, 3046, 3069, 3100, 3181. (See also Nicaragua Canal.)
Treaty regarding, between United States and—
Honduras, 3116.
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Treaty and negotiations with, regarding Nicaragua Canal. (See Nicaragua Canal.)
Treaty of, with—
France, 3121.
Great Britain, 3170.
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Treaty with, transmitted and discussed by President—
Arthur, 4825, 4843.
Buchanan, 3100, 3108.
Fillmore, 2602.
Grant, 4067, 4100.
Johnson, 3779, 3885.
Lincoln, 3273.
Pierce, 2870, 2883.
Taylor, 2571.
Ratification of, discussed, 3273.
Failure of, referred to, 3114.
Withdrawn, 4888.
Discussed, 4912.
Vessels of—
Discriminating duties on, suspended by proclamation, 3416.
Duties on vessels from San Juan del Norte suspended by proclamation, 4872.
Zelaya government in, crimes and overthrow of, 7418.

Nicaragua, Treaties with.—The treaty of amity and commerce and isthmian transit was denounced by Nicaragua as of 1902. The protocol of 1900 empowered the United States to control portions of Nicaraguan territory necessary to construct a canal from near San Juan del Norte on the Caribbean through Lake Nicaragua to Brite, on the Pacific Ocean. As preliminary to negotiations it is agreed that the details of the canal construction be the same as those contained in a treaty with Great Britain pending decision of the Senate of the United States. (See Extradition Treaties.)

Nicaragua also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., signed in 1910 and proclaimed in 1912. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.) A naturalization treaty, signed in 1908, was proclaimed in 1912.

A treaty was signed in 1914 and proclaimed in 1916 whereby, for $3,000,000, the United States gained perpetual grant of the canal route by San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua and renewable 99-year leases of Corn Islands and naval base rights on the Gulf of Fonseca.

Nicaragua Canal.—A proposed ship canal across the Republic of Nicaragua to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. As early as 1522 Lake Nicaragua was entered from the western coast and explored by Spanish navigators. In 1550 Antonio Galvao, a Portuguese, proposed four routes for a ship canal across the Isthmus, one by way of Lake Nicaragua and the San Juan River. Later surveys were made by the Spanish and Central American governments. In 1850 Col. O. W. Childs surveyed a canal route from Lake Nicaragua to the Pacific. More complete surveys were made for the United States in 1872-1873 and 1885, and the cost of construction was variously estimated at from $40,000,000 to $140,000,000. The Nicaraguan Government made concessions to Americans for constructing a canal in 1849 and 1880 and to a Frenchman in 1858, but they all lapsed without results. In 1884 a treaty was signed for the construction of a canal by the United States, but the Senate refused to ratify it. In 1887 a new concession was granted by Nicaragua and confirmed by Costa Rica. A company was immediately formed and chartered by the United States, work was begun, but ceased in 1892 for lack of funds, and finally in 1893 the company was placed in the hands of a receiver. President McKinley in 1899 appointed a commission to report on the question of the best route for an interocean canal and in 1901 a report was presented advising the Nicaragua route, mainly on the ground of the difficulty of acquiring rights and control in Panama. In 1900 the House passed a bill providing for the construction of a Nicaragua Canal but the Senate refused to pass it. Another bill of a similar character passed the House in January, 1902, but before it went to the Senate, a report was received from the Canal Commission recommending the Panama route. The construction of the Panama Canal settled the question of the isthmian route.

Nicaragua Canal (see also Panama Canal):
Clayton-Bulwer treaty for protection of, discussed, 2580, 2617, 2903, 2943, 3117.
Construction of, referred to, 5120, 5544, 5623.
Importance of, discussed, but Government aid to, not recommended, 2553.
Report on, transmitted, 6097.
Contract of Interoceanic Canal Co. discussed, 5470.
Control of, should not be held by one nation alone, 2554.
Correspondence regarding, referred to, 5120.
Discussed by President—
Arthur, 4843.
Buchanan, 3116.
Cleveland, 5870.
Fillmore, 2617.

Harrison, Benj., 5470, 5544, 5623, 5752.
Hayes, 4521.
McKinley, 6265, 6326, 6366, 6433.
Pierce, 2901.
Taylor, 2553, 2571, 2580.
Forfeiture of Nicaraguan concessions to, referred to, 5960.
Government aid to, recommended, 5624, 5752.
Report on, transmitted, 6185.
Right of way for, referred to, 2569.
Should be accomplished under American auspices, 5870.
Treaty regarding, with—
Great Britain, discussed, 2580, 2617, 2943, 3117.
Nicaragua (see also Nicaragua)—
Discussed, 2571, 2601, 4825, 4843.
Withdrawn, 4888, 4912.

Nicaragua Canal Commission discussed, 6326, 6366.

Nicaragua, The, indemnity to owners of, 6826.

Nigeria. (See Africa.)

Nikolaievsk, Siberia, massacre of Japanese at and occupancy of, by Japan discussed, 9063.

Ninety-Six (S. C.), Siege of.—Immediately after the surrender of Charleston (May 12, 1780) Clinton sent Lieut. Conger up the Saluda to Ninety-Six, a village in South Carolina, about seventy-five miles from Columbia. May 21, 1781, a part of Gen. Greene's army laid siege to the place. Kosciusko planned the approaches and the condition of the garrison had become critical, when, on June 20, the siege was raised on the approach of Lord Rawdon with the flank companies of three regiments.

Nipsic, The, disabled at Samoan Islands, 5479.

Niter, appropriation for improvement in manufacture of, recommended, 2957.

Nitrate plants, board appointed to locate, 8218.

Nitrates, need of cheap, 9354.

Nitrogen (Fixed) Research Laboratory.—The principal function of this agency of the Department of Agriculture is research in fixing the nitrogen of the atmosphere for agricultural, industrial and military purposes.

No Man's Land.—A small island three miles southwest of Martha's Vineyard, Mass., to which it belongs.

The term was also applied to a strip of land ceded by Texas to the United States in 1850. It lies between lat. 36° 30′ and 37° north and long. 100° and 103° west. It was not included under any government, though often called part of the Indian Territory. The name originally proposed for the district was Cimarron. In 1890 it became part of Oklahoma, and is now known as Beaver County.

The name was also applied during the World War to the stretch of territory, often but a few yards in width, lying between the trenches of the opposing belligerents.

Nobel Prize.—The Swedish scientist, Alfred B. Nobel, the inventor of dynamite, died in 1896, bequeathing his fortune, estimated at $9,000,000, to the founding of a fund, the interest of which should yearly be distributed to those who had mostly contributed to "the good of humanity." The interest is divided in five equal shares, given away, "One to the person who in the domain of physics has made the most important discovery or invention, one to the person who has made the most important chemical discovery or invention, one to the person who has made the most important discovery in the domain of medicine or physiology, one to the person who in literature has provided the most excellent work of an idealistic tendency, and one to the person who has worked most or best for the fraternization of nations, and the abolition or reduction of standing armies, and the calling in and propagating of peace congresses."

The prizes have been awarded since 1901 and each has an average value of about $35,000. The following Americans have won the award:—*Physics*, A. A. Michelson, 1907, R. A. Millikan, 1923; *Chemistry*, T. W. Richards, 1914; *Medicine*, A. Carrel, 1914; *Peace*, Theodore Roosevelt, 1906, Elihu Root, 1912, Woodrow Wilson, 1918.

Nominations. (See Executive Nominations.)

Nominating Convention. (See Conventions, Nominating.)

Nominating conventions, abolition of, 7910.

Nonimportation Agreement.—In 1765 the merchants of New York and Boston unanimously agreed to order no new merchandise from England, and to countermand old orders. This was done in retaliation for the passage of the Stamp Act by Parliament. The agreement was strictly observed until 1770, when only tea was prohibited. The members of the Continental Congress signed a nonimportation agreement in 1775.

Nonintercourse Act.—In consequence of the interference with American commerce by vessels of France and England, who were then at war, Congress in 1807 passed the embargo act prohibiting foreign commerce. This was found to work unnecessary injury to American shipping interests, and in 1809 it was repealed and the nonintercourse act substituted. It forbade the entrance to American ports of public or private British or French vessels, all commercial intercourse with France or Great Britain, and the importation after May 20, 1809, of all goods grown or manufactured in the two countries or their colonies. The act was to continue until the next session of Congress, but was revived by acts of June 28, 1809, May 1, 1810, and March 2, 1811.

Non-Partisan League.—An association of farmers of the Northwest. It was formed in North Dakota in 1915, and within several years had captured the political government of the state, putting much of its program into effect there. Although the League stands for the accomplishment of the reforms for which it was organized through the ballot, it does not form a third political party in the states where it is active, but endeavors to utilize the existing machinery of one of the old parties by dominating it.

The farmers who comprise the League are almost entirely the workers of comparatively small farms, and the League's program calls for the reform of the economic system from which the farmer claims to suffer. In particular, the League is directed against the alleged exploitation of the farmer by banks and trust companies, by railroads and grain elevators, by speculators, by middlemen, by retail marketers and retail store-keepers and by "big business" generally. Accordingly, the League has moved for such specific reforms as state-owned grain elevators, a state bank, state-owned flour mills, state-owned meat packing houses, state cold storage plants, co-operative retail and wholesale stores, state inspection of grain and grain dockage, state hail insurance, rural credit banks on a non-profit basis, exemption of farm improvements from taxation. The League publishes its own newspaper, and has been active in obtaining control of the educational system of the states where it is in control.

The activities and program of the League have bitterly antagonized most of the non-agricultural interests in the districts where it has been active, although it has usually received the cordial support of organized Labor. During the participation of the United States in the World War, it was widely charged that the League and its officials were not wholly loyal, and legal prosecutions and illegal violence were practised upon many of its leaders and meetings. The League retorted that the patriotic issue was being raised by "big business" in order to dodge the issue raised by the League, and to prejudice the country against it.

The organizer, president and moving spirit in the League is A. C. Townley. He and many of his associates were formerly connected with the Socialist Party. At present, the members of the League pay annual membership dues of eight dollars each to meet the League's expenses. By 1919, the League claimed a membership of some 200,000 in thirteen states, all west of the Mississippi (except Wisconsin). It twice elected its candidate for Governor of North Dakota. elected several candidates to the United States Congress, and for several years controlled the state legislature and government of North Dakota.

Norfolk Island, copyright privileges granted to, 8480.

Norfolk, Va.:

Blockade of port of, removed by proclamation, 3431.
Referred to, 3446.

British officers treated at hospital at, 3404.

Surrender of, referred to, 3313, 3315.

Vessels entering and leaving port of, order regarding, 3225.

Norfolk (Va.), Burning of.—Lord Dunmore, the royal governor of Virginia, assumed military control of Norfolk in November, 1775. He was defeated in an effort to dislodge some Virginia and Maryland militia who had taken up a position near the town. He thereupon embarked in a British vessel which lay in the Elizabeth River. Col. Woodford, with the Second Virginia Militia, and Col. Howe, with one regiment from North Carolina and two companies of Maryland militia, occupied the town. On Jan. 1, 1776, Dunmore began a bombardment, and sent ashore a party who set fire to the town. Its destruction was completed by the Americans to prevent its becoming a shelter for the British.

Norfolk (Va.), Surrender of.—The movement of the Federal Army up the peninsula of Virginia, in May, 1862, led to the withdrawal of the Confederate force from Norfolk and to the destruction of the ironclad *Merrimac*. This left the James River open to navigation. An expedition was sent out from the Fortress Monroe, under Gen. Wool, May 10, to take possession of Norfolk. It was turned over by the mayor without a struggle.

Norsemen.—In the sagas or accounts of Scandinavian heroes the vikings of Norway are represented as having visited the coast of America as early as 861 A. D. The narratives of the early voyages of the Northmen to America are more or less intermingled with fiction. Enough has been verified, however, to warrant some reliable historians giving credence to the more likely part of their claims. We are told that Norsemen had established a settlement in America in 875 A. D. (probably in Iceland, visited by Nadodd twelve to fifteen years previously), and that Gunbiorn, a Norse navigator, sighted land farther west.

Eric the Red discovered and named Greenland in 982, and three years later made a second voyage to the new country. During the same year an expedition under Bjarni sailed from Iceland to Greenland, but was driven south by a storm and sighted land at Newfoundland and at Cape Cod or Nantucket. Thence he returned to Greenland. In the year 1000 Leif, son of Eric the Red, sailed with one ship and thirty-five men in search of the land seen by Bjarni. He touched on the coast of Labrador and, journeying southward, stopped for the winter near the site of the present city of Boston. Leif called the place Vinland, from the abundance of grapes found. This seems to be the earliest authentic account of Norse discoveries in America.

Thorvald, Leif's brother, visited Vinland in 1002, wintered near Mount Hope Bay, R. I., and in the spring of 1003 sent a party of his men to explore the coast, probably as far south as Cape May. In 1004 Thorvald was killed near Boston by Skrelings (the Icelandic name for the aboriginal Americans), and his companions returned to Greenland. About 1007 or 1008 Thorfinn Karlsefne sailed from Greenland with three ships and 160 persons. He landed at Rhode Island and spent three years in Vinland. The latest tidings of Vinland were received in 1347, and communication with Greenland ceased about 1400. Before Columbus was born European navigators had journeyed westward and touched land, and several maps of the Atlantic Ocean had been made. Prior to 1470 Columbus had visited Iceland, and it has been suggested that he there learned of the Western Continent from the Norse navigators.

North America.—The area of North America, including Mexico, is about 7,200,000 square miles, a little less than twice that of Europe. Its extreme longitudes extend from a little west of 170° W. to 52½° W. in the east of Newfoundland, and its extreme latitudes from about 80° N. latitude to 15° N. latitude in the south of Mexico. It is surrounded by seas on all sides, except in the south, where it joins the Isthmian States of Ceneral America.

The nations of North America, with the form of government and capital of each follow:

Canada (Dominion), Ottawa.
Mexico (Republic), Mexico City.
Newfoundland (British), St. John's.
United States (Republic), Washington.
Alaska (United States), Juneau.

Three main divisions can be made in the relief of North America. The Eastern Mountains, the Great Plains, and the Western Mountains. The Eastern Mountains extend from Labrador to Alabama. The Great Plains from a comparatively level and continuous surface from the Arctic Ocean and the shores of Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico. This is broken in only three places by elevations of importance—the Ozark Mountains, the Lake Plateau (on which stand Lakes Superior, Michigan and Huron) and the Black Hills of South Dakota. A distinction must be made between the Prairies, which are open plains with few trees, rising to about 800 feet in Minnesota at the watershed between Hudson Bay and the Gulf of Mexico and the high plains to the west, which are far dryer and less fertile than the prairie wheat lands. In parts these rise to over 6,000 feet, and are much higher than the Appalachians. In Canada these high plains form the ranching lands of Alberta. In the Arctic plains there are many marshes and lakes. The Western Mountains consist, in the United States, of the Rockies, with summits exceeding 14,000 feet, among which Pike's Peak forms a conspicuous dome, the Sierra Nevada, the highest point of which is Mount Whitney (14,522 feet) and the Cascade range, with Mount Rainier (14,525 feet) and Mount Shasta, and the Coast ranges, which reach 7,500 feet in the densely forested Olympic Mountains of Puget Sound.

Between the Rockies and the Sierra Nevada is the Great Basin traversed by ridges, which rise to no great elevation above the plateau. There is little rainfall, and there are numerous salt lakes, of which the Great Salt Lake in Utah is the most important. The Death Valley in California is several hundred feet below sea-level. The Valley of California is a depression between the Sierra Nevada and Cascade ranges and the Coast ranges. The Western Coast ranges rise to great elevations in Alaska, where Mount St. Elias and Mount McKinley, over 20,000 feet, are the most prominent summits.

Mexico is a tableland, generally above 6,000 feet, which is bounded by two escarpments, the Eastern Sierra Madre, not a distinct mountain range but the margin of the plateau, and the Western Sierra Madre, which is from 8,000 to 12,000 feet and falls steeply to the Pacific. Here is a broad volcanic zone in which Orizaba, 18,252 feet, Popocatepetl, 17,250 feet, and Ixtachihuatl, 16,960 feet, are the highest summits. Colima is the only active volcano. The rivers are mostly short and torrential. The peninsula of Yucatan is a low limestone plateau flat and treeless with few running streams.

Five drainage areas may be distinguished, the Arctic, the Atlantic, the Gulf, Inland and the Pacific. In the Arctic Basin the Mackenzie is the only large river. The Atlantic Basin contains the St. Lawrence draining the Great Lakes and the Hudson. The Delaware, Susquehanna and Potomac cut deeply into the northern Alleghanies, but south of Chesapeake Bay the rivers rise on the eastern margin. The Alabama and Tennessee form longitudinal valleys in the southern Alleghanies. The Mississippi occupies the southern portion of the Great Plains. It has numerous large tributaries, the Ohio on the east, and the Missouri, Platte, Kansas, Arkansas and Red River on the west. The Rio Grande del Norte rises in the San Juan mountains. On the Pacific Coast the Colorado rises in the Rockies and flows in deep cañons through the Arizona deserts. Use has been made of its water to irrigate the Salton depression to the northwest of its mouth. From the Colorado to the Columbia there are no large rivers except in the valley of California, where the Sacramento and San Joaquin are invaluable for irrigation. The Snake tributary of the Columbia River rises in the Yellowstone National Park, and cuts great cañons through a lava plateau. The Frazer, like the Columbia, has a long north and south valley. The Yukon rises not far from the coast in the northwest, and flows into Bering Sea. The Inland Basin, between the Rockies and the Sierra Nevada, has no large rivers.

North Ann Crossing (Va.), Battle of.—Proceeding southward after the battle of Spottsylvania, Grant's army arrived at the North Ann River May 23, 1864. Warren, whose corps was on the right, crossed the river at Jericho, Hancock at a point four miles below, and the Sixth Corps at Jericho. Lee meantime had retired to a position south of the North Ann, and his left wing rested on the river at a point between the two sections of Grant's army. Burnside's corps was unable to cross the river. Lee's position was impregnable and Grant was compelled to withdraw his army to the north side of the river after a loss of 1,607 in killed and wounded. May 27, having been rejoined by Sheridan, the Army of the Potomac moved toward the Pamunky River.

North Atlantic Fisheries Dispute with Great Britain arbitrated, 7779.

North Carolina.—One of the thirteen original states; nicknames, 'The Tar State," "The Tar-Heel State," and the "Old North State;" motto, "Esse quam videri" ("To be rather than to seem"). It extends from lat. 33° 50′ to 36° 33′ north and from long. 75° 27′ to 84° 20′ west. It is bounded on the north by Virginia, on the east and southeast by the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by South Carolina and Georgia, and on the west by Tennessee (separated by the Smoky and other ranges of mountains). It has an area of 52,426 square miles. The surface is mountainous in the west, rolling or gently undulating in the center, and toward the eastern coast or lands bordering on the Albemarle and Pamlico Sounds generally level.

Unsuccessful attempts at colonization were made by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1518-1587. Scattering settlements were made prior to 1663, probably as early as 1653. The territory was granted to proprietors in 1663 by Charles II. The first two colonies are known in history as the Albemarle and the Clarendon. In 1669 a constitution was introduced modeled by the philosopher, John Locke, upon principles of a landed aristocracy and feudal service. The constitution was not a success and was abandoned after twenty-five years. Citizens of North Carolina passed a set of resolutions in 1775 similar to the Declaration of Independence. (See Mecklenburg Declaration.) It was the first colony to instruct its delegates in Congress to vote for independence. The State seceded from the Union May 20, 1861, and was readmitted by act of Congress June 25, 1868.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census, place the number of farms in the State at 253,725, comprising 22,439,129 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $375,716,210. The average value of land per acre was $15.29, as against $6.24 in 1900.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Tobacco	554,000	310,240,000*	$166,289,000
Cotton	1,568,000	875,000†	154,000,000
Corn	2,900,000	55,100,000	101,935,000
Hay	800,000	1,040,000‡	25,168,000
Wheat	850,000	7,225,000	16,834,000
Peanuts	116,000	4,756,000	11,605,000
S. P'toes	106,000	9,858,000	13,604,000
Potatoes	58,000	4,930,000	8,036,000
Cowpeas	243,000	2,284,000	6,167,000
Oats	322,000	3,767,000	3,993,000

*Pounds. †Bales ‡Tons.

The latest figures of farm animals showed 183,000 horses valued at $28,000,000; 236,000 mules, $44,840,000; 318,000 cows, $25,584,000; 394,000 other cattle, $13,908,000; 144,000 sheep, $1,368,000; and 1,592,000 swine, $31,840,000.

Minerals are found in great variety but not great quantities. The chief are mica, iron and quarry products.

In 1910, the population was 2,206,207. In 1920, it was given as 2,556,486. Of the 1910 population, 697,843 were negroes. There were only 6,092 foreign-born. The urban population formed 14½% of the whole. About one-half of the church members are Baptists and one-third Methodists.

The latest figures for education showed 7,854 public elementary schools, with 14,550 teachers and 649,246 pupils enrolled. There were 212 public high schools, with 464 teachers and 10,379 pupils.

The number of manufacturing establishments in North Carolina having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 5,507. The amount of capital invested was $253,842,000, giving employment to 151,333 persons, using material valued at $169,942,000, and turning out finished goods worth $289,412,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $56,283,000.

North Carolina (see also Confederate States):
- Admission of, into United States referred to, 57, 59, 61.
- Branch mint in, referred to, 1383, 1495.
- Ceding of jurisdiction of lands to the United States by, 64, 105, 167.
- Clerks of Federal courts and United States marshal in, referred to, 3661.
- Constitution of, referred to, 3831.
- Constitution of United States—
  - Evidence of ratification of, amendment to, by, 62, 68, 182.
  - Fourteenth amendment to, ratified by, proclamation announcing, 3854.
- Governor of, referred to, 64.
- Jails in, use of, granted to United States, 103.
- Judges, United States, in, opinion of, regarding pensions, 125.
- Lands ceded to United States by, referred to, 64, 105, 167. (See also Enc. Art., Franklin.)
- Light-house—
  - Lands ceded to United States for erection of, 103.
  - Lands, jurisdiction of, for, ceded to United States, 182.
- Military governor of, referred to, 3281.
- Obstruction to laws in, proclamation regarding, 3743.
  - Copies of, for executive clerks, 3756.
- Provisional governor for, appointed and restoration of, into Union discussed, 3510.
- Survey of coast of, 636, 680.
- Unlawful combination in, discussed, 4071, 4072.

North Carolina, The:
- Seizure and imprisonment of crew of, by Spanish authorities referred to, 2761.
- Sent to Mediterranean Sea, 826.

North Dakota.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "Cyclone State;" motto, "Liberty and Union now and forever, one and inseparable." It extends from lat. 46° to 49° north and from long. 96° 30′ to 104° 5′ west. It is bounded on the north by the Dominion of Canada, on the east by Minnesota, on the south by South Dakota, and on the west by Montana. Its area is 70,837 square miles. Its surface is generally undulating and level.

Dakota was first settled at Pembina by French traders in 1780. The territory of Dakota, comprising the present States of North and South Dakota, was organized from Nebraska Territory by act of March 2, 1861. It was divided on the forty-sixth parallel and the upper portion admitted to the Union Nov. 2, 1889 (5455).

Under the Federal reclamation act much improved farm land is subject to irrigation. The tillable area of the State is more than 15,000,000 acres, of which 10,000,000 is improved. The live stock reported Jan. 1, 1910, was 712,000 horses, valued at $81,168,000; 8,000 mules, $1,040,000; 270,000 milch cows, $8,373,000; 616,000 other cattle, $12,628,000; 621,000 sheep, $2,484,000; 206,000 swine, $2,266,000; the wool production was 715,000 pounds scoured.

The last annual agricultural production was reported as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Wheat	7,770,000	53,613,000	$129,207,000
Oats	2,400,000	88,400,000	25,728,000
Corn	508,000	16,764,000	23,470,000
Hay	605,000	908,000*	12,803,000
Rye	1,945,000	15,560,000	18,828,000
Barley	1,300,000	14,950,000	16,146,000
Potatoes	90,000	5,670,000	9,072,000
Flaxseed	760,000	3,800,000	16,758,000

*Tons.

Live stock is most important. The last figures for farm animals showed 825,000 horses, valued at $66,825,000; 464,000 cows, $35,728,000; 617,000 other cattle, $25,544,000; 286,000 sheep, $3,146,000; 428,000

swine, $8,988,000. The last annual wool clip was 1,654,000 pounds.

The mineral resources are inconsiderable, the chief mineral value being represented by coal, of which about 800,000 tons are mined annually.

The last federal industrial census (1914) showed 699 manufacturing establishments in the state, with a capital of $14,213,000, 3,275 workers and an annual output valued at $21,147,000. The most important of these industries was flour and grist milling. The dairy and creamery industry put out products valued at almost $17,000,000 in 1916.

In 1910, the population was 577,056. The 1920 census put it at 645,730. In 1915, the state census showed a population of 636,956. Of the population in 1910, 156,654 were foreign-born, of whom some 46,000 were Norwegian, 32,000 were Russian, 21,500 were Canadian and 16,600 were German. The urban population was but 11% of the whole. Of the church membership, 38½% is Roman Catholic and 37¾% is Lutheran.

The latest educational statistics show a school population of 200,532 with an enrollment of 162,572, an average attendance of 114,582 and a teaching staff of 7,712. There are some 300 high schools and 5,400 elementary schools.

North Dakota:
Admission of, into Union—
Discussed, 5485.
Proclaimed, 5455.
Lands in—
Open to settlement by proclamation, 5707.
Set apart as public reservation by proclamation, 5579.
Lottery in, efforts to secure charter for, discussed, 5515.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamation against, 5485.

North German Lloyd, property of, taken over, 8536.

North Point (Md.), Battle of.—After burning Washington in 1814 Gen. Ross withdrew to Admiral Cockburn's fleet and the invaders ran up the Chesapeake Bay to the mouth of the Patapsco River. On the morning of Sept. 12, 1814, the British forces 9,000 strong were landed at North Point, twelve miles from Baltimore, with provisions for three days and eighty rounds of ammunition per man. Baltimore was defended by about the same number of troops under Gen. Samuel Smith. Hearing of the landing of the British, he sent Gen. Stricker with 3,200 men to oppose their advance. Gen. Ross was killed in a preliminary skirmish. The battle was carried on for four hours, when the Americans fell back toward the city and the British bivouacked on the field.

North Polar Regions.—The arctic Ocean consists of a deep sea over 2,000 fathoms, on the southern margin of which there is a broad continental shelf with numerous islands. Into this deeper sea there is only one broad channel, about 700 miles, between Greenland and Scandinavia. Bering Strait is only 49 miles wide and 27 fathoms deep. The southern boundary of the Arctic Ocean is the Wyville-Thomson and Faeroe-Icelandic submarine ridge, which separates the North Atlantic from the Norwegian and Greenland Seas. Most of the icebergs are formed on the east and west coasts of Greenland and are carried south by the Polar currents. The lowest temperature observed is -63° in 85° N. latitude, a good deal less than that of Verkhoyansk (-90°, the least recorded temperature of the globe). Forests of pine and larch reach 73°, N. in Siberia, and to the north of this are dwarf birches, willows, mosses and lichens. There is sufficient vegetation to the north of Greenland to support rodents and ruminants. Among sea animals are the right whale and the narwhal, which is found further north than any other species, and the walrus. The right whale is now almost extinct. Numerous seals are found on the Arctic margin. Numerous races are found along the fringe of the Arctic. The Lapps are the original inhabitants of Arctic Norway; there are wandering tribes of Samoyedes, Tunguses and Yakuts; the Chukches of Bering Peninsula are more numerous than most of the nomadic tribes. The most northerly of the polar peoples are the Eskimo. Peary owed the success of his expedition to the North Pole largely to the help of these tribes, who were called the Arctic Highlanders by Sir J. Ross.

Exploration.—The first discoveries in the Arctic were made by the Norsemen, Iceland being reached in 861 A. D. and Greenland before 1,000 A. D. Newfoundland and Nova Scotia were visited from the settlements made in Greenland. Modern Arctic exploration may be said to commence with the search for the Northwest Passage. In 1496 John Cabot and his son Sebastian reached 58° N. latitude. In 1527 Robert Thorne, of Bristol, actually set out for the North Pole, but the records of his voyage are unsatisfactory. The first attempt on the Northeast Passage was made by Sir Hugh Willoughby and Richard Chancellor. The latter succeeded in reaching the north coast of Russia at a point which afterwards became the port of Archangel, and in opening up trade with that country. The second expedition in this direction was made by Stephen Burrough, who discovered Novaya Zemlya. In 1576 Martin Frobisher sailed for the Northwest Passage and discovered Frobisher and Hudson Straits.

In 1585 John Davis made the most important series of early voyages. He reached 75° N. latitude as a result of three expeditions, but was unable to make the passage round North America to the west. He demonstrated, however, the commercial importance of the Arctic in whales, seal and deer skins. In 1580 an expedition reached the Kara Sea under the auspices of the Muscovy Company, who in 1594 and 1596 again fitted out ships for the exploration of the Northeast Passage. The Pilot, Willam Barent, was the first Arctic explorer known to pass a winter in the Polar ice.

In 1607 Henry Hudson began his remarkable voyages. His first two expeditions, in which he reached 80° 23′ N. latitude, were to the northeast. His last voyage in 1610 was again directed toward the Northwest Passage. The *Discovery* was ice bound in Hudson Bay, and Hudson was deserted by his crew, who mutinied in the ensuing summer, and nothing is known of his fate. In 1615 William Baffin was appointed pilot to the *Discovery* and sent out by the Merchant Adventurers to search for the Northwest Passage. In 1616 he penetrated north along the west coast of Greenland to latitude 77° 45′, a record not afterwards passed for two centuries.

In 1725 Russian exploration began, and between that date and 1760 Bering mapped a large part of the northeast coast of Asia and opened up the fur trade. In 1773 another strictly Polar expedition was planned, and John Phipps reached 80° 40′ N. latitude, to the north of Spitzbergen. In 1817 two expeditions were sent out with geographical and scientific aims, under Buchan and Franklin, and under Ross and Parry. In 1821 Parry made an attempt to the south of Lancaster Sound. A further voyage in 1823 was also unsuccessful. Meanwhile Franklin made an overland journey to the mouth of the Coppermine River, where a canoe voyage was undertaken to Point Turnagain, 68° 18′ N. and 109° 25′ W. longitude. Franklin's second overland journey (1825-1827) resulted in further exploration on the Arctic coast of North America. Parry's last Arctic voyage in 1827 was an attempt to reach the Pole by sledge boats. From the north of Spitzbergen, traveling for the first time by night alone, he reached latitude 82° 45′. In 1829 Ross made another attempt on the Northwest Passage in the *Victory*, and reached Bellot Strait, the real channel leading to the Arctic Sea, but failed to recognize it as a passage, and returned without success after spending four winters in the ice. In the course of these voyages he attained the Magnetic Pole. The anxiety at Ross's long absence led to Black's relief voyage in the *Terror*. The *Erebus* and *Terror*, which had returned from the Antarctic, were fitted out with steam, and Franklin was commissioned in 1845 to attempt the entrance to Lancaster Sound. The two ships were last sighted near this point by a whaler, but were never seen again. In 1847 relief expeditions were sent out from the east through Lancaster Sound, from the west through Bering Strait, and from the south to the Arctic shores of North America.

The final result of these search expeditions was the completion of the Northwest Passage by M'Clure, who returned home in 1854. The first authoritative news of the fate of Franklin was obtained by Rae in his exploration of the west coast of Boothia. In 1857 Lady Franklin fitted out a last search expedition, which was commanded by M'Clintock, and finally Franklin's last record was found on the east coast of King William's Land. From this it was learned that his ship had been caught in the ice and never released. Till 1874 further Polar exploration was left to American, German, and Austrian explorers.

The Northeast Passage was discovered by Nordenskiöld, who reached the mouth of the Yenisei in two successive years, and attained the East Cape in 1879, after a winter in the ice not far from Bering Strait.

The first crossing of the lofty ice-covered plateau of Greenland was accomplished by Nansen in 1888. Another remarkable journey over the inland ice was carried through by Peary, who proved the insular character of Greenland. In 1892 Nansen attempted to reach the Pole by a novel method. His plan was to follow the course taken by the ill-fated *Jeannette*, which had been caught in the ice near Wrangel Land, and had drifted to New Siberia. The *Fram* was constructed to withstand enormous ice pressure, and preparations were made for drifting across the Polar Basin in the hope that the currents would bring the ship close to the Pole. Finding that the ship's track did not approach sufficiently near to the Pole, Nansen and Johannsen left the ship in 1895 with dogs and sledges, and reached N. latitude 86° 14′, the farthest point attained up to that time. The *Fram*, under the command of Otto Sverdrup, finally reached Norway in safety, after drifting to nearly as high a latitude as that attained by Nansen.

In 1896 an attempt to reach the North Pole by balloon was made by Andree, but the expedition was never seen again. In 1909 the Duke of the Abruzzi made an expedition in the *Stella Polare*, and Captain Cagni succeeded in reaching latitude 86° 32′, a little north of Nansen's record, by a sledge journey over the ice.

The honor of first reaching the Pole was reserved for Commander Robert Edwin Peary, of the United States Navy, who finally, after many voyages in the north of Greenland, attained success by a remarkable sledge journey during the winter night, reaching the North Pole on April 6, 1909. (See Article Explorations.)

Peary's expedition left the United States in the summer of 1908. Besides Peary, the personnel of the expedition comprised Doctor Goodsell, Professors Donald McMillan and Ross G. Marvin, Matthew Henson (colored), George Borup, and Captain Bartlett and crew of Peary's ship, the *Roosevelt*.

Etah, the farthest North settlement on Greenland, was reached without much difficulty, whence the party proceeded to Camp Sheridan, where the long winter night was spent. When at length the first indications of the passing of the Arctic winter were seen, the explorers advanced to the north shore of Grant Land, where they encamped at a spot which they christened "Camp Columbia," and from which the dash for the Pole was made, with the men named above and 17 Eskimos with their numerous sledges and dogs.

By March 14, 1909, lattitude 84° 29′ was reached, and the first supporting party turned back under the command of Doctor Goodsell. By March 20, 85° 23′ was attained, and Borup turned back with the second supporting party. On March 25, Marvin retired with the third supporting party at 86° 38′, only to be drowned in the icy waters by a miscalculation of the strength of the ice to which he entrusted his weight. On April 1, the continually favoring conditions enabled Peary to reach 88°. With success thus opening up before him, Peary turned back Bartlett with the fourth supporting party, and made his final dash for the Pole accompanied only by Henson, four Eskimos, with their sledges and dogs, and with supplies which at the utmost would last only for forty days.

Every circumstance was propitious. The ice was smooth and offered comparatively few obstacles to progress, while there was need for little climbing—a striking contrast to the conditions which Amundsen and Scott were to meet not many months later at the South Pole (see South Polar Regions). The weather became much warmer, rising to only 15 below zero, and the party plugged ahead with hope high in their breasts when they found that they could average almost three miles an hour. Numerous observations showed that the distance to the Pole was becoming shorter and shorter, until finally 32 miles were covered in a march of 12 hours, at the end of which an observation showed that the party had stopped at 89° 57′; and the attainment of 90° was a matter only of minutes.

As far as eye could see, a level plain of ice covered the pole. No land was visible, but a hut was erected, with a flag pole to which the Stars and Stripes were firmly fastened. The return journey presented few difficulties—Camp Columbia was reached on April 23, and on September 6, 1909, the entire world was thrilled by the news that the goal at which so many attempts had been made and for which so many costly sacrifices had been ungrudgingly paid, had been attained.

For further description of the Arctic regions, and of attempts to conquer them, see the article, Arctic Explorations.

North Pole, discovery of. (See North Polar Regions and Arctic Explorations.)

North Star, The. (See *Rodgers,* The.)

Northeastern Boundary.—By the treaty of 1783 the northeastern boundary of the United States was defined as extending from the source of the St. Croix River due north to the highlands or watershed between the Atlantic and St. Lawrence systems, thence along those highlands to the northwesternmost head of the Connecticut River. There was a continual dispute over this boundary, and the claims of Americans and Canadians were pressed so vigorously as to lead to preparation for hostilities. The matter was referred to arbitration. In 1831 the King of the Netherlands, as arbitrator, made an award which neither Great Britain nor the United States would accept. Finally by the Webster-Ashburton treaty of 1842 the present boundary was agreed upon, not far from that suggested by the Dutch King. The United States secured about seven-twelfths of the disputed territory and Great Britain five-twelfths.

Northeastern Boundary between United States and Great Britain:
- Amicable settlement of, discussed, 1747, 1811, 1820.
- Appropriation for survey of, necessary, 1845.
- Arbitration committed to citizens of Maine, 1007.
- Ashburton treaty discussed. (See Ashburton Treaty.)
- Commissioners appointed to fix, 188, 191, 242, 264, 1821.
- Convention with Great Britain regarding, 347, 351, 958.
- Conventional agreement to be arranged, 1811.
- Correspondence in regard to, 1564, 1622, 1648, 1687, 1738, 1785, 1791, 1798, 1812, 1945, 1965, 2023.
  - Referred to, 1448, 1784, 2278.
- Depredations committed on disputed territory, 1733.
  - Correspondence regarding, 1738, 1785, 1791.
- Disagreement in decision of, 819, 947.
  - Report of, 1846, 1945, 1965, 2024, 2087.
- Discussed, 64, 65, 191, 242, 264, 268, 1156, 1239, 1316, 1368, 1455, 1591, 1820, 1931, 2047.
- Excitement growing out of, partially subsided, 1820.
- Imprisonment of American citizens charged with trespassing, 963, 969, 990, 1123.
  - Release of, 1110.
- Joint commission for survey of—
  - Appointment of, referred to, 1702.
  - Report of, 2024.
- King of Netherlands selected as arbitrator, 974.
  - Award of, referred to, 1110, 1122, 1123, 1126.
    - Great Britain agrees to, 1123.
    - Protest of United States minister against, 1122.
- Maps regarding transmitted, 960.
- Proposition of United States for settlement of—
  - Declined by Great Britain, 1368.
  - To be acceded to by Great Britain, 1811.
- Referred to, 922, 946, 1070, 1133, 1156, 1200, 1346, 1448, 1697, 1729, 1784, 1796, 1805, 1954.
- Reports of commissioners on, 1846, 1945, 1965, 2024, 2087.
- Resolutions of Maine legislature regarding, 1126.
- Survey of, referred to, 1845, 1931, 1945.
- Treaty regarding, discussed, 2015, 2047.

Northern Cheyenne Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Northwest Territory.—The portion of the United States known in history as the Northwest Territory comprises all the country lying between the Ohio River, the Mississippi River and the Great Lakes, immediately west of the original states, and now forming the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, and Wisconsin. The original states severally laid claim to this territory by their charters, which granted possession from ocean to ocean. New York ceded her claims to this region to the General Government in 1782, and was followed by Virginia in 1784, Massachusetts in 1785, and Connecticut in 1786. The latter state, however, retained a small tract as the foundation for her school fund. This became known as the Western Reserve.

Congress in July, 1787, passed an ordinance for the government of this territory, and to the wise measures incorporated into that law the states formed from the territory are indebted for much that is wise and judicious in their constitutions. It is claimed by some that the foundations for future national greatness were laid by the manner in which Congress dealt with the question of territorial government at this time. A clause forbidding slavery after 1800 was at first voted down, but afterwards was adopted. The ordinance provided that no land should be taken up until it had been purchased from the Indians and offered for sale by the United

States; no property qualification was to be required of electors or elected; a temporary government might be established until the male population of the territory reached 5,000, then a permanent representative government would be permitted, with a Representative in Congress entitled to debate but not to vote. When the inhabitants of any one of the five divisions of the territory reached 60,000 it should be admitted as a state, these states to remain forever a part of the United States, pay their portion of the Federal debt, and in their government uphold republican forms and prohibit slavery; but fugitive slaves were to be surrendered. Arthur St. Clair was governor from 1788 to 1802.

Northwest Territory:

Government established in, and recommendations made to enable the governor and secretary to visit the posts in, 190.

Northwestern Boundary.—The territory bounded on the north by lat. 54° 40′, on the east by the Rocky Mountains, on the south by lat. 42°, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean, has been variously claimed by Russia, Spain, Great Britain, and the United States. Russia's claim rested for the most part upon occupation by fur traders, and was settled by a treaty of Jan. 11, 1825, under the terms of which the United States were to make no settlements north of lat. 54° 40′ and Russia none south of that latitude. England made a treaty with Russia on the same terms. By the treaty which ceded Florida in 1819 the Spanish claims were confined to the south of lat. 42°. This left the territory between 42° and 54° 40′ to the Americans and English. Great Britain had no claim by discovery. The claim of the United States rested upon the voyage of Gray up the Columbia River in 1792 and the explorations of Lewis and Clark through the Rocky Mountains and the Oregon country in 1805 and 1806 under the orders of Jefferson. By the treaty of Oct. 20, 1818, the entire country west of the Rocky Mountains was to be opened to both countries for ten years, and at the end of this period joint occupation for an indefinite time was agreed upon. This arrangement produced much dissatisfaction and was made a political issue in the United States in 1844. (See "Fifty-four Forty or Fight.") After considerable negotiation lat. 49° was agreed upon (in 1846) as the boundary from the Rocky Mountains to the channel between Vancouver Island and the mainland. (See also San Juan de Fuca explorations.)

Northwestern Boundary between United States and Great Britain.

Commission for settlement of, recommended and referred to, 2810, 2866, 3989, 4056.

Convention for adjustment of, 958, 2243, 2299, 3380.

Concluded and signed, 2302.

Exchange of ratifications referred to, 2307.

Correspondence regarding, 890.

Referred to, 2127.

Discussed, 705, 922, 946, 956, 1133, 1614, 1615, 1684, 2049, 2063, 2110, 2127 2180, 2190, 2214, 2242, 2277, 2484, 3092, 3197, 3894, 3899.

Emperor of Germany chosen as arbitrator, 4097.

Award of, 4139.

Thanks of United States tendered, 4140.

Final settlement of, 4357, 4382.

Joint commission for marking, 4141.

Report of, 4191.

Marking and tracing of, recommended, 2655, 2741.

Settlement of—

By arbitration, 4139.

Recommended, 3198, 3213.

Proposition regarding, by—

Great Britain—

Declined, 2243.

Referred to, 2305.

Submitted, 2299.

Accepted, 2302.

Ratification of, referred to, 2307.

United States declined, 2111, 2243.

Referred to, 2305.

Referred to, 2484.

Treaty regarding, 3894, 3956.

Warlike preparations made by Great Britain on account of, 2277.

Norwalk Harbor, Conn., survey of, referred to, 1043.

Norway.—Norway occupies the west and north of the Scandinavian peninsula, between 57° 58′-71″ 11′ N. latitude and 4° 30′ 31° 11′ E. longitude. Within these limits lie the mainland and a multitude of islands and inlets, estimated at 150,000 in all. The boundaries on the north, west, and south are the Arctic and Atlantic Oceans and the North Sea, and the southeast coast is washed by the Skager Rack, which separates the kingdom from the Danish promontory of Jutland. The Swedish frontier forms the eastern boundary, but beyond this frontier to the northeast the Norwegian Amt of Finmarken extends along the boundary of the Russian Grand Duchy of Finland.

Physical Features and Climate.—The coast is extremely rugged, broken by inlets or fjords, and studded with islands. The fjords run inland for a great distance, with precipitous cliffs on either side, and down many of them the mountain torrents find their way to the sea in picturesque, elevated waterfalls.

The coast is fringed with a "fence of islands" (skjærgaard), almost throughout its length from southeast to northeast. In the extreme north is the large island of Magerö, which contains, in North Cape, the most northerly point of Norway and of the continent of Europe.

Norway consists of an almost continuous plateau, with frequent peaks and valleys. In addition to the fjords there are countless inland lakes, the largest being Mjösen, sixty miles in length. The principal river of Norway is the Glommen. Many of the rivers run in precipitous beds, and magnificent waterfalls occur in the course of many of them, the most famous being Sarpsfos on the Glommen, Rjukanfos, or "Smoking Fall," on the Maan, Lotefos and Espelandsfos, which discharge into Hardanger Fjord, and Vöringsfos, on the Bjoreia River.

The climate of Norway is in no way typical of the latitudes in which the kingdom is situated, for although a great part of the land lies within the Arctic Circle, the coast is kept free of ice by the prevailing southwest winds and the Gulf Stream drift of warm waters from the Atlantic Ocean. The direction of the Gulf Stream is not only along the west, but round the north and northeast coast, and the most northerly point of the kingdom is thus kept free from the icy currents which cause many lands in lower latitudes to be ice-bound; in fact, the Skager Rack of the south is liable to be closed by ice although the seas of northernmost Norway, 1,000 miles nearer the North Pole, are free all the year round. The highest mean annual temperature is 45° Fahrenheit on the southwest coast, and the lowest mean is 1° above freezing in the extreme north, when the summer average is as high as 53° Fahrenheit, as against 62°, the summer mean at the capital.

History.—The Kingdom of Norway had been established for some centuries and Christianity had been introduced about 150 years when King Harald III. fell at Stamford Bridge in England (1066 A. D.), and from 1389-1521 the kingdom formed part of the tripartite League of Kalmar (see Denmark), by which Norway, Sweden and Denmark were united under King Eric (1389-1397). In 1521, the secession of Sweden left Norway in union with Denmark, and in 1814, by the Treaty of Kiel (Jan. 14, 1814) this union was dissolved, and the kingdoms of Norway and Sweden were united under one crown. In 1905 the Norwegian Storting adopted a resolution dissolving the union with Sweden (June 7), and later in the same year a referendum resulted in an overwhelming majority (368,211 votes to 184) in favor of the dissolution of the union. Negotiations between representatives of Norway and Sweden settled the terms of the severance, which was ratified by the Norwegian Storting and the Swedish Riksdag on Oct. 9. On Oct. 27 King Oscar of Sweden and Norway issued a proclamation relinquishing the crown of Norway, and a Norwegian referendum authorized the Storting to offer the crown to Prince Charles of Denmark, who entered the Norwegian capital with his consort on Nov. 25, and was crowned in Trondhjem Cathedral in 1906, as King Haakon VII., the first of that name (Haakon the Good), having reigned over Norway from 935-961 A. D.

Government.—According to its Constitution, dating from 1814, Norway is a Constitutional and hereditary monarchy. The king may twice veto an act of congress, but a bill passing three successive congresses formed by separate elections becomes law without his assent. The king is the commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and makes most of the public nominations.

The Congress, or Storting, is elected by direct suffrage, male and female. The voting age is 25. Elections are held every three years, and the congress meets annually. The number elected is 126, 42 from the towns and 84 from the rural constituencies. The entire body then selects the one-fourth of its membership to compose the upper house, or Lagting. The lower house is called the Odelsting. In case of disagreement, a joint session is held, when the law in dispute may be passed by a two-thirds vote of the combined membership.

The king exercises his executive power through a council of state, composed of the premier, the true head of the Government, and a number of ministers in charge of the executive departments.

For local government, the country is divided into twenty districts. These again are further divided for the purposes of municipal and district government.

There are separate courts for civil and criminal cases. Civil cases are generally brought before a court of mediation (forlikskommission) from which appeals may be brought to local court or to the three superior courts of appeal (overretter) at Christiania, Bergen and Trondhjem. Criminal cases are tried by jury courts or at assizes. The final court of the Kingdom is the Supreme Court at Christiania.

AREA AND POPULATION

Governments	*Area Sq. Mi.*	*Population Last Census*	*Last Estimate*
Akershus	2,021	128,042	163,054
Aust-Agder	3,608	76,456	79,825
Bergen	5	76,867	90,733
Buskerud	5,719	123,643	134,383
Finmark	18,366	38,065	44,777
Hedmark	10,608	134,555	146,831
Hordaland	6,024	146,006	157,000
Kristiana	6	241,834	259,445
More	5,786	144,622	156,876
Nordland	14,917	164,687	172,700
Nord Trondelag	8,683	84,948	88,773
Olstfold	1,600	152,306	159,289
Orland	9,756	119,236	127,675
Ryfolke	3,531	141,040	168,792
Sogn og Fjordane	7,134	90,040	91,080
Sor Trondelag	7,184	148,306	167,522
Telemark	5,863	108,084	124,740
Troms	10,131	81,902	89,608
Vest-Agder	2,804	82,067	87,184
Vestfold	895	109,076	121,723
Totals	124,643	2,391,782	2,632,010

Of the population enrolled at the last census, about 70% was rural. The national church is the Evangelical Lutheran and it is endowed by the state, with its clergy nominated by the king. Education is compulsory to the age of 14. The latest educational statistics show 6,130 public rural elementary schools, with 283,136 pupils; and 3,345 public urban elementary schools, with 98,876 pupils. There were also 9 secondary schools, and a number of professional and special schools. The University of Kristiania is attended by almost 2,000 students.

Finance.—The last budget was in the neighborhood of 625,000,000 crowns, the crown being equal to about $0.27 in the United States currency. The public debt amounts to about 455,500,000 crowns.

Production and Industry.—The barrenness and ruggedness of the country makes agriculture difficult and infrequent. Only about 3½% of the total area is under cultivation, with about 21½% under forests. The latest annual report of agricultural production in acreage and yield in terms of quarters was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Quarters*
Potatoes	145,000	42,586,097*
Hay		2,526,356†
Oats	355,220	1,757,308
Barley	115,646	462,917

*Bushels †Tons.

There are also small crops of rye, mixed corn and wheat. The live-stock of Norway is reported as 220,900 horses, 1,053,743

cattle, 1,216,291 sheep, 203,582 goats and 224,803 swine.

The chief wealth of the country is to be found in its forests and fisheries. There are about 26,500 square miles of forests, chiefly pine. The value of the timber exported annually has risen to some 100,000,000 crowns, and of the wood pulp, to 200,000,000 crowns.

Pyrite, with its copper and sulphur content, is the most valuable mineral product. There are fields of iron ore, but there is a shortage of coal for smelting. Silver and nickel are also found.

About half of Norway's annual export value comes from fisheries. There are about 120,000 persons engaged in the fisheries, chiefly in cod-fisheries. In value, the herring product runs a close second to the cod. The whale, seal, shark and walrus fisheries are also highly profitable.

In manufacturing, the chief industry is the production of various nitrates and other electro-chemical products. The last industrial census showed the chief industries as follows:

Industry	*No. Plants*	*Workers*
Machinery, Metals	944	36,706
Wood, bone, horn, etc.	2,044	24,526
Food Products	1,652	24,472
Paper	197	15,484
Chemicals, Oils, etc.	311	12,167
Textiles	263	11,639
Clothing	436	11,275

The total number of establishments was 6,886 and the total number of industrial workers was 161,722.

Foreign Trade.—For the last year for which figures are available, the imports amounted to 1,353,664,900 crowns and the exports of Norwegian products to 974,475,000 crowns. Of the import values 387,900,000 crowns came from the United States, 374,000,000 from United Kingdom, 176,471,000 from Germany, and 132,441,000 from Sweden. Of the export values, 291,776 crowns went to Germany, 274,424,000 to the United Kingdom, and 98,000,000 crowns to Russia and Finland.

Of the export values, 326,648,000 crowns were represented by food products, 180,000,000 by timber and wooden goods, 119,000,000 by mineral manufactures, 91,000,000 by oils, tallow, etc. Of the imports, the chief, in order of value, were vessels, carriages, machinery, etc.; raw minerals; breadstuffs; textiles; unwrought and manufactured metals.

In the last fiscal year, the United States exported to Norway goods valued at $115,333,000 and imported from Norway goods valued at $15,025,000.

The Norwegian merchant marine consists of some 3,424 vessels of 1,500,000 net tons, of which 2,761, of 1,165,000 tons are steam and motor vessels. In the last year for which figures are available, some 4,570 vessels of 2,560,000 tons entered and cleared from Norwegian ports, chiefly from Kristiania and Bergen.

Communications.—The length of the Government railroads is 1,720 miles and of the private lines, 290 miles. The Government telegraph and telephone lines have a length of more than 15,000 miles, with 68,000 miles of wire. There are 1,725 telegraph offices.

Cities.—The capital is Kristiana, 260,000. Other large towns are Bergen, 91,000; Trondhejm, 54,000; Stavanger, 46,000; Drammen, 26,000. There are 12 other towns with a population above 10,000.

N'Quentl-má-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Nuestra Senora, The, seizure of, and claims arising out of, discussed, 3795.

Nullification.—The general meaning of nullification is the act of invalidating or making void. In American politics it is almost exclusively applied to the doctrine set forth by John C. Calhoun and his friends in the South Carolina controversy with the Federal Government, 1828-1833. This doctrine asserted the right of any state to declare the unconstitutionality of any United States law, though it should have been enacted in the proper manner and held to be constitutional by the Supreme Court of the United States. It was further claimed that any attempt to enforce such law in a state which had refused to acknowledge its validity would justify it in at once leaving the Union. The immediate cause of this declaration of principles was that the existing tariff law bore unjustly, so it was claimed, on the non-manufacturing and raw-material-producing states of the south. The arguments in favor of nullification were mainly based upon language used by Jefferson and Madison in the Kentucky and Virginia resolutions of 1798 and 1799 in regard to the alien and sedition laws. Here it was asserted that the General Government was not "the final or exclusive judge of the powers delegated to itself, but that, as in all other cases of compact among powers having no common judge, each party has an equal right to judge for itself, as well of infractions as of the mode and measure of redress." Senator Hayne, of South Carolina, was the first to advocate this doctrine in Congress. On the advice of Calhoun the governor of South Carolina called a convention, and an ordinance of nullification was passed on Nov. 19, 1832. This ordinance declared the Federal tariff law "null and void" and authorized the citizens to refuse payment of duties under it. It also denied the right of the Supreme Court of the United States to pass upon the nullification ordinance. The legislature was on the point of enacting a bill in accordance with this ordinance when the necessity was partly obviated by the passage of Clay's compromise measures (c. v., in 1833). The attempt to interfere with the execution of Federal laws was met by President Jackson's prompt instructions to the revenue officers at Charleston, his proclamation of Dec. 10, 1832 (1203), and his special message to Congress on the subject (1173). March 3, 1833, a new tariff bill was passed which gave satisfaction to the nullifiers, and on March 16 a state convention of South Carolina repealed the ordinance of nullification.

Nullification:

Message regarding, 1173.

Proclamation regarding, 1203.

Referred to, 1185, 1197.

Nutrias, The, seizure of, and claims, arising out of, 4114, 5198, 5547, 5673, 5873, 5962.

Award in case of, 6070.

Oath.—A solemn appeal to the Supreme Being in attestation of the truth of some statement or the binding character of some covenant, undertaking, or promise. In point of law an oath is a solemn declaration which is necessary as a condition to the filling of some office more or less public or of giving evidence in a court of justice. The Constitution requires that before the President shall "enter on the execution of his office he shall take the following oath or affirmation: 'I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will to the best of my ability preserve, protect and defend the Constitution of the United States.'" The first act of Congress provided for oaths of office. An oath similar to the foregoing is required of all officers of the executive, legislative, and judicial departments of states and the nation.

Congress in June, 1778, directed Washington to administer the following oath of allegiance to the officers of the Army before leaving Valley Forge: "I, [name and office] in the armies of the United States of America, do acknowledge the United States of America to be free, independent, and sovereign states, and declare that the people thereof owe no allegiance or obedience to George III, King of Great Britain, and I renounce, refuse, and abjure any allegiance or obedience to him; and I do—that I will to the utmost of my power support, maintain, and defend the United States against the said King George III, his heirs and successors, and his or their abettors, assistants, and adherents, and will serve the said United States in the office of—— which I now hold, with fidelity according to the best of my skill and understanding." By an act of Congress of Aug. 3, 1861, the oath of allegiance for the cadets at West Point was amended so as to abjure all allegiance, sovereignty, or fealty to any state, county or country whatsoever and to require unqualified support of the Constitution and the National Government. In 1865 oaths of allegiance were required as a condition of pardon of persons who had participated in the rebellion. The oath required of persons appointed to office from the southern states, declaring that they had in no way aided or abetted the rebellion, was called the "iron clad oath," and was modified as soon as all apprehension of further difficulty with the South had passed away.

The oath administered to jurors entering upon their duties is substantially as follows: "You shall well and truly try the issue between the parties and a true verdict give according to the evidence, so help you God"; and the juror sometimes kisses the New Testament. Witnesses must be sworn in a similar manner, the word being, "The evidence you shall give shall be the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, so help you God." Witnesses must have sufficient understanding to know the nature of an oath, and on this ground young children are excluded as witnesses. A religious belief was formerly required before an oath could be considered as binding. Several statutes of Congress permit a simple affirmation in lieu of an appeal to the Almighty. Any person having conscientious scruples against oaths now makes a solemn affirmation. Jews are sworn on the Pentateuch, keep on their hats, and conclude their oaths with the words "so help me Jehovah." A Mohammedan is sworn on the Koran. A Chinaman is sworn by breaking a dish on the witness box or beheading a fowl. The form of taking an oath is immaterial, the essential thing being that the witness acknowledge some binding effect derived from his sense of moral obligation to tell the truth. (See also Perjury.)

Oath of Allegiance, army officers directed to subscribe, anew, 3219.
Taken by insurgents in the Philippines, 6692.

Oath of Office:
Act prescribing, for participants in War between the States discussed, 4076.
Modification of, recommended, 3580.

Observatories. (See Meteorological Observatory; Naval Observatory.)

Obtrusive Partizanship.—An expression often incorrectly quoted as "Offensive Partizanship" (used by Grover Cleveland, 5079). In the same message he used the term "Pernicious Activity." Both these expressions referred to efforts on the part of office-holders to influence voting, and became very popular.

Occupations in the United States.—The 1920 federal census gave the following information on the occupations of the inhabitants of the United States in that year. The numbers given are those of persons ten years of age and over engaged in gainful occupations.

Sex	*Number*	*% of Population Ten and Over*
Both	41,614,248	50.3%
Male	33,064,737	78.2%
Female	8,549,511	21.1%

The percentage of females ten years of age and over gainfully employed increased from 15% in 1880 to 17½% in 1890, 19% in 1900, 23½% in 1910 and 21% in 1920.

The number of workers of both sexes in the several occupations was as follows:—

Classification	*Number*	*%*
Mineral Extraction	1,090,222	2.6
Manufacturing, Mechanical	12,818,524	30.8
Transportation	3,063,582	7.4
Trade	4,242,979	10.2
Public Service	770,460	1.9
Agriculture, forestry, animal husbandry	10,953,158	26.3
Professional Service	2,143,889	5.2
Domestic, Personal Service	3,404,892	8.2
Clerical Occupations	3,126,541	7.5

The percentages of workers in the several occupations by sex were:—

	Male		Female	
	1920	*1910*	*1920*	*1910*
Mineral Extraction	3%	3%	.....	.....
Manufacturing, Mechanical	33	29	23%	23%
Transportation	9	9	2	1
Trade	11	10½	8	6
Public Service	2	1½	.....	.....
Agriculture, forestry and animal h'bdry	30	36	13	23
Professional Service	3	3	12	9
Domestic and Personal Service	4	4	25½	31
Clerical Work	5	4	16½	7
Total Percentages	100	100	100	100

There follows a list of the numbers in some of the occupations, the first figures being males, and the second, females:—

Agriculture, etc.—Farmers, general, 5,757,327 males, 247,253 females; Farm Laborers, 3,248,712, 792,915 (home farm, 1,273,477, 576,642; working out, 1,843,307,

211,969); Gardeners, Florists and Nurserymen, 160,116, 9,283 and Laborers for them, 127,589, 9,421; Lumbermen, 205,036 males.

Mineral Extraction.—Coal Miners, 732,441 males, 1,495 females; Copper, Gold, Silver and Iron Miners, 107,189 males; Other Miners, 41,282 males; Quarry Workers, 45,162 males; Oil and Gas Well Operatives, 85,303 males.

Manufacturing and Mechanical. — Apprentices, 73,897 males, 56 females; Bakers, 93,347, 4,593; Blacksmiths, 195,251 males; Masons, 131,257 males; Carpenters, 887,208 males; Compositors, 128,859, 11,306; Dressmakers and Seamstresses, 235,519 females; Electricians, 212,945 males.

Engineers, Cranemen, etc., 279,940 males; Firemen, 143,862 males; Foremen in Manufacturing, 277,242, 30,171; Machinists, 801,896 males; Painters and Glaziers, 316,529, 2,366; Plumbers and Fitters, 206,715 males.

Cigar and Tobacco Workers, 61,262 males, 83,960 females; Clothing Workers, 143,718, 265,643; Food Factory Workers, 116,493, 72,502; Iron and Steel Workers, 632,161, 57,819; Other Metal Workers, 60,844, 30,447; Woodworkers, 150,079, 18,640; Shoe Workers, 132,813, 73,412.

Textile Workers—Cotton, 153,269 males, 149,185 females; Knitting, 26,922, 80,682; Silk, 42,953, 72,768; Woolen, 64,703, 61,715; Other Textile, 66,187, 74,013. Tailors, 160,404, 31,828.

Transportation.—Chauffeurs, 284,096 men, 949 women; Teamsters, 410,484, 648; R. R. Brakemen, 114,107; R. R. Conductors, 74,539; Street R. R. Conductors and Motormen, 126,719; R. R. Laborers, 463,613, 6,586; Engineers and Firemen, 201,244; Switchmen and Yardmen, 111,565; Mail Carriers, 90,131, 1,320; Telegraph Operators, 62,574, 16,860; Telephone Operators, 11,781, 178,379.

Trade.—Bankers and Brokers, 156,309 men, 5,304 women; Clerks in Stores, 243,521, 170,397; Commercial Travelers, 176,514, 2,806; Deliverymen, 170,039; Insurance Agents, 114,835, 5,083; Real Estate Agents, etc., 139,927, 9,208; Retail Dealers, 1,249,295, 78,980; Salespeople, 769,461, 356,461.

Professional.—Actors, 15,124 men, 13,237 women; Clergymen, 125,483, 1,787; Lawyers, 120,781, 1,738; Doctors, 137,758, 7,219; Teachers, 122,525, 639,241; Engineers, 136,086, 41; Trained nurses, 5,464, 143,664.

Architects, 18,048, 137; Artists and Art Teachers, 20,785, 14,617; Authors, 3,662, 3,006; Editors and Reporters, 28,467, 5,730; Chemists, etc., 31,227, 1,714; College teachers, 23,332, 10,075; Dentists, 54,323, 1,829; Designers, Draftsmen, etc., 62,987, 7,664; Librarians, 1,795, 13,502; Social Workers, 14,151, 26,927.

Domestic and Personal Service.—Barbers, Hairdressers and Manicurists, 182,965 men, 33,246 women; Launderers, 10,882, 385,874; Laundry Workers, 39,968, 80,747; Nurses, 19,338, 132,658; Servants, 258,813, 1,012,133; Waiters, 112,985, 116,921.

Ocean Cables. (See Cables.)

Ocean Freight Rates, discussed, 8028.

Oceania.—One of the geographical divisions of the globe. It embraces the Continent of Australia and the islands of the Pacific Ocean east to Easter Island (109° W.). The islands generally are grouped in two divisions—Australasia and Polynesia.

Australasia is subdivided into Australia proper and Melanesia, "islands of the blacks." The latter includes New Guinea, Bismarck Archipelago, New Caledonia Island, and Solomon, Santa Cruz, New Hebrides, and Loyalty groups. The Fiji Islands (Polynesia), are usually treated with Australia, as are New Zealand and Tasmania.

Polynesia comprises Polynesia proper—Ellice, Samoan, Phœnix, Palmyra, Society, and Tuamotu Islands—and Micronesia, "the little islands." The latter embraces the remaining islands of the Pacific, including Marianne and Caroline west and Hawaiian east. Land area of Oceania, 3,460,000 square miles—more than three-fourths belonging to Australia. (See Australia.)

For the Oceanic possessions of the United States, see Hawaii, Wake, Guam, Samoan Islands.

British Possessions.—Besides the islands constituting Australasia, the principal groups and isolated islands belonging to Great Britain are Cook Islands, Manihiki, Tokelau and Phœnix groups, Ellice Islands, Gilbert Islands, Santa Cruz Islands, British Solomon Islands, and the Islands of Pitcairn, Fanning, Malden, and Christmas.

British Mandates.—Former German Islands in Oceania assigned to Australia under mandate of the League of Nations were Kaiserwilhelmsland (the northeast section of New Guinea; see below) and the adjacent Bismarck Archipelago, including the German Solomon Islands. The German Samoan Islands, renamed Western Samoa, were assigned under mandate to New Zealand. The island of Nauru was assigned to Great Britain.

French Possessions.—New Caledonia and dependencies, and the Society Islands, the Marquesas, Tuamotu, Gambier, and Tubuai groups, and the Island of Rapa.

New Guinea.—Discovered by Portuguese in 1511; named Papua in 1526; New Guinea in 1545. Visited by Dutch 1676. Circumnavigated by Dampier 1699. The Dutch took possession of the country west of 141° E. in 1828. The southeastern portion became a British protectorate in 1884; a Crown Colony in 1888. A German protectorate was established in the northeast in 1884. Total area about 312,000 square miles. Interior wide plains and lofty mountains; greatest elevation 16,000 feet. The chief rivers are the Kaiserin Augusta and the Fly. The coast line is deeply indented and has fine harbors. The forests contain cedar, sandalwood, ebony, India rubber, areca and sago palms, bamboos, etc. The soil is adapted to tobacco, rice, tea, sugar cane, coffee, cotton, fruits, etc. German settlers established cotton and tobacco plantations. The chief industries are wood carving and manufacture of rope and pottery. Leading exports—copra, pearl shell, trepang, gold, pearls, and sandalwood. Gold, coal, and plumbago are found. The population is about 1,800,000.

The western half of New Guinea belongs to The Netherlands. It has an area of 121,339 square miles. The southeastern part, a territory of Australia, is known as Papua (q. v.). The former German territory on the northeast part of the island has an area of some 70,000 square miles.

Japanese Mandates.—Japan administers the former German islands in Oceania north of the equator, under mandate from the League of Nations. They comprise the Caroline, the Marshall and the Marianne or Ladrone Islands, with a total area of some 900 square miles.

Samoan Islands.—First explored by Bougainville in 1768; Christianity was introduced in 1830. Neutrality and independ-

ence was guaranteed by Great Britain, United States, and Germany in 1889. The islands were divided between Germany and United States in 1899. They are situated in the middle of the Pacific about 400 miles northeast of Fiji; the largest, Savaii and Upolu, went to Germany, and Tutuila and adjacent islands to United States. Total area 1,701 square miles. Chief products are sugar, coffee, cotton, maize, and tropical fruits.

New Hebrides.—Discovered by Spanish in 1606; explored and named by Cook in 1774. The group is northeast of New Caledonia and stretches northwest and southeast 500 miles. Area, 5,700 square miles. Cocoanuts (for copra), maize, millet, coffee, and bananas are grown. Population about 80,000. Jointly administered by France and England.

Solomon Islands.—Discovered by Mendana in 1567-1568; rediscovered by Bougainville 1768. An archipelago in Melanesia, 500 miles east of New Guinea. Area 16,950 square miles, in large part covered with thick forests. Chief commercial products, tortoise shell, copra, ivory nuts, and sandalwood. The German dependencies before 1920 were in the north, while the southern portion of group is under British rule; Choiseul and Isabel were ceded to Great Britain by Germany in 1899.

Trade with United States.—During a recent year, the United States exported to Oceania, exclusive of Australia, New Zealand and the Philippines, goods valued at $1,938,262 and imported thence goods valued at $2,838,499.

Ocean Mail Post-Office, establishment of, discussed, 5633.

Ocean Mail Service. (See Postal Service, steamship.)

Ocean Trade, more ships for, 7362. (See also Merchant Marine.)

Offenders against Government, difficulties of prosecuting, 6918, 7003.

Offenses on High Seas, acts to provide for punishment of, returned, 5769.

Office for Foreign Affairs, term used by Washington to describe the later State Department, 50.

Office Naval Operations, Navy Department.—This office was organized in May 1915, under the Chief of Naval Operations, who has the title of admiral, and who is aided by no less than 15 assistants of or above the rank either of lieutenant-commanders in the Navy or majors in the Marine Corps (q. v.). The Chief of Naval Operations is charged with the preparation of plans for use of the United States fleet in time of war, and also is responsible for the readiness of such plans. Accordingly, he is virtually responsible for the war plan of the Department, which determines its activities, and his work covers even the development of aeronautics, (q. v.), repairs to ships, gunnery, and fleet operations and manoeuvers in times of peace. (See Navy Department; Navy.)

Office of Indian Affairs. (See Indian Affairs and Interior Department.)

Office of Naval Communications. (See Naval Communications.)

Office of Naval Intelligence. (See Naval Intelligence.)

Officers, Public (see also the several officers.)

Act regulating tenure of certain civil officers vetoed. (See Tenure-of-Office Act.)

Application of public money by, for private uses should be made a felony, 1709.

Appointment of. (See Executive Nominations.)

Availing themselves of benefits of insolvent-debtors act must be dismissed, 1107.

Bonding system of, discussed, 1611.

Books of, should be carefully inspected, 1709.

Breach of duty in publishing Senate executive business discussed, 2691.

Bribery of, recommendations regarding punishment for, 2714.

Commissions claimed by, should be regulated, 1730.

Compensation of. (See Salaries.)

Compensation withheld from, in arrears, 775.

Defalcation of—
- Freedom from, in collecting revenue discussed, 5542, 5746.
- Inquired into, 2218, 2918.

Delinquency in handling public money a cause of removal, 1905.

Disbursing officers should deposit moneys in legal depositories, 2941.

False entries by, should be made a felony, 2818, 2870.

Fee system, abolition of, in certain cases discussed and recommended, 4939, 5879, 5968, 6161.

Hours of labor of. (See Hours of Labor.)

Militia called forth to protect, 154.

Nomination of. (See Executive Nominations.)

Number of, should be diminished, 316, 1018.

Oath of. (See Oath of Office.)

Offenses against court officers, etc., should be made cognizable in Federal courts, 5477, 5633.

Papers of, must be handed over, 2818.

Partisan interference in elections by—
- Discussed by President Tyler, 1905, 1942.
- Order regarding, by President—
  - Cleveland, 5079.
  - Hayes, 4402.

Persons holding Federal positions must not accept State offices, 4172.
- Application of, explained, 4173.

Presents to, from foreign governments referred to, 1258, 1260.

Records and papers should pass to their successors, 2818.

Referred to, 1911.

Removal of. (See Removals from Office.)

Rolls of, transmitted to Congress, 508.
Salary of. (See Salaries.)

Officers' Training Camps. (See Army.)

Official Bulletin.—A daily Government newspaper, published by the Public Information Committee (q. v.), during the participation of the United States in the World War and for a short time thereafter. It gave official information about the War and other Government activities.

Official Etiquette.—As state social functions in America are not hedged about by the privileges and prerogatives to which rank, station and birth alone entitle the holder in monarchical courts, American ceremonies, observances and ritual are, in comparison, simple and meagre. No special lessons are required nor are rehearsals needed to carry off with proper dignity any of the observances of state courtesy. Nevertheless, although there is an absence of that ostentatious display which marks the ceremonies of the courts of Europe, official etiquette in America is prescribed by a rigid code established by the highest authorities, which is not disregarded.

It is only natural that state receptions should be governed by more arbitrary rules than those which direct purely social intercourse. It must be remembered that when an official reception is held, it is always an official duty that is being performed. The state forms and ceremonies which have obtained in America have varied from time to time according to the usages of the day and the taste of the national hostess. They have, at times, been further modified by periods of national calamity, war and the death of immediate relatives, but through all this variation and modification there has run the golden thread of democratic simplicity so dear to the national heart.

The period of Washington's administration must be regarded as a time of transition. Nor is there cause for wonder that much formality and stateliness marked the dispensation of national hospitality in the beginning of the nation's development. The term "colonial" is today associated in our minds with a courtly, stately conventionality peculiarly its own. Men and women of that time, who, either at first hand or through their mothers and fathers, had received their education in courtesy, grace and proper behavior from the customs of England, could not easily shake off their second nature; and no doubt fretted over the meagre means of gratifying their wishes; but as soon as they were cut off by their own desire from this influence and became self-dependent, that pure simplicity nurtured by individual worth became evident. It is not surprising that in the earliest period the Executive Mansion was a place of stately and continuous reception, and that Martha Washington is famous for the dignity, grace and splendor of her social reign; but, on the other hand, the simplicity of Jefferson's time has passed into a proverb, and was such as to excite comment even abroad. The youth, gaiety and impetuous brilliancy of "Dolly Madison" contributed largely to the breaking down of much of the severity and conventionality which preceded her time.

The President is the leader of social as well as of official life. Although he is accessible to all to the extent that all may call upon him, he is not expected to return any visits. He, of course, has the privilege of calling upon a friend. The same is equally true of the wife of the President. He is always addressed as "Mr. President." He does not leave the country, as a rule, and in this respect is under greater restrictions than are any of the crowned heads of Europe. Under this "unwritten law" a foreign legation in Washington is construed as being foreign ground and may not be entered by the President. Neither may he set foot upon a foreign vessel. The only formal calls that he may make are those upon a President-elect, an ex-President, or a President or reigning monarch of a foreign state visiting Washington. He carries no personal card, but one reading simply "The President." He may not accept valuable gifts; and if such are tendered, they are usually placed in the National Museum.

The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court ranks next to the President socially. Below him in turn socially come the Vice-President, the Speaker of the House, the General of the Army and the Admiral of the Navy. It is considered one of the first duties of the Members of the House of Representatives to call upon these when coming to Washington. The social rank of women is decided by that of the husband or father.

The Inaugural Ball, held upon the evening of the day of inauguration, was the first social event in the life of the newly inaugurated President, until it was abolished by President Wilson. It partook more of the nature of a reception than a ball, for it was so largely attended that dancing was an impossibility. It was usually held in one of the departmental buildings. For several days after the President's inauguration, public informal receptions follow and a week or more is consumed in receptions during the day and dinners at night. These latter are classified, to a certain extent, so that all branches of the official service are formally recognized. Saturday is the official reception day at the White House. The public receptions which are held from the first of January until the beginning of Lent were inaugurated by President Jackson. The guests assemble in the East Room and as quickly as this is filled the President greets them as they pass out. The formal receptions are not held so frequently as previously, on account of the great increase in the number of Senators and Representatives. This is compensated for by inviting some Members of Congress to state dinners and entertaining others with less ceremony.

The scene at a formal or official reception is a brilliant one. The Government officials, the officers of the Army and Navy, and the foreign legations mingle in uniform, and the ladies are not in full dress, but in reception toilettes. Diplomats and attachés wear their court costumes. The President stands at the head of the line, next to him his wife, who invites several prominent ladies to assist her in receiving. As the guests enter, they pass down the receiving line until they have greeted all of the ladies of the receiving party. The daughters of the household of a state official are not invited to state dinners unless the daughter is the female representative of the family.

The general conduct of, and the social observances at these several ceremonies are the same as those which direct social observances elsewhere in good society. The cards of invitation and responses to the ordinary receptions do not differ from those in other American homes; but at the state dinners and official receptions, which are to be regarded in some sense as an interchange of international courtesy, the rules of attendance are very strict and no one would think of neglecting to attend without an eminently satisfactory excuse.

Official Publications. (See Records and Documents.)

Official Register. (See Biennial Register.)

Official Secrets, no punishment for divulging, 7003.

Ogallala Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Ogden vs. Saunders.—An important United States Supreme Court case limiting the operation of State bankruptcy laws. Ogden, of Louisiana, declared upon certain bills of exchange drawn in 1806 upon the defendant Saunders, a citizen of Kentucky, but then living in New York. Saunders pleaded a certificate of discharge under the act of the New York legislature of 1801 for the relief of insolvent debtors. The district court of Louisiana gave judgment for the plaintiff. On a writ of error the case was taken before the Supreme Court of the United States, which decided in 1827 that the power to pass bankruptcy laws did not belong exclusively to the United States, and that the fair and ordinary exercise of that power by the States need not involve a violation of the obligation of contracts, but that State law could not discharge a debt due to a citizen of another State. Justice Johnson delivered the opinion, in which concurred Chief Justice Marshall and Justices Duval and Story.

Ogden, Utah, bill to authorize city of, to assume increased indebtedness vetoed, 5518.

Ogdensburg (N. Y.), Capture of.—In September, 1812, Gen. Brown was sent to Ogdensburg, N. Y., at the mouth of the Oswegatchie River, to garrison Fort Presentation and attempt the capture of some British stores that were reported as being on the way up the St. Lawrence River. Oct. 2, about forty British bateaux, escorted by a gunboat, were seen approaching. On the 4th two gunboats and twenty-five bateaux, containing 750 men, started for Ogdensburg. The American force amounted to about 1,200 effective men. After two hours of firing the invaders withdrew with a slight loss. No one was injured on the American side. Later Maj. Forsyth was placed in command of the garrison at Ogdensburg. With a party of citizens and militia he crossed over to Elizabethtown, Canada, Feb. 6, 1813, and rescued a number of prisoners held there. In retaliation for this exploit Lieut.-Col. McDouell, with about 800 men, crossed the river on the ice Feb. 22, 1813, and after a short engagement gained possession of the town, which they gave over to plunderers.

Ohio.—One of the central western group of states; nickname, "The Buckeye State." Ohio extends from lat. 38° 24′ to 41° 57′ north and from long. 80° 34′ to 84° 49′ west. It is bounded on the north by Michigan and Lake Erie, on the east by Pennsylvania and West Virginia (separated by the Ohio River), on the south by Kentucky (separated by the Ohio River), and on the west by Indiana, and has an area of 41,040 square miles.

Ohio was first visited by the French under La Salle at the end of the seventeenth century. It was claimed by both the French and English. It was ceded to Great Britain in 1763 and to the United States in 1783. In 1787 it became part of the Northwest Territory. The first settlement was made at Marietta in 1788. The State was admitted to the Union in 1802.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal Census, place the number of farms in the State at 272,545, comprising 24,105,708 acres, with stock and improvements, valued at $1,902.694.589. The average value of farm land per acre was $53.34, an increase from $33.35 in 1900.

The last annual agricultural production was estimated as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	3,700,000	162,800,000	$196,988,000
Wheat	2,860,000	54,440,000	115,413,000
Hay	2,879,000	3,973,000*	86,611,000
Oats	1,548,000	51,858,000	37,338,000
Tobacco	90,000	77,400,000†	26,084,000
Potatoes	150,000	9,300,000	17,856,000

*Tons. †Pounds.

There is also a large output of sugar beets.

The latest statistics of farm animals showed 873,000 horses, valued at $95,157,000; 28,000 mules, $3,360,000; 1,061,000 cows, $97,610,000; 1,113,000 other cattle, $54,203,000; 3,010,000 sheep, $30,401,000; and 4,351,000 swine, $83,539,000. The last annual wool clip was 13,104,000 pounds.

The mineral resources are especially important, and in recent years the mineral output of the state has been exceeded by those of only several other states. The two most valuable products are coal and clay products. The last annual coal production was 46,464,000 net tons. The annual petroleum output is about 7,700,000 barrels, and the value of the natural gas greatly exceeds that of the petroleum. In a recent year, the value of the clay products was almost $40,000,000. The pig iron production is also extremely valuable. Other mineral products are cement, salt, lime, sandstone and limestone.

In 1910, the population was 4,767,121. In 1920, the figure was 5,759,368. Of the population in 1910, 111,452 were negroes; and the foreign-born numbered 598,374, of whom 175,095 were German, 72,887 were Austrian, 43,347 were English, and 40,062 were Irish. Of the total population in 1910, 56% was urban.

The latest figures show 11,232 public elementary school, with 27,600 teachers and 865,331 enrolled pupils. There were 582 public high schools, with 5,627 teachers and 115,418 pupils.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Ohio having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 15,658. The amount of capital invested was $1,677,552,000, giving employment to 606.807 persons, using material valued at $1,020,782,000, and turning out finished goods worth $1,782,808,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $424,189,000.

Ohio (see also Columbus; Dayton; Portsmouth):
•Boundary of—
Act respecting, executed, 637.
Controversy with Michigan, regarding, 1404, 1407.
Referred to, 1173.
Lands in—
Referred to, 833.
Title of United Brethren to, 801.
Michigan boundary line dispute with,

and the necessity of an early settlement of, by Congress, 178.
National Guard of, expiration of enlistment of, referred to and thanks of President tendered, 3440.
Ratification of fourteenth amendment withdrawn by, 3836.

Ohio Companies.—In 1749 George II. granted to a band of wealthy citizens of Virginia and Maryland, calling themselves the Ohio Company, a tract of land containing 500,000 acres, lying in the Ohio Valley south of the Ohio River. Thomas Lee was the projector of the company, but it was later conducted by Lawrence Washington. The terms of the grant required that 100 families should be established upon the tract, a fort should be built, and a garrison maintained. A number of storehouses were also established. In 1783 the territory east of the Mississippi, north of the Ohio River, and west of Pennsylvania, which before the Revolution had been part of the Province of Quebec and afterwards had been claimed by Virginia, was ceded to the United States, with the proviso that it was to be settled and formed into states. March 1, 1786, Rufus Putnam suggested a second Ohio company, and two days later he and Messrs. Cutler, Brooks, Sargent, and Cushing formed an association and issued 1,000 shares at $1,000 each in Continental certificates or $125 in gold. A year afterwards Congress granted certain lots free of charge, and an enormous tract was bought at about eight or nine cents per acre in specie. Colonization was immediately begun. Slavery was prohibited. This company had large influence in shaping the ordinance for the government of the Northwest Territory, of which it became a part.

Ohio River:
Canal from Chesapeake Bay to. (See Chesapeake and Ohio Canal.)
Canalization of, discussed and urged, 7465.
Navigation on, 824, 909.
Appropriation for, 934.
Mode of improving, referred to, 1196, 2685.
Referred to, 1104, 1491, 9249.
Ship canal around fall of, 3819.
Survey of, appropriation for, 768.
Oil Dealers licensed, 8584.
Oil Industry. (See Petroleum.)
Oil Industry:
Freight rates in connection with, 7293.
Investigation of, urged, 7288.
Oil Lands. (See Lands, Oil.)
Ojibwa Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Oklahoma.—One of the southern group of states formed in 1907 by the Union of Oklahoma with the Indian Territory. Nickname, "Sooner State" and motto, "Labor omnia vincit." (Labor conquers everything.) It extends from latitude 33° 35′ to 37° north and from longitude 94° 20′ to 103° west. It is bounded on the north by Kansas and Colorado, on the east by Arkansas and Missouri, on the south by Texas (separated by the Red River) and on the west by Texas and New Mexico. It has an area of 70,057 square miles.

Oklahoma Territory was formed in 1890 from the western part of Indian Territory and the public strip called No Man's Land (q. v.). Invasions of the Indian Territory took place in 1879 but the settlers were ordered out by proclamations of President Hayes (pages 4499, 4550). Several subsequent invasions of the Territory were made in defiance of Federal law, but all expeditions of settlers were arrested and their towns broken up. Finally delegates of the Creek Nation met at Washington and sold the western half of their domain to the United States Government for $2.280,857. Congress ratified this agreement March 1, 1889. By proclamation of President Harrison (5450) Oklahoma was opened to settlement at noon April 22, 1889, and during the afternoon of that day 50,000 settlers, who had been encamped on the border, rushed into the territory, formed a provincial government, and laid out town sites. In 1893 the Cherokee strip was ceded by the Indians to the Government for $8,300,000. Agriculture and stock-raising are the principal industries.

The 1920 census gave the population as 2,028,283, an increase of 22½% from 1910. The rural population was 73½%, as compared with 80¾% in 1910. The negroes numbered 149,408 and foreign-born white, 39,968, including 7,029 Germans, 6,697 Mexicans and 5,005 Russians.

The 1920 census showed 191,988 farms, of 31,951,934 acres, of which 56¾% was improved. The total value of all farm property was $1,660,423,544. The average acreage per farm was 166 (94, improved); the average value per farm, $8,649, of which $6,102 represented land; $1,002, buildings; $420, implements and machinery; and $1,125, animals. The average value of land was $36.66 per acre. Over half the farms were between 100 and 500 acres and more than half were held by tenants. Fifty per cent were mortgaged, with 33% free and 17% unknown. The former were indebted up to 27% of their value and the average rate of interest was 6.6%.

Recent figures for the annual agricultural acreage and production were as follows:—

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*
Wheat	3,300,000	36,300,000
Corn	3,264,000	37,536,000
Cotton	3,295,000	[2]620,000
Oats	1,200,000	24,000,000
Hay, tame	936,000	[1]1,498,000
Wild	520,000	[1]510,000
Sorghums	1,523,000	18,296,000

[1]Tons. [2]Bales.

Recent figures for farm animals showed 715,000 horses and mules; 566,000 milk cows and 1,364,000 other cattle; 87,000 sheep; 1,401,000 swine. The wool clip was 458,000 pounds.

The chief mineral product is petroleum, with recent annual production of some 150,000,000 barrels. Between three and five million tons of coal are mined annually. Lead and zinc are also produced.

The last federal census of manufactures showed 2,445 manufacturing establishments, with 38,314 persons engaged; capital of $277,034,318; annual salaries and wages of $46,987,133; cost of materials, $312,605,829 and value of products, $401,362,869.

The leading industries were:—

Industry	*Value Products*	*Wage-earners*
Petroleum refining	$150,673,000	4,612
Flour & gristmill	49,844,000	958
Zinc smelting	19,518,000	2,272
Cottonseed oil, cake	18,907,000	930
Foundry, machine shop	13,510,000	1,717

Oklahoma:
Admission to Union discussed, 7020.
Appropriation for settlement under treaties of freedom, etc., upon lands in, recommended, 4785.
Boundary line with Colorado, 6937.
Lands in—
Agreement for cession of, 5648, 5649, 5768.
Opened to settlement by proclamation, 5450, 5591, 5710, 5838, 6020, 6695.
Referred to, 5637.
Reservation of, 6695, 6889.
Laws of Nebraska in force in, continuation of, recommended, 5566.
Memorial from Wichita and Caddo Indians regarding claims to lands in, 5671.
Organization of, discussed, 5393.
Act regarding returned, 5503.
Reservations in, ceded to United States, 5591.
Suffering among settlers in, recommendations regarding, 5516.
Memorial from legislature asking for relief, 5567.
Unauthorized occupancy of, 4832, 4943.
Proclamations against, 4811, 4888.

Oklahoma Central Railroad, act to authorize construction and operation of railway by, through Territories, vetoed, 6014.

Oklahoma City, Okla., act authorizing issuance of bonds by, to provide the right of way for railroad, vetoed, 5571.

Old Age Pensions.—Pensions granted to persons who have reached the age at which they can no longer support themselves, and who would otherwise become dependent. Systems to this end, compulsory, or voluntary, or combining the compulsory and voluntary features, are in effect in Germany (1889), France (1910-1912), Sweden (1913), Luxemburg (1911), the Netherlands (1913), Roumania (1912), Great Britain (1908-1911), New Zealand (1898), Australia (1908-1912), Italy (1919), Spain (1919), and practically all other industrial European countries. Uruguay also adopted such a system in 1919.

The initative for general compulsory old age pensions was assumed by Germany. As early as 1854, there was such a system in operation for the miners, and in 1889 it became general. All working-people above the age of 16 who were earning less than $500 a year had to contribute to the fund for old age pensions, and those earning $500-$750 might also contribute. Employers and employees contributed to the fund equally, on a scale based upon the wages of the employee, and the state added $12.50 yearly to the pension derived. The amount of the pension varied with the wages received previously and hence with the amount contributed to the fund from which the pensions were drawn. Up to 1916, persons who had reached the age of 70 were eligible, but in 1916 the limit was lowered to 65.

Other complicated machinery provided for the payment of pensions to other classes of persons, so that practically all in need of them receive them. In 1913, 95% of the wage earners were so insured. In 1911, the law was altered to cover salaried employees earning less than $1,250 annually.

The old age pensions, however, especially in recent years, have proved much less popular than the invalidity insurance pensions, and most persons in Germany preferred to draw sustenance in their old age from the latter, as the returns were higher. Indeed, in 1913 there were 87,000 persons deriving old age pensions as against almost 1,000,000 persons drawing invalidity insurance pensions. (See Health Insurance.) For instance, a man earning $1,000 annually before he had been made industrially an invalid because of old age would pay before that time $5.00 monthly, and receive as pension $265 annually if he had contributed to the fund for 25 years, and a proportionately higher sum if he had contributed for a longer time, as would be probable.

The French system differs slightly from the German. In France, the system is left to the commune for administration, the cost being divided among the commune, department and state. Persons over 70 are eligible. France pays particular attention to the encouragement of thrift in this connection. As early as 1850 a method was established whereby workers could deposit their savings as insurance against old age. The system was elaborated in 1891 and 1895, and in 1910 there were 1,900,000 depositors, of whom 30% were minors and 65% were laborers. In 1908, there were being paid some 325,000 pensions. The present national system dates from 1906. In 1911, 400,000 old age pensions were being paid to persons over 70, 108,000 invalid pensions to persons between 60 and 70, and 105,000 special pensions to elderly persons. About 20% of the population over 70 was thus insured. The French system was made compulsory in 1910, although it allows insurance in different voluntary and local organizations as well as in the state fund. Minors under 18 contribute 90c annually, women $1.20 and men $1.80.

The English system was established in 1909, and in 1919 there were almost 1,000,000 pensions in force. In 1919, the maximum limit for old age pensions was made ten shillings weekly, but are so graduated that the total income of the recipient from this and all other sources must not exceed twenty shillings weekly. No pension is granted to those with annual incomes above 150 pounds. The pensions begin at the age of 70. All the European countries have had to face the task of rising prices as a result of the war in this connection, and the present rates of pensions cannot be determined with accuracy.

The United States has been almost the only great country to make little provision for old age pensions. The system is represented in this country officially only by the military and civil service retirement pensions; and privately by the generosity of corporations and other employers to their super-annuated employees, by pensions from voluntary beneficial and fraternal organizations, occasionally by pensions from charit-

able bodies, stipends from trade unions to their members, and endowment insurance. Certain states and municipalities make provision for the payment of old age pensions to certain groups such as policemen, firemen, teachers. In 1907, Massachusetts passed legislation providing for voluntary payment for insurance against old age through the savings banks, and her example was followed by Wisconsin in 1911.

The future trend of legislation is indicated by provisions for old age pensions in 1923 by (1) Alaska, (2) Montana, (3) Nevada, (4) Pennsylvania. Grants are $25 monthly in (2) and for men in (1); $1 per day in (3) and (4); and $45 monthly for women in (1). Recipients must be at least 60 in (3) and, women only, (1); 65, men in (1); 70 in (2) and (4); must have been residents for 10 years in (3), 15 in (1), (2) and (4); must not have income above $300 in (2) nor property above $3,000 in (3) and (4). There are various provisions eliminating vagrants, recent convicts, wife-deserters, etc.; also those with relatives legally responsible for their support.

By legislation of 1920, employees of the Government under Civil Service, who have been in Government employ for at least fifteen years, are eligible for old age pensions when reaching the age of seventy. (The age limit for letter carriers, post-office clerks and mechanics is sixty-five and for railroad postal clerks, sixty-two.) The pensions range from 60% of the annual pay for the last ten years for those in Government service at least thirty years, but with an annual maximum of $720 and minimum of $360, to 30% of the annual pay for those of fifteen to eighteen years' service, with maximum of $360 and minimum of $180. The employees eligible contribute 2½% of their salaries to the Civil Service Retirement Disability Fund.

Old Age Pensions recommended, 7206.

Old Colony.—A popular name for Plymouth County, Mass. The territory was formerly included in the Plymouth Colony, but, being unable to obtain a charter from the British Crown on account of its outspoken opposition to the established church, was in 1691 absorbed into Massachusetts Bay Colony.

Old Dominion.—A name popularly applied to the State of Virginia. In colonial documents Virginia is frequently referred to as "His Majesty's Dominion of Virginia."

Old Hickory.—An affectionate nickname given to Andrew Jackson in 1813 when, disregarding the order of the Secretary of War to disband his troops, he assumed the responsibility of marching them in a body from Natchez, at his own expense. The Government afterwards approved Jackson's disobedience, and reimbursed him. The nickname stuck to him even through his Presidency, and to his grave.

Office of Exhibits. (See Exhibits, Office of.)

Office of Farm Management. (See Farm Management, Office of.)

Office of Indian Affairs. (See Department of the Interior.)

Office of Inspection. (See Inspection, Office of.)

Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering. (See Public Roads and Rural Engineering, Office of.)

Old Point Comfort, Va., school for artillery instruction at, 824.

Old Winnebago Reservation, Dakota, restoration of, to public domain, order regarding, declared void, 4890.
Discussed, 4943.

Oldenburg:
Commercial relations with, 820.
Exequatur issued consul of, revoked, 3710.
Referred to, 3720.
Treaty with, 2479.
Vessels of, discriminating duties on, suspended, 666, 1059.

Oleomargarine, act defining butter and imposing tax on, approved and discussed, 4992.

Olive Branch, The, condemnation of, indemnification asked for, 1268.

Olmstead et al. vs. Rittenhouse's Executrixes.—In 1778 Olmstead and other citizens of Connecticut were pressed into the service of the British aboard the sloop *Active*. They revolted and took possession of the vessel, and were in turn captured by the Pennsylvania armed brig *Convention*. The State court of admiralty of Pennsylvania adjudged the *Active* lawful prize and awarded the proceeds of her sale to the State, officers and crew of the *Convention*, and the owners, officers, and crew of *Le Gerard*, a privateer, which assisted in the capture. Olmstead and the others claimed the whole prize, but were awarded only one-fourth. They then appealed to the Federal commissioners of appeals and received a favorable verdict. The State court of admiralty of Pennsylvania set aside this verdict and ordered that the money be brought into court. May 1, 1779, the loan certificates for the prize money were deposited with State Treasurer Rittenhouse. In 1803 the district court of the United States for the State of Pennsylvania entered a final decree that the money be paid over to the libellants. The case having come before the United States Supreme Court, March, 1808, that court ordered a mandamus as against the district judge, and in 1809 judgment was executed in favor of the plaintiffs in spite of violent opposition from Pennsylvania, which opposition had prevented Judge Peters from carrying out his decree. The facts in the matter are all given in the Peters case. (See also 456, Peters *vs.* United States.)

Olustee (Fla.), Battle of.—In February, 1864, a Federal expedition was sent to Florida from Port Royal under command of Gen. Seymour. It was composed of twenty steamers, eight schooners and about 5,000 troops. Feb. 7 the land forces occupied Jacksonville. On the 18th they marched inland, encountering the Confederates on the 20th at Olustee, a railroad station about fifty miles west of Jacksonville. The battle was unexpected and was fiercely fought from 2 o'clock till dark, when the vanquished Federals retired twenty miles to Barbers. Seymour lost nearly 2,000 men, as well as five pieces of artillery, in this disastrous fight, and the expedition returned to Hilton Head.

Olympia, The, mentioned, 6297.

Omaha, The. (See Ikisima Island.)

Omaha Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Omaha, Nebr., act to extend privileges to port of, vetoed, 4999.

Oman.—Oman is an independent sultanate of southeast Arabia, with a Mohammedan population that is mainly Arab, but contains many foreign elements, including Indians, Persians, Baluchis, and Swahili negroes. The territory of the sultanate extends from the peninsula of El Katar, on the Persian Gulf, to the promontory of Ras Sair, on the Arabian Sea, a total length of coast of almost 1,000 miles. The area is about 82,000 square miles and population, about 500,000, chiefly Arabs, with some negroes along the coast.

The northwest and southwest extremities are in the form of a horseshoe, the intervening land being the arid and sandy desert of central and southern Arabia, the great Ruba el Khali, or Dahna Desert.

History.—Oman was established as an independent sultanate in 1741 by Ahmed ben Said, an imam (or sultan) of Yemen, who consolidated his power at the expense of the Ottoman empire In the earlier years of the nineteenth century Oman was the most powerful state in Arabia, and the rule of the Sultan was extended over the Makran coast of the Arabian Sea and over parts of East Africa, including Socotra and Zanzibar. In 1856 the sultanate was divided by the two sons of Sultan Seyyid, and Zanzibar was formed into a separate sultanate.

Government.—Theoretically, the government is absolute and hereditary, but the authority of the Sultan has been generally repudiated by the mixed Arab and negro population except along the coast. In practice, each tribal group takes the government into its own hands. The country has long been under the nominal protection of Great Britain, and the Sultan receives an annuity from the Government of India. An Anglo-French agreement of 1862 guarantees the independence of the country.

Commerce and Industry.—Commerce is chiefly by sea, but there is much inland trade by caravan. There is some breeding of camels in the interior, and it is reported that the coast regions hold some possibility of agriculture. Little is known of the mineral resources. The chief exports are dates, and the imports are varied. The capital and chief port is Muscat on the east coast.

Omnibus Bill.—Early in the first session of the Thirty-first Congress Henry Clay introduced a series of six resolutions as a basis for the compromise of the slavery question. These resolutions provided for the admission of California as a free state; territorial governments for New Mexico and Utah without conditions as to slavery; a territorial boundary line between Texas and New Mexico favorable to the former; payment of the Texas debt; suppression of the slave trade in the District of Columbia; a more effective fugitive slave law, and a denial of the power of Congress to interfere with the slave trade between the slave states.

On Feb. 5 and 6, 1850, Clay ably advocated the passage of his resolutions by the Senate. That body was strongly Democratic, though the administration was Whig. Debate on Clay's resolutions lasted two months and was participated in by Webster (Mass.), Calhoun (S. C.), Benton (Mo.), King (Ala.), Davis and Foote (Miss.), Hamlin (Me.), Cass (Mich.), Seward and Dickinson (N. Y.), Chase and Corwin (Ohio), Douglass (Ill.), Frémont (Cal.), Soulé (La.), Hale (N. H.), Mangum (N. C.), Hunter and Mason (Va.), Bell (Tenn.), and others of note. On April 19 the resolutions were referred to a committee of thirteen, with Clay as chairman, and consisting of six other Whigs and six Democrats. On May 8 this committee submitted an elaborate series of bills embodying the substance of Clay's resolutions. These several bills were known collectively as the "Omnibus bill," and the last was passed on Sept. 20. (See also Compromise of 1850.)

Oneida, The. (See *Aroostook*, The.)

Oneida Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Oneota, The, purchased for Peru, detention of, 3831, 3835.

Onondaga Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Ontario, Lake. (See Lake Ontario.)

Open Door in China.—With China foreign commerce is a matter of modern history. As early as 1516 the Portuguese had established a trading port in China and, together with the Dutch, English and Americans, who followed them, carried on an irregular and unsatisfactory trade for a hundred years without government protection or favor besides being looked upon with suspicion and hatred, as barbarians. From 1664 to 1834 England's China trade was in the hands of the East India Company, whose monopoly came to an end in the latter year. The opium trade, worth $5,000,000 to $8,000,000 annually to the government of British India, had long been illegal, and China, in 1837, decided to suppress it. England's refusal to make traffic in opium a crime punishable with death brought on a war in 1840. This was concluded by a treaty which opened to British trade the five ports of Canton, Amoy, Fu-Chow, Ning-Po, and Shanghai.

Caleb Cushing, heading an embassy from the United States, negotiated a similar treaty in 1844. By its terms a customs duty was established and in consideration of a transit duty, goods were given free conveyance to all places in China.

In 1856 England again found a pretext for war with China, and was joined by France in 1857. This was terminated in 1858 by the treaty of Tien-Tsin, which granted toleration to the Christian missionaries in China, and freedom of Chinese rivers to English and French merchant vessels. At the same time Russia signed a treaty by which she acquired the Amur territory.

While these powers were gaining concessions in China, President Buchanan sent William B. Reed to open negotiations on behalf of the United States. The result of Mr. Reed's efforts was a treaty of amity and commerce, guaranteeing that no American vessel should engage in contraband trade with China.

Anson Burlingame, United States minister to China from 1861 to 1867, won the confidence of the Orientals and secured a treaty granting further concessions. Burlingame later headed a Chinese embassy accredited to eleven different nations. In June, 1873, the Chinese Emperor for the first time gave personal audience to the ministers of the United States, Russia, Great Britain, France, Germany, Holland, and Japan. By the war with Japan, in 1894-1895 China was forced

to concede the independence of Korea, and cede to Japan the island of Formosa, the Liaotung peninsula and the Pescadore Islands and an indemnity in money.

While China was thus embarrassed Russia, through France, advanced a loan of $77,290,000 to help pay the Japanese indemnity. In 1896 American and German capitalists loaned $80,000,000 and in 1898 another $80,000,000 was advanced by the English and German banks. In return for these loans valuable railway and trading concessions were exacted with a view to establishing spheres of influence which would serve as an excuse for military occupation.

Until 1904 only twenty-one ports had been opened to foreign trade. In that year three others were opened, and in 1906 sixteen more allowed the ships of the western world to enter. The opening of these ports was looked upon by China as a great concession wrung from her by the overpowering military strength of the allied commercial world. The agreements of 1897-1898 provide that "the administration of the Imperial Maritime Customs Service shall be conducted by representatives of foreign powers until 1943."

An outbreak of the anti-foreign feeling in China, directed against Americans in particular, on account of the Chinese exclusion laws of this country, was shown in the boycott against American goods which began in the southern provinces in 1905. This was entirely dispelled by the wise policy of the Roosevelt administration, carried into execution by Secretaries John Hay and Elihu Root.

William H. Taft, when Secretary of War, declared in a speech made in China that the United States would actively interfere whenever necessary to preserve the open door in all parts of the Chinese empire. Further acts of friendship on the part of the United States were the remission of a part of the Boxer indemnity, upon recommendation of President Roosevelt, and the liberal contributions, under Presidential patronage, to the famine fund in 1908.

Open Door, in the Orient, policy of the United States to be firm in controversies, 6797. (See also China.)

Open Shop.—A term used to describe the conditions of employment in an establishment where men are and may be employed irrespective of their membership or non-membership in a trade union or other labor organization. (See Trade Unions, Closed Shop.)

Opequan, Battle of. (See Winchester, Battle of.)

Opium Conference at The Hague discussed, 7781.

Opium Traffic, treaty with China for repression of, and recommendations regarding, 4629, 4986.
International Commission, 7671.
Report of, transmitted, 7469.
Legislation regarding, recommended, 5983.
Referred to, 7596.
Taxes and laws regulating traffic in, recommended, 7419, 7470, 7596.

Orange Free State. (See Union of South Africa.)

Orange River Colony.—A British colony in South Africa. It was formerly an independent republic known as the Orange Free State, and was founded by the Boers in 1836 and recognized by Great Britain ten years later. In consequence of the part taken in the Boer War it was annexed to the British Crown in 1900. Area, 48,326 square miles; population in 1890 (estimated), 77,716 white and 129,787 blacks, natives of the country.

Order of Indian Wars of the United States.—This order was organized at Chicago Ill., June 10, 1896, and received its charter from the State of Illinois. The order consists of two classes of companions: First, commissioned officers of the army, navy, and marine corps, and of state and territorial organizations, which have been, or may hereafter be, engaged in conflicts, battles or actual field service against hostile Indians in the United States; second, sons of living members of the first class. The object of the Association is to perpetuate the history of the services rendered by the American military forces in their conflicts and wars within the territory of the United States, and to collect and secure for publication historical data relating to the instances of brave deeds and personal devotion by which Indian warfare has been illustrated.

Order of the Founders and Patriots of America.—This order was founded in 1896, its object being "to bring together and associate congenial men whose ancestors struggled together for life and liberty, home and happiness, in the land when it was a new and unknown country and their patriot descendants; from them came thorough patriots who sustained the Colonies in the struggle for independence in the Revolutionary War; to teach reverent regard for the names and history, character and perseverance, deeds and heroism of the founders of this country and their patriot descendants; to teach that the purpose of the founders could have had no lasting result but for their patriot sons; to inculcate patriotism; to discover, collect, and preserve records, documents, manuscripts, monuments, and history relating to the first colonists and their ancestors and their descendants, and to commemorate and celebrate events in the history of the Colonies and the Republic." Eligibility—Any man above the age of twenty-one years, of good moral character and reputation, and a citizen of the United States, who is lineally descended in the male line of either parent from an ancestor who settled in any of the Colonies now included in the United States of America prior to May 13, 1657, and whose intermediate ancestors in the same line during the Revolutionary period adhered as patriots to the cause of the Colonies, shall be eligible for membership. There are state societies in New York, Connecticut, New Jersey and Pennsylvania.

Orders in Council.—As the sovereigns of Great Britain can act only through privy councilors or upon their advice, the more formal acts of the administration must proceed from the authority of the sovereign in council, and their execution is directed at a meeting of the privy council, and laid before Parliament within thirty days if in session, and if not in session within thirty days after assembling. Those of most interest in the United States were issued in 1793 and 1794, prohibiting trade with France and directing the seizure of neutral ships engaged in such traffic. In 1806 an

order was issued declaring the whole coast of Europe from the Elbe to Brest, France, under blockade. The specific order which caused the greatest indignation in America and provoked retaliatory measures by both France and the United States was that of 1807, which prohibited neutral trade directly with France or her allies. All goods were ordered to be landed in England, to pay duties there, and to be reexported under British regulations. (See also Berlin Decree; Embargo; Milan Decree.)

Ordnance and Fortification, Board of, War Department.—The Board of Ordnance and Fortification in the Department of War, by act of September 22, 1888, has charge of the design and construction of the guns, powder, shells, armor, torpedoes, mines, and other military equipment utilized by the Department of War. (See War Department.)

Ordnance (see also Arms and Ammunition):

Board of Fortifications, and, discussed, 5373.

Cannon—

Exportation of, order prohibiting, 3326.

Foundry for making, recommended, 1607, 1714, 4797.

Manufacture of, discussed, 323, 4724, 4833.

Discussed, 5550, 5878, 5972, 6159.

Foundry for heavy, board appointed to select location for, 4748.

Discussed, 4767.

Report of, referred to, 4791, 4797, 4833.

Gunpowder manufactory, recommended, 1608, 1714.

Proving and experimenting ground for, site for, recommended, 4148.

Small arms, manufactory for, recommended, 1608.

Statement of, in fortifications, etc., transmitted, 6287.

Ordnance, Bureau of, Navy Department. (See Bureau of Ordnance, Navy Department.)

Ordnance Department:

Board for determining strength and value of iron, steel, etc., appointed, 4281.

Continuance of, recommended, 4378.

Machine purchased from A. H. Emery by, appropriation for, recommended, 4540.

Report of, referred to, 4321, 4438, 4534.

Expenses of, referred to, 766, 771.

Increase in crops, recommended, 1448, 1475, 1607.

Manufacturing operations of, recommendations regarding, 4362, 5878.

Progress in, 2942.

Regulations for distributions of arms, stores, etc., 5159, 5462.

Oregon.—One of the Pacific coast states; motto, "The Union;" nickname, "Webfoot country," from the excessive rainfall. It extends from lat. 42° to 46° 15′ north and from long. 116° 40′ to 124° 32′ west. It is bounded on the north by Washington (partly separated by the Columbia River), on the east by Idaho (partly separated by the Snake River), on the south by Nevada and California, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. It has an area of 96,699 square miles. Oregon is traversed by the Coast Range and Cascade and Blue Mountains, which run parallel to the coast in the eastern portion of the state. It is drained largely by the Columbia, though there is a large inland basin in the southeast. The chief industries are fishing and agriculture.

The mouth of the Columbia River was discovered by Capt. Gray, an American, in 1792. The river was partly explored by Lewis and Clark in 1804-5. A trading post was founded at Astoria in 1811. The territory, long in dispute, was finally made part of the United States by the treaty with Great Britain in 1846. It was organized as a territory in 1848 and was admitted to the Union in 1859.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the last Federal census, place the number of farms in the state at 45,502, comprising 11,685,110 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $528,243,782. The value of domestic animals, poultry, etc., was $59,461,828, including 725,255 cattle, valued at $17,570,685; 271,708 horses, $25,181,143; 9,927 mules, $185,788; 217,577 swine, $1,570,949; 2,699,135 sheep, $12,213,942; poultry, $1,067,743.

The last annual agricultural production was estimated as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Wheat	1,126,000	20,495,000	$43,449,000
Hay	854,000	1,452,000*	27,733,000
Oats	347,000	11,104,000	10,216,000
Hops	8,000	6,400,000†	5,120,000
Barley	82,000	1,886,000	2,829,000
Corn	71,000	1,860,000	2,883,000
Potatoes	45,000	4,230,000	6,345,000

*Tons. †Pounds.

The last figures for the farm animals showed 282,000 horses, valued at $23,970,000; 224,000 cows, $20,064,000; 708,000 other cattle, $32,710,000; 2,547,000 sheep, $28,017,000; and 314,000 swine, $6,123,000. The last annual wool clip was estimated at 14,040,000 pounds. The fruit crop is particularly valuable.

Sugar, beets and hops are also important crops. Apples and plums are raised in great abundance and shipped to all leading markets. West of the Cascade Mountains almost every crop common to the temperate zone is grown, but east of the mountains the country is arid.

The chief mineral output is that of gold, of which the annual production amounts to some $2,000,000. Other minerals found and worked are silver, coal, copper, silver, granite and other quarry products.

Much of Oregon is semi-arid and much of the farming is done on land which has been irrigated by the Government irrigation projects (see Irrigation).

Much of the state's wealth is represented by its forests, and lumbering is the state's most important industrial activity.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Oregon having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 2,320. The amount of capital invested was $139,500,000, giving employment to 35,449 persons, using material valued at $63,258,000, and turning out finished goods worth $109,762,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $26,614,000.

In 1910, the population was 672,765. The 1920 census gave it as 783,389. Of the population in 1910, 113,136 were foreign-born. The urban population was 46% of the whole.

There are 2,560 public schools with 5,913 teachers and 146,546 pupils. There are 190 high schools with 1,102 teachers and 23,348 pupils.

Oregon:
Aid and protection of United States invoked by, 2434.
President Polk's message regarding, 2434.
Boundary of, in dispute. (See Northwestern Boundary.)
Correspondence regarding, referred to, 2279.
Emigrants to, should be protected, 2246.
Establishment of surveyor-general's office in, recommended, 2409.
Extinguishment of rights of Hudsons Bay Company in, referred to. (See Hudsons Bay Co.)
Force to be employed in, 2454.
Geological survey of, referred to, 3016.
Grants of land to settlers in, recommended, 2308, 2409.
Great Britain desires that boundary line with, be marked out, 2655.
Hudsons Bay Co., in. (See Hudsons Bay Co.)
Indian schools in, 4576.
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Appointment of Indian agents among, recommended, 2496.
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Referred to, 3015, 3016.
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Granted for construction of wagon roads, frauds in, 5195.
Granted to, for Willamette Valley and Cascade Mountain Wagon Road Co., 4665.
Granted to Hudsons Bay Co. by Great Britain, 2073.
Grants of, to settlers, recommended, 2308.
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Light-houses to be erected in, 2557, 3902.
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Provisions for, 2409.
Military posts in, recommended, 2190.
National rights in, must be maintained, 2247.
Officers of, referred to, 2494.
Overland mail route, recommended, 2247, 2354.
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Referred to, 2272, 2305.
Report on, by Lieut. Wilkes, referred to, 2013.
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Conflict of opinion respecting establishment of, and recommendations regarding, 2685.
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Oregon, The—
Mentioned, 6317.
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Oregon Boundary. (See Northwestern Boundary.)
Oregon Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)
Orient, importance of, for American exports, 6914. (See also the several countries and Asia.)

Original Package.—In the enforcement of the prohibitory liquor law in the State of Iowa the officers were frequently charged with exceeding the limits of the state's jurisdiction in interfering with the traffic in spirits. State officers seized and confiscated liquors which it was claimed by the owners were sent into the state for reshipment to points outside the jurisdiction of the state courts. State officers defended themselves under the prohibition amendment to the constitution. In 1890 the Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of Leisy & Co. *vs.* Hardin, held that the plaintiffs, brewers in Illinois, had the right to carry liquors into any state and sell them in the original package without reference to local prohibitory or restrictive laws. The decision of the Court rested on the right of Congress to have exclusive control of interstate commerce. Congress thereupon passed a law giving states control of the liquors so imported, although in the original package.

Oriskany (N. Y.), Battle of.—In August, 1777, Gen. Burgoyne sent a detachment of his army, consisting of 200 regulars, Sir John Johnson's Royal Greens, and some Canadian rangers and Indians, under Col. St. Leger, to operate in western and central New York and ultimately to join the main army under Howe at New York. St. Leger proceeded by way of the St. Lawrence River, Lake Ontario, and the Oswego and Oneida rivers to within a few miles of Fort Stanwix (now Schuyler, near the

present city of Rome, on the Mohawk River. The post was garrisoned by less than 1,000 men, under Colonels Gansevoort and Willet. Gen. Herkimer collected the militia of Tryon County and advanced to the assistance of the fort. On Aug. 6 when about six miles from the post, near Oriskany, he fell into an ambush and was fiercely assailed by the British and the Indians under Brant. By reason of a successful sally by Willet the assailants were repulsed, but not without the loss of 400, including many of the leading patriots of that region. St. Leger made no official report of his loss except that of his Indian allies. The fight lasted several hours and was one of the most fiercely contested conflicts of the war. St. Leger, deserted by his Indian allies, retired precipitately to Canada.

Orkney Islands, loss of American troops near, 8637.

Orleans, Territory of.—The old name for the present State of Louisiana. In March, 1804, after the purchase of Louisiana from France, Congress divided the territory, cutting off that portion between Texas and the Mississippi River and from the Gulf of Mexico north to the parallel of lat. 33° north and establishing it as a territory, with William C. C. Claiborne as governor. In 1810 the citizens of Baton Rouge, territory of St. Francisville, overcame the local Spanish garrison, shot the Spanish governor and established the Territory of West Florida. After the people of West Florida had elected a governor and framed a constitution President Madison issued a proclamation (465) directing Governor Claiborne, of the Territory of Orleans, to take possession of West Florida and annex it to Orleans. In February, 1811, an act was passed "to enable the people of the Territory of Orleans to form a constitution and state government." April 12, 1812, an act was passed for the admission of the State of Louisiana into the Union, extending the limits to include all between the Mississippi and Pearl Rivers south of lat. 31° north.

Orleans Territory:

Admission into Union applied for by, 483.

Citizens of, must be protected, 372.

Indians inhabiting, 386.

Territory south of Mississippi Territory and eastward of Mississippi River, added to, 465, 469.

Expenses incurred incident thereto, 482.

Osage Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Payment of interest due, referred to, 4058.

Treaty with, 464, 474, 554, 614, 616, 767, 883, 889, 912, 1040, 3393, 3578, 3833, 3843.

Osborn vs. United States Bank, Ohio.—A leading case in the Supreme Court, September term, 1819, involving the right of a State to tax United States property. Osborn, auditor of the State of Ohio, through his deputy, forcibly took from the United States Bank at Chillicothe $100,000 and delivered it to the State treasurer as payment to the State under the act which was passed by the legislature Feb. 8, 1819, levying taxes upon banks doing business in the State without authorization of the State law. The United States circuit court of Ohio decreed that a restitution be made with interest. The Supreme Court of the United States, having been appealed to, affirmed the decision of the circuit court, but gave no interest. The opinion was delivered by Chief Justice Marshall and was very elaborate. Justice Johnson dissented on the point of jurisdiction. Clay, Webster, and Sergeant argued for the right of the bank to sue in the circuit court of the United States. (See also McCulloch *vs.* Maryland.)

Osette Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Ostend Manifesto.—In 1852 France and England, fearful of the filibustering expeditions against Cuba and the possible future favor of the United States toward such expeditions, suggested a tripartite convention in which each nation should disclaim all intention to obtain possession of Cuba and should discountenance such possession by another power. With a view to promoting negotiation with Spain for the purchase of Cuba by the United States, Pierre Soulé, American minister to Spain (empowered to negotiate for the purchase of Cuba), John Y. Mason, minister to France, and James Buchanan, minister to Great Britain, met at Ostend, Belgium Oct. 9, 1854, and after three days' session adjourned to meet at Aix-la-Chapelle. They wrote to the United States Government their views of the policy the Administration should pursue. Their message or communication is known as the Ostend Manifesto. It declared that, as Spanish oppression in Cuba was such that the island would speedily resort to arms to free herself, the United States should offer Spain a sum not to exceed $120,000,000 for Cuba, and in the event of Spain's refusal to sell, the United States would be justified in taking forcible possession of Cuba rather than see it Africanized, like Santo Domingo. President Pierce did not think it prudent to act upon this suggestion, and Soulé, disgusted, resigned soon afterwards and returned home.

Otoe and Missouria Reservation, Nebr.:

Right of way for railroad through, referred to, 4681.

Sale of, bill for, 4656.

Ottawa Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Ottoman Empire. (See Turkey.)

Ounalaska, The, condemned by Salvador, later presented to United States, recommendations on, 4988.

Outrages on American Citizens. (See Central America; Costa Rica; Mexico; New Granada; Puerto Rico; the several powers.)

Over-capitalization (see also Business and Corporations):

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Power of Congress to regulate, 6647, 6712.

Overman Bill commended, 8493.

Overt Act (see also Act of Hostility):

Avoided temporarily, 8210.

Necessary to persuade United States of German hostility, 8209.

Ozania River, building of bridge over, at Santo Domingo City by American citizens, 5784.

Pacific Forest Reserve, Washington. (See Mount Ranier Forest Reserve.)
Pacific Highways. (See Transcontinental Highways.)
Pacific Ocean:
Claims of foreign powers to territory on. (See Northwestern Boundary.)
Commerce on, force should be employed to maintain, 827, 928, 1115.
Harbor and breakwater on coast of, recommended, 4572.
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Desired, 2813, 2988.
Referred to, 2128, 2676.
Railroad from Mississippi River to, recommended, 2714, 2754.
Vessels to examine harbors in, 984.
War on, referred to, 4667.
Pacific Ocean Exploring Expedition, expenses of, referred to, 994.

Pacific Railroads.—In 1848 Asa Whitney, a New York merchant, zealously advocated the building of a railroad by the Federal Government to the Pacific Ocean from some point on the Missouri or Mississippi River. A bill providing for such a road was introduced in the Senate. It was opposed by Thomas H. Benton and finally tabled by a vote of twenty-seven to twenty-one. The next year Benton introduced a Pacific railroad measure of his own. In March, 1853, an act was passed providing for surveys. By 1855 Government surveyors had ascertained practicable passes through the Rocky Mountains. The rapid growth of the Pacific States in consequence of the "gold fever" and the difficulty of communication between the East and the West, on account of the vast extent of intervening plains made railroad communication more and more desirable. The hopelessness of undertaking so stupendous a work with private capital led many who otherwise were opposed to the principle of Federal aid to internal improvements to advocate the building of the Pacific railroads under Government subsidies. In 1860 both the leading political parties in their platforms declared in favor of building a road under national supervision. The outbreak of the Civil War and the necessity for closer military communication aided the movement.

The bill providing for the Union Pacific and Central Pacific roads was approved July 2, 1862, and granted as subsidies 6 per cent gold bonds of the United States. It gave to the Union Pacific $16,000 per mile for the great plain west from Omaha, Nebraska, $48,000 per mile for 150 miles over the Rocky Mountains, and $32,000 per mile for the remainder—in all, 1,034 miles, $27,236,512; to the Central Pacific $16,000, $32,000, and $48,000 per mile—in all, 883 miles, $27,855,562. Each company also received 12,800 acres of land per mile of road—25,009,000 acres in all—by a subsequent act July 1, 1864. The companies were allowed to issue an equal amount of their own bonds, which were to be a first lien on the road, the Government bonds the second. The time fixed for opening was set at July 1, 1876, and the road was actually opened May 10, 1869. The two lines were joined, with impressive ceremonies, at Promontory Point, Utah. The last tie, of laurel wood, with a plate of silver upon it, was laid, and the last spike, made of iron, silver and gold, was driven in the presence of distinguished men. The officers of the road and a large concourse of visitors from East and West were present. Telegraph wires were attached to the last rail, and the last blows were signaled upon bells in Washington and other large cities. In many places large crowds had gathered to receive the first intimation, conveyed almost instantaneously over the electric wires, that the great work was complete. When the signal was received in San Francisco and elsewhere all the church bells were rung, and cannons were fired. The general direction is nearly east and west on or about the fortieth degree of latitude. The total length of the road built by the two companies from Omaha to San Francisco is 1,917 miles. July 2, 1864, a charter with subsidies was granted to the Northern Pacific from Lake Superior to Puget Sound, a distance of 1,800 miles, and thence to the Columbia River, 200 miles. The land granted to this road amounted to 47,000,000 acres, or 73,000 sq. miles. The road was commenced in 1870 and was to have been finished in 1879, but in 1873 the company became embarrassed and ceased work. In 1875 the company was reorganized and the time for construction extended. On Sept. 9, 1883, the last spike was driven at a point fifty miles west of Helena, Mont. The Great Northern extension from Pacific Junction, Mont., to Lowell, on Puget Sound, was completed Jan. 6, 1893.

July 27, 1866, the Atlantic and Pacific road was chartered to run from Springfield, Mo., to the Pacific on or near the thirty-fifth parallel of latitude, a distance of 2,000 miles, and subsidized with 42,000,000 acres of land. March 3, 1871, the Southern Pacific road was chartered to run from Marshall to El Paso, Tex., thence through New Mexico and Arizona to Los Angeles, Cal., along the thirty-second parallel of latitude. The act granted the same amount of land per mile as the others had received.

In May, 1878, an act, known as the Thurman Act, was passed, prescribing more stringent terms for the repayment of government advance. In addition to the amounts retained out of sums due for government service, the Act of 1862 provided for the payment of five per cent of the net earnings of the company. The Act of 1878 retained the entire amount due to the companies for government service, one-half to be applied to interest payments, one-half and it required, moreover, the annual payment of a fixed sum ($850,000 for the Union Pacific and $1,200,000 for the Central Pacific), or so much thereof as might be necessary to make the total obtained by adding the five per cent of net earnings and the whole of the compensation retained, equal to twenty-five per cent of the net earnings. The method of computing the net earnings was prescribed, and it was provided that the additional payments thus required were not to be exacted unless the net earnings were sufficient to meet the interest on the bonds prior in lien to the government mortgage.

A recent memorandum of the Secretary of the Treasury shows that there is due the United States from the Central Branch of the Union Pacific Railroad, on account of bonds issued, the sum of $3,570,304.87, of which $1,600,000 represents the principal and the remainder, interest accrued.

Pacific Railroads:
Condition and obligations of, discussed, 6169.
Construction of, discussed by President—
Buchanan, 2988, 3057, 3103, 3181.
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Johnson, 3560, 3651.
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Funding of debt of, recommended, 4837.
Government aid to, recommended, 2988, 3057, 3103, 3181.
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Change of plan for payment of, suggested, 5111.
Commission to report plan for settlement of, recommended, 5640.
Commission to settle, 6343, 6389.
Discussed, 6169.
Order regarding, 6233.
Report of Commissioner of Railroads on, discussed, 5640.
Reports of commissioners on, discussed, 5181, 5384.
Lands granted in aid of, discussed, 2823, 3651, 4065, 4944, 5384.
Forfeiture of, discussed, 4837, 5379.
Revocation of withdrawal of, referred to, 5197.
Kansas Pacific, sale of, discussed, 6342, 6390.
Northern Pacific agreements with Indians for sale of lands for use of, 4657, 4740, 4779, 4864, 4954, 5178.
Southern Pacific, contracts and leases of, referred to, 4958.
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Reorganization of, recommended, 5969.
Report of Attorney-General regarding, referred to, 4434.
Report of Government directors of, referred to, 4661, 4745, 4789, 4850, 4958, 4959.
Sale of, discussed, 6273, 6342, 6389.
Subscriptions to capital stock of, order designating place for receiving, 3476.

Pacific Squadron. (See Manila Harbor (Philippine Islands), Battle of.)

Pacific Telegraph, referred to, 3329, 3382, 3445, 3564, 3643.

Pacifists, stupidity of, 8389.

Packers and Stockyards Act.—This legislation of August 15, 1921, administered by the Department of Agriculture, prohibits packers engaged in interstate commerce from unfair, discriminatory and deceptive practises, manipulation or control of prices; and enjoins reasonable rates upon commission merchants, stockyards services and yards dealers.

Packing Industry. (See Meat Packing and Beef Packers.)

Pact of London. (See Secret Treaties.)

Pactole, The, referred to, 1172.

Padroni System, discussed, 6065.

Painting presented to Congress, Lincoln and Cabinet at reading of Emancipation Proclamation, 4435.

Paintings of Presidents.—Official portraits of the President in the White House, with their painters, are as follows:—

George Washington	Gilbert Charles Stuart
John Adams	George P. A. Healy
Thomas Jefferson	Eliphalet F. Andrews
James Madison	Unknown
James Monroe	Unknown
John Quincy Adams	George P. A. Healy
Andrew Jackson	Eliphalet F. Andrews
Martin Van Buren	George P. A. Healy
W. H. Harrison	Eliphalet F. Andrews
John Tyler	George P. A. Healy
James K. Polk	George P. A. Healy
Zachary Taylor	Eliphalet F. Andrews
Millard Fillmore	George P. A. Healy
Franklin Pierce	George P. A. Healy
James Buchanan	Eliphalet F. Andrews
Abraham Lincoln	Unknown
Andrew Johnson	Unknown
U. S. Grant	Thomas LeClear
R. B. Hayes	Daniel Huntington
James A. Garfield	Eliphalet F. Andrews
Chester A. Arthur	Daniel Huntington
Grover Cleveland	S. Frost Johnson
Benjamin Harrison	S. Frost Johnson
William McKinley	Joel Benziger
Theodore Roosevelt	John S. Sargent
William Howard Taft	Max Zorn
Woodrow Wilson	Seymour Thomas

Paint and Varnish Industry.—As early as 1795 the use of paint for houses was common in the United States. In cities and towns the inside of the house, at least, was painted, and in all but the cheaper wooden buildings the outside carried a coat of paint. The white house with green window blinds for a long period was the typical American dwelling.

A small mill for making linseed oil was started in New York City in 1715, and in 1718 John Prout, Jr., erected a linseed oil mill in Connecticut. In 1786 four oil mills were in operation in Lancaster County, Pa. These greatly stimulated the use of paints, and in 1804 Samuel Wetherill made the first successful attempt to manufacture white lead. Red lead, as well as white, was made by him of as good a quality as that imported.

In 1806 experiments in color making were carried on by Anthony Tiemann, and within the year he began the regular manufacture of paints. His first productions were rose pink, Dutch pink, French green and blue. The manufacture of Prussian blues was begun in 1809, and in 1820 chrome yellow was added to the products of this establishment. By 1811 Philadelphia mills were turning out twenty-two different colors of paint, and three small red-lead factories at Pittsburg (the first west of the Alleghanies), were making an

annual product of $135,000. Chrome paints of first quality in the early days of the industry commanded as much as $3 a pound, and the business was profitable. Extensive deposits of chromic iron, discovered in Chester County, Pa., gave an added impetus to paint grinding, and its growth was strong and steady. The succeeding decade saw the industry firmly established in New York. By 1820 there were extensive works in Brooklyn and New York, producing red and white leads, chrome and other colors, while a factory in Rensselaer County, N. Y., was turning out annually $4,500 worth of Prussian blue extracted from the by-product of a tannery.

Before 1828 all the varnish used in this country was imported. Its use, while less general than that of paint, was common enough to recommend it to manufacturers as a profitable business, and the first establishment for its manufacture was founded by P. B. Smith in New York City in 1828. Tilden & Hurlburt, the first permanent concern in the business, was established in 1830. This firm made the first importations of gum copal from Zanzibar and the west coast of Africa, and was the first to export American varnish, consigning a quantity to Mexico and South America in 1836. The quality of the American goods proved so exceptional that they not only competed with, but in a great measure supplanted, the exportations of the European manufacturers. The stimulation of a heavy foreign demand added to increased domestic consumption so swelled the business that the matter of obtaining supplies of the gums used became of serious importance. In 1857 such quantities of these raw materials were used that the manufacturers were obliged to establish a system of direct trade with the west coast of Africa.

The growth of the paint and varnish business had in the meantime affected the oil mills. Up to 1836 these mills had used only home grown seed, and a capacity of fifty bushels a day was a fair average output. With the growing use of linseed oil new methods were found necessary, and the firm of J. & L. K. Bridge, of Brooklyn, in that year imported the first cargo of flaxseed from Sicily. Odessa, Alexandria and Calcutta, were successively opened as supply points of this rapidly increasing trade.

In 1850 the paint industry entered upon a new era. The zinc deposits of New Jersey, opened in that year, gave an adequate and cheaply worked supply of ore from which the oxide could easily be reduced. This zinc oxide, in the form of white powder, had long been recognized as a valuable substitute for white lead as a body for paints. It had up to this time, however, received little attention owing to the small amount available for the market. The new and abundant supply turned the attention of manufacturers to experiments in this direction, and its use has since become general. Several mines were opened and soon were placing the white powdery zinc oxide on the market.

Mineral paints, made from different earths, came into prominence about this time, under strong claims of being fireproof and indestructible. Ready mixed paints were introduced to the trade in 1852.

About 1857 D. F. Tiemann & Co. made carmine from cochineal, a monopoly theretofore held by France. In 1860 they made a blue, soluble in water, for laundry use, and free from acid. They also established the manufacture of quicksilver vermilion, previously monopolized by England.

The federal census of the industry, made as of 1919, but published in 1922, follows:

Number of establishments	830
Persons engaged	34,030
Capital	$239,775,836
Salaries	26,522,628
Wages	24,118,159
Cost of materials	217,112,372
Value of products	340,346,803

The leading state in value of product was New York, closely followed in order by Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

One establishment (in Pennsylvania) employed 1,030 wage-earners and 1 (in Illinois), 852. There were 9 employing between 250 and 500 each; 40, from 100 to 250; 56, from 50 to 100; and 100, from 20 to 50.

There were 92 establishments with total products valued at more than $1,000,000 each; 68, at between $500,000 and $1,000,000; 273, between $100,000 and $500,000.

The chief materials used were linseed oil (27,037,192 gals., $43,721,595) and pig lead (192,558 short tons, $22,159,573). The chief products were thus valued:—Paints in oil, $83,632,424; varnishes and japans, $86,814,800; colors (pigments), $72,457,266.

There were 26 firms producing linseed oil, with capital of $73,954,065 and product valued at $120,638,100.

Palestine.—The modern country to which this name is applied extends eastward from the southeast shore of the Mediterranean, although its exact boundaries are indefinite. The natural and historic boundaries, however, run from the desert on the east; along Mount Hermon over to the Litani on the west to the plateau of the Lebanon, thence to the sea for the northern boundary; and in the south to the Gulf of Akaba and the Sinaitic Desert, although of old Palestine proper was usually considered as not extending beyond a line drawn east and west through the southern end of the Dead Sea.

In 1917 Palestine was conquered from the Turks by a British army under General Allenby. In November, 1917, the British Government gave notice of a willingness to turn the land over for a National Home for the Jewish race, in accordance with the aspirations of Zionism (q. v.). In April, 1920, the Supreme Council of the Allied Powers gave Great Britain a mandate over Palestine and in July of that year a British civil government was set up.

According to the former Turkish administrative divisions, Palestine consisted of 13,724 square miles, with a population of 675,000. Under British occupation, however, Palestine included only the land west of the Jordan, consisting of about 9,000 square miles, with a population of 770,000. Of these, 600,000 are Moslems, 80,000 are Jews and 84,500 are Christians. The largest towns are Jerusalem, 64,000; Jaffa, 45,100; Haifa, 39,000; Nablus, 20,000.

During the twentieth century, a number of Jewish colonies were established in Palestine, largely on the cooperative basis. These are doing much to restore the fertility of the soil, which for generations had been barren and uncultivated. By 1923, there were 21 of these colonies in Judea; 10 in Samaria; 20 in Lower Galilee, 10 in Upper Galilee. Altogether, there were more than 15,000 persons in these settlements. The language in common use, as well as in the schools, in these colonies is Hebrew.

Schooling for the Christian and Jewish population is chiefly in the hands of private agencies, the schools maintained by the British administration being for the greater part for the Mohammedan population. At latest reports, the Zionist organization con-

trolled 36 kindergartens, with 2,800 pupils; 48 elementary schools, with 7,000 pupils; 12 intermediate schools, with 1,250 pupils, in addition to a number of trade, technical and agricultural schools.

It is reported that there are some 250,000 sheep, 320,000 goats and 15,000 camels in Palestine. The chief crops are wheat, barley, maize, peas, grapes, oranges. The most common minerals are limestone, gypsum, rock salt, phosphates, asphalt, sulphur.

The most important ports of Palestine are Jaffa, Haifa, Acre and Gaza. The railroads in operation are the Kantara-Haifa line, 257 miles; the Ludd-Jerusalem, 42 miles; the Rapha-Beersheba, 37 miles; the Haifa-There are approximately 800 miles of public roads.

Palestine:
American citizens outraged in, 3015.
Disposition of, 8841, 8878. (See also Turkey.)
Jewish state in, favored, 8575.

Palisades Interstate Park.—The State of New York possesses several forest reservations and also several parks. One, the Niagara reservation, comprises the land about the great cataract, purchased at a cost of $1,000,000. The State Forest Preserve in the Adirondack region on Oct. 1, 1913, contained 1,495,257.29½ acres, and the Catskill Forest Preserve on the same day contained 112,750.15 acres. There are also Letchworth Park, about the falls of the Genesee River; John Boyd Thatcher Park, about the Indian Ladder, in Albany County, and islands in the St. Lawrence river.

Lastly, there is the Palisades Interstate Park, partly in the state of New Jersey and partly in the state of New York, extending along the Hudson river in its Palisades region, and extending north so as to include Bear mountain. The development of this park to its present great dimensions began in 1910, when Mary D. Harriman, widow of the late Edward H. Harriman, informed Governor Hughes of New York that, following the wishes of her husband, she was willing to convey 10,000 acres of land in the counties of Orange and Rockland to be used as a park, and also give $1,000,000 toward the park project.

In the following years, by contributions from private and public sources, and by bond issues, the Interstate Park Commissioners added more than 20,000 acres to the Harriman gift; constructed roads; developed a great recreation ground at Bear Mountain; connected sections of the Park with land at Bear Mountain donated by New York State; and opened up generous facilities for camping. At the present time, the Interstate Park comprises the strip of land along the Palisades from Fort Lee north across the New Jersey-New York line to a point opposite Dobbs Ferry; a rectangular section of land near Blauvelt; and the great stretch of land stretching southwestward into the Ramapo Mountains from the Hudson River at Bear Mountain.

In a recent year, more than 50,000 persons spent an average of ten days at the camps in the Park; more than 400,000 persons came to Bear Mountain by way of the Hudson River boats; with probably as many more coming by automobile and on foot, and almost 650,000 persons visited the Palisades at the Dyckman Street ferry, with 130,000 crossing the Hudson at Alpine, opposite Yonkers.

Palo Alto (Mexico), Battle of.—May 7, 1846, Gen. Taylor started from Point Isabel, with a force of 2,288 men, to relieve Fort Brown, twenty-seven miles away. At noon on the following day, when about half way between Point Isabel and Fort Brown, Taylor's army sighted the enemy at the water hole of Palo Alto. The regular Mexican force under Arista numbered 6,000 men, and there were some irregular troops and twelve pieces of artillery. Battle was immediately begun and fiercely fought until sunset. By the light of the moon and the burning prairie grass the belligerents buried their dead. The Mexicans lost 200 killed and 400 wounded. The American loss was only 4 killed and 40 wounded.

Palo Alto, Mexico, Battle of, referred to, 2295, 2300, 2342.

Pan-American Congress. (See International American Conference.)

Pan-American Exposition.—To illustrate the progress of civilization in the western hemisphere during the nineteenth century, there was held at Buffalo, N. Y., from May 1 to Nov. 2, 1901, an International American Fair, participated in officially by the various states of the Union, by Canada, and the South and Central American countries. The site covered an area of 350 acres and the buildings were artistically designed and arranged so as to present an allegorical study of man's struggle with the elements and his final triumph. The color scheme, as well as the artistic beauty, gained for the grounds the name of the Rainbow City. The total attendance was 8,179,674. The cost of the exposition was $8,860,757, and the receipts $5,534,643, a deficit of $3,326,-114. President McKinley was shot by an assassin in the Temple of Music while holding a reception there Sept. 6, 1901, and died eight days later at the home of the president of the Exposition.

Pan-American Exposition, referred to, 6675.

Pan-Americanism, spirit of, 8071, 8104.

Pan-American Railroad, discussed, 6864.

Pan-American Union.—The Pan-American Union (the new name given to the International Bureau of American Republics by the Fourth International American Conference, which met at Buenos Aires in July and August, 1910) was established under the recommendation of the First Pan-American Conference, held in the City of Washington in 1889-90 for the purpose of developing and maintaining closer relations of commerce and friendship between the twenty-one Republics of the Western Hemisphere. Its first report was transmitted to Congress in 1891 (5647). It was reorganized by the Third and Fourth Pan-American Conferences, held in Rio de Janeiro in 1906, and in Buenos Aires in 1910, respectively, and its scope widened by imposing many new and important duties. The Pan-American Union regularly communicates with these governments, and furnishes such information as it possesses or can obtain on a great variety of subjects to all of the Republics and to their officials and citizens. It is the custodian of the archives of the Pan-American Conferences, and is especially charged with the performance of duties imposed upon it by these conferences. The Pan-American Union is sustained by contributions from the American Republics in proportion to their population and is governed by a board composed of their diplo-

matic representatives at Washington, and the Secretary of State of the United States, who is ex-officio its chairman. It is therefore strictly an international institution and not a subordinate bureau of any one government. Its chief executive officer is the Director-General, elected by this governing board. It publishes a monthly bulletin containing the latest information respecting the resources, commerce, and general progress of the American Republics, as well as maps and geographical sketches of these countries, handbooks of trade, travel, and description, and special reports on commerce, tariffs, improvements, concessions, new laws, etc. It also conducts a large correspondence not only with manufacturers and merchants in all countries looking to the extension of Pan-American trade, but with writers, travelers, scientists, students, and specialists, for the purpose of promoting general Pan-American intercourse. Another and practical feature of the Pan-American Union is the Columbus Memorial Library and reading room, which contains 22,000 volumes relating to the American Republics. (See also International American Conference and American Republics, Bureau of.)

An illustration of the Pan-American Union's building at Washington will be found opposite page 8602.

Pan-American Union:
Discussed, 7664.
Financial conference, 8071.
Practical work of, 7415.

Pan-Germanism denounced, 8230, 8278, 8295, 8389. (See also Germany.)

Panama.—The Republic of Panama occupies the Isthmus which connects the continent of North and South America, and lies between Costa Rica and Colombia, having formed a department of the latter Republic until Nov. 4, 1903. The isthmus of Panama lies between 7° 15′-9° 39′ N. latitude and 77° 15′-83° 30′ W. longitude, and has an area of 32,380 square miles. The northern coast is washed by the Caribbean Sea (Atlantic) and the southern coast by the Pacific Ocean.

Physical Features.—The country is everywhere mountainous, with a ridge, more or less defined, extending from the western to the eastern boundary, and consists of a succession of hills and valleys with little open plain. The Cordilleras of Chiriqui and Veraguas of the west are continued eastward by the Cordilleras of Panama and Darien.

The largest rivers are the Tuira, or Rio Darien, of the eastern province, rising close to the Caribbean shore and flowing into the Pacific in the Gulf of San Miguel; the Chepo, or Bayano, with a similar course to the Bay of Panama; and the Chagres which flows northward through Gatun Lake to the Caribbean, part of its course being utilized for the Panama Canal. The only lake is that of Gatun, which has been formed by the construction of a dam in order to raise the water level of the Canal.

Although lying within the tropics the climate is not unhealthy, and the mean temperature varies little throughout the republic, being about 80° Fahrenheit. The wet season lasts from April to December, and the dry season is bracing with dry northeast winds from the Caribbean.

History.—Panama seceded from Colombia on November 4, 1903, and was recognized as independent by the United States on the following November 13. In 1914, a treaty was signed by the Colombian and United States Governments whereby Colombia recognizes the independence of Panama. It was ratified by the United States Senate in 1921.

Government.—By the constitution adopted in February, 1904, and amended in December, 1918, there is a Chamber of Deputies of 33 members. The President is elected for a term of four years. There are three vice-presidents, and a cabinet of five members. Each of the eight provinces into which the country is divided has its governor.

The President appoints diplomatic representatives, judges of the Supreme Court and the governors of the provinces. His veto power over legislation is similar to that of the President of the United States.

There is no standing army, but the integrity of the republic has been guaranteed by the United States. Order is maintained by a small national police force.

Population.—The census of 1920 showed the population as 401,428, not including Indians. The chief religion is Roman Catholicism.

Education.—Primary education is nominally free and compulsory. The Republic maintains 398 public schools, which have more than 300 teachers and 22,000 pupils. There are also a National University and a number of private schools.

Finance.—The latest annual budget was in the neighborhood of $3,500,000. The foreign debt, issued in the United States for railway construction, is about $3,000,000, and there is an internal debt of about $2,500,000, more than half of which is owed to the United States. The Republic has about $6,000,000 in United States banks and some $750,000 in the National Bank of Panama. The unit of currency is the balboa, equal to $1.00 in United States currency.

Production and Industry.—The soil is extremely fertile, but there is little cultivation, and nearly one-half the land is unoccupied. The greater part of the cultivated portion is under bananas, other crops including coffee, tobacco and cereals, while cacao grows wild in the northwestern province of Bocas del Toro. The forest-clad hills provide valuable medicinal plants and dyestuffs, India rubber, mahogany and other timber and cabinet woods. The live stock is being greatly improved and there are excellent grazing grounds. Immigration is encouraged by the grant of small farms to likely settlers on favorable terms. The fisheries are important, and the pearl industry is being largely exploited with profitable results. Gold is mined in the eastern provinces, and copper is found in the west, where also valuable coal deposits exist and await development. Iron is also found, and there are productive salt mines on Parita Bay, while mineral springs abound.

The most important product is bananas. About 500,000 bushels of coffee and 40,000 quintals of sugar are produced annually. The live-stock estimates include 200,000 cattle, 15,000 horses, 2,000 mules, 30,000 pigs and 5,000 goats.

The latest figures showed imports of about $8,000,000 and exports of about $5,000,000. Most of the trade is with the United States. The chief exports are bananas, cocoanuts, balata, hides and gum.

Transportation.—The only railway runs along the canal route from Colon (or Aspinwall) to Panama and was included in the purchase by the United States. This interoceanic line is fifty miles in

length and was built by United States capitalists in 1855. In the province of Bocas del Toro the United Fruit Company (American) has constructed about 150 miles of railway (including spurs) on their banana plantations, which cover an area of 35,000 acres. This line is being extended toward Port Limon (Costa Rica), and only twenty miles separate the terminal from that port. The Chiriqui line is 65 miles long. There are about 100 post-offices and 40 telegraph offices.

Cities.—The capital is Panama, with a population of 62,000. Colon has some 26,000 inhabitants, and other towns are David, Los Santos, Santiago, Las Tablas, Bocas del Toro.

Panama:
Constitution of, submitted, 6862.
Consul of United States in, absence of, referred to, 3844.
Costa Rica and, arbitration of dispute between, 7657.
Federal district created in, 5083.
Government of, organization of, 6865.
Independence gained, 6741, 6771, 6787, 6809, 6814, 6833.
Neutrality protocol with, 8011.
Police reform in, under United States guidance, 7416.
President of, congratulations to and from, on armistice of World War, 8626.
Relations with, 7664.
Revolts against Colombia, details of, 6810, 6811, 6832, 6833.
Revolution in, correspondence relating to, 6747, 6809, 6825. (See also Panama Canal and Colombia.)
Sailors, United States, indemnification for outrages against, 7417.
Treaty with, for canal, 6816, 6823, 7020.
United States grants $10,000,000 to, 6855.
United States minister to, status of, 6938.
United States removes discriminating tonnage duties against, 6954.
Vessels from, duties on, suspended by proclamation, 4871.

Panama, Treaties with.—By The treaty concluded in 1903 for the construction of a ship canal, it was agreed that the United States guarantees and will maintain the independence of Panama. The United States receives in perpetuity the use, occupation, and control of a zone of land for the construction, maintenance and protection of a canal; said zone to be ten miles in width and extending five miles in width on both sides of the central line of the path of the canal, and three marine miles at each end out to sea. Grant is also made of other parts of territory adjacent which may be necessary for the construction and maintenance of the canal. This grant includes the islands of Perico, Naos, Culebra, and Flamenco. The rights, power, and authority of the United States within the zone shall be the same as though the territory were an integral part of the United States. The use of rivers, streams and bodies of water is included in the grant.

The Republic of Panama acknowledges a monopoly to the United States of the construction of the canal within the limits of its possessions. At the same time the grants hereby conveyed do not in any degree invalidate the claims of private landholders within the area; nor does the grant interfere with the rights of the public to roads and means of conveyance within the territory. Damages arising from the occupancy by the United States are to be appraised by a joint commission of Panama and the United States and awards for damages resulting from the construction of the canal shall be paid solely by the United States.

The United States has the power to make such alterations in the sanitary arrangements of the cities of Panama and Colon as it may deem desirable for the supply of water and the distribution of sewage; and for such improvements made at the cost of the United States, that government has the authority to impose reasonable taxes upon the inhabitants of the cities.

Authority is granted to the United States to adopt the measures necessary for the maintenance of law and order within the limits of these cities. The Republic of Panama transfers to the United States all rights of sovereignty over the canal, the New Panama Canal Company, and the Panama Railroad Company which it has inherited from the Republic of Colombia, and authorizes the United States to exercise all such rights and privileges in the construction of the Canal.

The only charges, imposts, and duties which are to be levied by the United States at the entrance to the canal and by the Republic of Panama shall be the ordinary charges of toll for the use of the canal and the imposition of customs duties upon such merchandise as is destined to be consumed within the Republic of Panama. No national, state, or municipal taxes shall be imposed upon the canal or upon any machinery, or material of construction, or auxiliaries and accessories of all kinds. The telegraph and telephone lines within the zone shall be at the service of the government of the Republic of Panama for the transmission of official messages at the customary and usual rates. There shall be free and safe access permitted by Panama to the immigration to the zone by persons of all classes and nationalities.

The United States agrees to pay to Panama for the rights, privileges and concessions herein granted ten millions of dollars in gold on ratification of this treaty and an annual sum of two hundred and fifty thousand dollars, beginning nine years after ratification.

The canal shall be neutral in perpetuity and shall be opened in accordance with the treaty between the United States and Great Britain on this subject. Free transportation of vessels, troops, and munitions of war is granted to Panama. If any terms or conditions of this treaty shall prove incompatible with later terms or conditions granted to a third power, the Republic of Panama agrees to waive its rights on such points. No anterior pledges, debts, liens, trusts, or liabilities granted by the Republic of Panama shall operate to the detriment of the United States and any damages resulting therefrom shall be liquidated by Panama.

All claims for remuneration in connection with the canal construction which have been arranged for or any profits which might accrue to the advantage of Panama are hereby renounced by that power.

The United States has full power to police, fortify, and station troops to preserve order or maintain safety in the canal zone. The rights hereby granted to the United States shall not be lessened or impaired by any changes in the laws or in the political integrity of Panama. Naval or coaling stations will be conveyed by Panama to the United States by sale upon terms to be agreed upon should such become necessary for the better maintenance or preservation of the canal.

An extradition treaty was signed in 1904, the terms of which will be found in the Encyclopedic article, Extradition Treaties.

Panama also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Panama Canal.—The idea of constructing a ship canal between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans occurred to navigators as soon as the form of the continents of North and South America became known. As early as 1527 H. de la Serna surveyed a canal route from Chagres to Panama. In 1529, Alvaro de Saavedra, a companion of Balboa on the latter's discovery of the Pacific and later of Cortez in the search for the strait believed to connect the oceans, drew the first plans for the canal. Lopez de Gomarfa in 1551 proposed to the Spanish Government the building of a canal. In 1698, when William Paterson, an adventurous Scot, had established an English colony on the Isthmus of Darien which he called New Caledonia, he advocated constructing a canal across the narrow strip of land separating the two great oceans. Many surveys have been made of the Isthmus with the view of piercing it with an artificial waterway. The United States obtained some very complete maps of the country by the explorations of Col. Hughes in 1849, Lieut. Strain in 1854, Lieut. Michler in 1858, and Commodores Selfridge and Tull in 1870 and 1875. (See pages 2580, 2670.) In 1869 a treaty was signed by representatives of the United States of Colombia and the United States, providing for the construction of a canal by the latter nation, but there was so much delay and the treaty was so amended by the Colombian Congress that the matter was temporarily dropped by the United States. In 1877 the Colombian Government granted a concession to a Frenchman named Wyse for constructing a canal giving him "exclusive privilege for the excavating of a canal between the two oceans," the terminal ports and waters to be neutral.

At the invitation of Ferdinand de Lesseps, an International Scientific Congress met at Paris in 1879 and hastily decided upon the Panama route for a canal, the American members of the congress refraining from voting. The Panama Canal Company was then formed, with De Lesseps as president, and the Wyse concession was purchased for 10,000,000 francs. The route selected was close to the present line of the Panama Railroad, crossed the Chagres River six times and contemplated a long and deep cut through the Cordillera. The cost had been estimated at $169,000,000, and shares of the company had been taken by French citizens, many of them of the middle class, to the amount of $260,000,000. Work was begun (in excavating the Culebra Cut) on January 20, 1882, but the affairs of the company were conducted with so great corruption, that it became bankrupt in 1889, and was forced to suspend work. In 1892, after an investigation of the affairs of the company, De Lesseps, his son, the contractor Eiffel and others in public life were arrested on charges of fraud in the management of the funds intrusted to them for use in the construction of the canal, and in March of the following year, the New Panama Canal Company was formed, with renewed concessions to terminate in April, 1910.

In the meantime American interest in an interoceanic canal had revived, and there was much discussion of a route across the territory of Nicaragua. The Nicaragua Canal Association obtained concessions from Nicaragua and carried on work of construction from 1889 until 1893, when it became bankrupt. In 1899 a commission was appointed by Congress to determine the most feasible route for an isthmian canal. It reported that if the rights and property of the New Panama Canal Company could be purchased for a reasonable price a canal across Panama could be built more economically than one across the territory of Nicaragua, and recommended the Panama route. In order that the United States might have exclusive control over the proposed canal the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (q. v.), between Great Britain and the United States, was superseded by the Hay-Pauncefote Treaty on Dec. 17, 1901. In 1902, in accordance with the report of its commission appointed in 1899, Congress passed an act (approved June 28), authorizing the President to secure for the United States the property of the New Panama Canal Company, at a cost of $40,000,000. It was further provided in the act, that "should the President be unable to obtain for the United States a satisfactory title to the property of the New Panama Canal Company and the control over the necessary territory of the Republic of Colombia * * * within a reasonable time and upon reasonable terms, then the President should endeavor to provide for a canal by the Nicaragua route." The Colombian Government, however, on Aug. 12, 1903, rejected the Hay-Herran Treaty, which had been negotiated between it and the United States, thereby refusing the United States' final offer of $10,000,000 down and $250,000 annually for the Panama concession. (See Hay-Herran Treaty, page 6828.)

On Nov. 3, 1903, the Department of Panama proclaimed its independence of Colombia, and having been recognized as an independent republic by the United States, on Nov. 18, the Isthmian Canal Treaty between the United States and the Republic of Panama was signed at Washington.

According to this treaty the Republic of Panama granted to the United States the perpetual use, occupation and control of a zone of land ten miles wide (five miles on each side of the central line of the route of the canal) across the Isthmus, complete sovereignty to which was to pass to the United States. The price paid the Republic of Panama by the United States was $10,000,000 down and $250,000 annually as long as the convention should continue, beginning nine years after the date of ratification. The United States also guaranteed the neutrality of the canal and the independence of the Republic of Panama. Ratifications of the treaty were exchanged at Washington on Feb. 26, 1904. According to an act of Congress approved April 28, 1904, the occupation of the Canal Zone by the United States began on May 4, 1904. The President also appointed an Isthmian Canal Commission of seven members, and directed that the War Department, through this

Commission, should undertake the supervision of the construction of the canal and the government of the Canal Zone. On April 4, 1905, this Commission was dismissed and a second appointed, the responsibility being placed chiefly upon the executive committee of three members.

The circumstances under which Panama seceded from Colombia and was recognized by the United States have caused much comment unfavorable to the United States in foreign countries and more particularly in Central and South America. It was charged that the United States had practically induced Panama to secede, and then had recognized it as independent, so that Colombia would be unable to put down the secession. President Roosevelt emphatically denied these charges, and in return charged that Colombia had been trying to overcharge the United States for permission to construct the Canal. His account of the circumstances under which Panama seceded and was recognized by the United States as independent will be found on pages 6747, 6809, 6815, 6825, 6857, 6862, 6865, 7020. In 1914, during the administration of President Wilson, a treaty was signed with Colombia whereby the United States agreed to pay a sum of money to Colombia (finally fixed at $25,000,000) and expressed regret that anything had occurred to mar the good relations between the two countries; whereas Colombia agreed to recognize the independence of Panama and to resume diplomatic relations with the United States. In 1921 the United States Senate ratified the treaty, after deleting the clause expressing regret.

Up to a recent date, the investment of the United States in the Canal had been $275,179,298 chargeable to commercial uses and $110,997,602 chargeable against defence. In recent years, revenues have exceeded the cost of operation and maintenance. Counting the fixed charges, with a 5% charge for capital, the Canal has been over $100,000,000 behind, in a purely commercial sense.

The canal is about fifty miles in length from deep water in the Caribbean Sea (Limon Bay) to deep water in the Pacific Ocean. Between shore lines the distance is 42 miles. The minimum width is 300 feet in the Culebra (Gaillard) Cut, and 500 feet elsewhere. It is from 42 to 45 feet deep in the sea-level sections and from 45 to 85 feet deep in the lake section. Vessels entering the canal from the north, or Caribbean, end pass through a sea level channel for about seven miles to the Gatun dam and locks, where, by a series of three lifts, they are raised to eighty-five feet above sea level.

The Gatun dam, which is one of the largest ever built, crosses Chagres River where it flows between two hills. It is 8,400 feet long across the top and 2,600 feet thick at its greatest width at the base. The crest of the dam is 105 feet above sea level, or twenty feet above the level of Gatun Lake. The dam expands the waters of the river and lake into one continuous body of water 163 square miles in area, backing them through the Culebra cut thirty-one miles to Pedro Miguel lock. A spillway 285 feet wide and carved 1,200 feet through solid rock carries off the surplus water.

The Culebra cut, which ranks with the Gatun dam as one of the engineering wonders of the age, pierces the highest part of the mountain range on the isthmus. Gold Hill, 330 feet high, had to be cut down to within forty feet of sea level, necessitating the removal of nearly a hundred million cubic yards of earth. The cut is 300 feet wide at the bottom and eight miles long.

After reaching this elevation through the locks at Gatun, vessels proceed thirty-two miles to Pedro Miguel lock and are lowered thirty feet to Miraflores Lake, whence, by two more locks, they are lowered to the level of the Pacific Ocean, eight miles from deep water.

There is a 1,000-foot dry dock at the Pacific side, and the locks are each 1,000 feet long and double. The time of transit through the canal of an ordinary ocean-going vessel is from seven to eight hours. Passage through the locks is aided by electric "mules" or locomotives on tracks at each side, and vessels may proceed under their own steam at the entrances and through Gatun Lake.

The distance between New York and San Francisco has been reduced about two-thirds by the Canal. From New York to Valparaiso, 3,747 miles are saved; to Callao, 6,250 miles; to Guayaquil, 7,405 miles; to Wellington, New Zealand, 2,493; to Yokohama, 3,678 miles. From Liverpool to San Francisco, the distance has been reduced 5,666 miles over the Strait of Magellan route; to Valparaiso, 1,540 miles; to Callao, 4,043 miles; to Honolulu, 4,403 miles; to Wellington, 1,564 miles.

The chief engineer in charge of the work was Col. George W. Goethals, U. S. A. The construction of the canal was made possible largely through the sanitation work of Gen. W. C. Gorgas, U. S. A., under whose supervision the fever germs and disease breeding mosquitoes were eliminated at a cost to the government of more than twenty million dollars. The number of men on the work reached the maximum in March, 1913, when 44,733 were employed, of whom between 5,000 and 6,000 were Americans. Construction work was begun in February, 1910.

Early in May, 1914, cargoes of sugar from Hawaii were transferred to barges and towed through the canal, reloaded and landed in New York May 27th. June 8th, the *Allianca*, 4,000 tons, was towed through the locks. The first ocean steamer passed through on August 3, 1914 and on August 15, 1914, the Canal was opened to commerce.

During a recent fiscal year, there passed through the Canal 2,478 commercial vessels, with cargoes of 9,374,499 tons, and on which $8,935,872 was levied for tolls and other charges. Of these ships, 1,129 were United States, 753 were British, 106 were Norwegian, 60 French, 79 Chilian, 118 Japanese, 9 Danish, 75 Peruvian, 26 Italian, 41 Spanish, and 29 Dutch. Two hundred sixty-seven non-commercial vessels also passed through the Canal. The expenses for operation and maintenance during the year were $6,548,272.

Up to July 1, 1923, 19,802 commercial ships had passed through the Canal, with net tonnage of 74,671,519 and cargo of 80,916,281 tons. Of these, 7,855 were United States, 6,634 British, 1,161 Norwegian, 849 Japanese, 613 Chilean, 542 Peruvian. Also, 1,535 U. S. Government ships (to January 1, 1923), carrying 1,503,669 tons of cargo.

For exemption of American coastwise vessels from tolls, see references below.

The tolls are as follows: On merchant vessels carrying cargo or passengers, $1.20 for each 100 cubic feet of actual earning capacity, with 40% less for vessels in ballast without passengers or cargo. Upon

naval vessels other than hospital ships, transports, colliers and supply ships, $.50 per displacement ton. Upon army and navy transports, colliers, hospital ships, supply ships, $1.20 per net ton.

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Panama Congress.—A congress called by the several South and Central American Republics to meet at Panama in June, 1826, to consider the rights of those states. Only one preliminary meeting was held, and the adjourned session of the congress for 1827 never occurred. Among the objects of the proposed congress were the regulations of commercial intercourse, assent to the doctrine that free ships make free goods, and an agreement that "each will guard against the establishment of any future European colony within its borders." The failure of the congress demonstrated the inadvisability of an alliance between the United States and the smaller Republics. President Adams warmly favored the establishment of closer relations with the Central and South American Republics, and was supported in the Cabinet by Henry Clay, whose influence in Congress was considerable. In opposing the alliance of American Republics in a speech in the Senate in April, 1826, John Randolph referred to the coalition of Adams and Clay as a "coalition between the Puritan and the blackleg." This remark provoked a duel between Clay and Randolph.

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Panama-Pacific Exposition in 1915.—An International Exposition to commemorate the opening of the Panama Canal to commerce and celebrate the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of the Pacific Ocean was held in San Francisco in 1915.

Congress, in February, 1911, decided the rival claims of San Francisco and New Orleans for Federal recognition as the site of the exposition in favor of the former city, the vote of the House of Representatives being 259 to 43. The act of Feb. 15, 1911, provided that "Whenever it shall be shown to the satisfaction of the President of the United States that a suitable site has been selected and that the sum of not less than $15,000,000 will be available to enable the Panama-Pacific International Exposition Company, a corporation organized and existing under and by virtue of the laws of the State of California, for the purpose of inaugurating, carrying forward and holding an exposition at the city and county of San Francisco on or about Jan. 1, 1915," then the president is authorized to invite by proclamation all foreign countries and nations to such proposed exposition. By act of March 4, 1911, the president was further authorized to invite the representatives of foreign nations and their fleets to assemble at Hampton Roads, Va., and thence the representatives to go to the city of Washington to be formally welcomed by the president, after which he will there review the assembled fleets as they proceed with them to Hampton Roads and start on their voyage for San Francisco.

In pursuance of this authority, President Taft, on Oct. 14, 1911, in the city of San Francisco, in the presence of a great assemblage, turned the first spadeful of earth at the fair site. The exposition, which was the third of its class held in the United States and the twelfth held in the world, was opened on February 20, 1915, and closed at midnight on the following December 4. Thirty-nine foreign nations and thirty-seven states and three territories were represented in the exhibits, the value of all the displays at the Exposition being placed at more than $350,000,000.

The average daily attendance at the Exposition was about 62,000, with the highest daily attendance, 348,472 on November 2. The total attendance was 18,413,399. There were more than eight hundred congresses and conventions held at or in conjunction with the Exposition.

The site of the permanent buildings of the Exposition was Golden Gate Park, with the temporary structures on the bay shore overlooking the harbor. A huge permanent convention hall, however, constructed in connection with the exposition, was placed in the civic center of the city.

Panama-Pacific International Exposition, services of, 7819.

Panama Railroad, employees of, compensation to be paid for injuries to, 7990.

Panama Railroad Steamship Line, pier at Hoboken leased to, 8873.

Panchita, The, seizure of, on African coast, 3017.

Panics.—A word formed from the name of the Greek god of shepherds, who is said to have had the power of inspiring sudden fright without apparent cause. It is now commonly used to describe a state of fear bordering on frenzy, from whatever cause induced. In history great commercial crises are spoken of as panics. England, Holland and France have experienced them, and the United States has passed through several notable ones. Those most disastrous have usually followed general injudicious speculation in lands or inflated securities. The crisis of 1816-1819 in the United States, it is claimed, was due to the speculation and disorder following the War of 1812. The next occurred in 1825. A very memorable panic was that of 1837. The few years preceding had been marked by extraordinary speculation, carried on with an unsound banking system. Jackson's "specie circular" caused many banks to suspend, and credit was generally impaired throughout the country. Governmental aid was invoked by many financial institutions, but without avail, as Van Buren, who had succeeded to the Presidency, insisted upon individuals righting their own affairs. In 1857 another period of inflation was followed by another panic. Again in 1873 there was a severe monetary crisis. Just twenty years later occurred the last panic from which the country has suffered. (See also Black Friday.)

The crisis of 1873 is usually dated from the failure of Jay Cooke & Co., Sept. 18th. The New York Stock Exchange closed on the 20th and was not reopened until the end of the month. Clearing House loan certificates were issued in large quantities, the last of which were redeemed Jan. 14, 1874. There had been certain premonitory symptoms of the approaching collapse, and there followed a long period of depression, which did not reach its lowest point until three years later. The number of business failures reported by commercial agents in 1872 was 4,069, and by 1876, the year of the deepest depression, the number had steadily increased to 9,084.

The depression of 1893 was preceded by reckless investments in foreign securities and was brought on by the shipments of gold to Europe caused by the operation of the act of Congress of July 14, 1890, which required the purchase by the United States Treasury of 4,500,000 ounces of silver per month. When the gold reserve held in the Treasury for the redemption of United States notes fell to near $100,000,000, panic seized the business centers of the country. Bank reserves in New York fell from $25,439,925 in May to $5,481,975 in June. The financial tension was rendered more acute by the news that the Indian government had suspended the public coinage of silver. This caused insistent demands for the repeal of the silver purchase law. President Cleveland called an extra session of Congress and the vicious measure was repealed, whereupon recovery was rapid, aided materially by imports of gold and easier money.

Renewed activity in all lines of manufacture and commerce succeeded the panic of 1893 and the year 1906 witnessed the culmination of the remarkable industrial expansion. In 1907 many great railway and industrial enterprises endeavored to sell securities to augment their working capital, with the result that the stock markets felt the oversupply and prices fell with a crash; bank loans were called in and debtors failing to respond were sold out. The crisis was accentuated by the efforts of a few men to corner certain stocks, and their failure caused the suspension of banks which held their securities as collateral for loans. It transpired that the market manipulators were in some instances officers of the banks making the loans, and criminal indictments were secured against them. This panic was relieved by J. Pierpont Morgan, who formed a pool of $25,000,000 to lend on approved security. (See Currency Laws.)

Panics:

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Derangement in moneyed institutions, 623.

Failures frequent in large cities, 630.

Labor, fall in price of, 630.

Pecuniary embarrassments existing in Union, 629.

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Cleveland, 5833.
Grant, 4189, 4197, 4238.
Hayes, 4397.
Roosevelt, 7040, 7050.
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Van Buren, 1541.

Paoli (Pa.) Massacre.—After the retreat from Brandywine Washington moved out on the Lancaster road as far as Warren's Tav-

ern. Finding that Howe did not contemplate an attack upon Reading, Washington stationed Gen. Anthony Wayne with 1,500 men at Paoli, a retired and well-chosen position, to be ready to fall upon the rear of Howe's army. On the night of Sept. 20, 1777, Wayne was surprised, through the treachery of the people of the country, and 300 of his men were killed, wounded, or captured, with a loss of only an inconsiderable number of the enemy. Wayne saved his artillery and most of his baggage.

Papago Reservation. (See Gila Bend Reservation, Ariz.)

Papal States.—A former dominion of Italy, comprising the Romagna, the Marches, Umbria, and the present province of Rome, and governed directly by the Papal See. It was bounded on the north by the Lombardo-Venetian Kingdom, on the east by the Adriatic Sea, on the southeast by the Kingdom of Naples, on the southwest by the Mediterranean Sea, and on the west by Tuscany and the Duchy of Modena. In 1860 the larger part was annexed to Italy, and the remainder in 1870.

Papal States (see also Italy):
- Annexation of, to Italy, referred to, 4098.
- Outrages on American citizens in, 3110.
- Revolutions in, 2551.
- Vessels of, discriminating duties on, suspended by proclamation, 942, 3022.

Paper and Wood Pulp Industry.—The last federal census of manufactures surveyed this industry as of 1919, although its report was not published until 1922, as follows:—

Number of establishments	729
Persons engaged	124,935
Wage-earners, average	113,759
Capital	$905,794,583
Salaries	29,952,744
Wages	135,690,642
Cost of materials	467,482,637
Value of products	788,059,377

The leading state was New York, which employed 15½% of the wage-earners and produced 16½% of the value of products. It was followed by Maine, Massachusetts and Wisconsin, which each employed 11% of the wage-earners and produced from 10% to 12% of the value of products each.

More than half the wage-earners were employed in establishments where the prevailing hours of work were 48 weekly, whereas in 1914 more than half were employed 60 or more hours and in 1909, almost two-thirds.

There were 9 establishments (4 in Maine, 1 each in New Hampshire, Michigan, Ohio, Pennsylvania and another state) employing above 1,000 wage-earners each; 38, between 500 and 1,000; 70, between 250 and 500; 204, between 100 and 250. There were 238 establishments with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each.

Ninety-one per cent of the wage-earners were male and 9% female. Eighty-nine per cent of the establishments were under the corporation form of ownership, but they employed 97% of the wage-earners and produced 96½% of the total value of products.

Of the 5,477,832 cords of pulp wood consumed, 2,313,419 were domestic spruce; 873,795 were imported spruce; and 795,154 were hemlock.

The chief separate products, including some inevitable duplication in tabulation, were as follows:—

Kind	*Tons*	*Value*
News paper	1,323,880	$98,559,359
Hanging papers	69,445	6,043,390
Poster, tablet, etc.	80,394	7,272,755
Book paper—		
Machine finished	532,413	76,772,582
Sized and super-calendered	286,407	41,498,194
Coated	132,454	24,009,614
Plate, map, etc.	9,821	1,556,372
Cover paper	22,163	5,643,191
Fine paper—		
Ledger, highest grade	30,584	12,254,967
Pole dried	48,564	19,868,978
Air dried	28,786	9,514,618
Machine dried	59,674	14,665,308
Sulphite bond	82,467	17,484,179
All other	75,108	13,952,756
Wrapping paper	831,372	103,069,297
Tag stock	27,092	5,459,980
Boards	1,867,064	124,090,643
Tissue paper	190,561	40,695,523
Blotting paper	13,420	3,209,137
Building, roofing, etc.	195,244	17,737,341
All other paper	191,617	29,690,905
Wood pulp for sale or outside consumption	1,100,303	80,095,047

Among the materials used were $87,386,083 worth of pulp wood; $118,967,841 worth (1,595,980 tons) of wood pulp; $24,217,978 worth (277,849 tons) of rags; $43,567,775 worth (1,854,386 tons) of high grade shavings.

The number of persons engaged increased 31% over 1914; the primary horsepower, 14%; the capital, 69½%; the salaries, 132%; the wages, 155%; the cost of materials, 119%; the value of products, 137%.

History.—The earliest form in which paper is known to history is the Egyptian papyrus, made from the plant of the same name, which is reputed to have been white and strong, but all samples of which preserved to the present prove to have become brown and brittle after many centuries. Paper in the modern sense of the word was probably first made by the Chinese, as early as the beginning of the Christian era. About the seventh century A. D., Arabs of Samarcand had learned the process sufficiently to make paper of cotton fibre, and that knowledge never died out, although little paper was made or used from about the tenth century to the Renaissance. The Renaissance naturally stimulated the demand for paper, and in the fourteenth century the value of linen as the basis for paper was discovered and put to use.

Early in the eighteenth century, Reamur, the French scientist, through his study of wasps' nests, spoke of the practicability of making paper of wood, straw, grasses and other fibres, but modern paper pulp was made first in England about 1850, and its manufacture for some years afterwards was confined to that country.

In the United States, paper was first manufactured near Philadelphia as early as 1690. The growth of the industry, however, was slow until within the last forty years, during which time the introduction of improved machinery and the use of wood fibre as a material have brought about a remarkable growth in the industry. In the decade 1899-1909 the value of products increased $140,330,802 or 110.2 per cent, this percentage being higher than that for any other decade since 1869. Some part of this increase, however, was due to advance in prices, particularly during the first half of the decade.

Up to 1899 native spruce and poplar were used almost exclusively for pulp wood. Since that time, however, the advancing price of the native stock has led to the increased importation of these woods from Canada and to the use of other and cheaper native woods.

It is usually considered that 80% of the paper manufactured becomes waste within two or three years, and that, chiefly because of the cost of collection, only 25% of this latter amount is redeemed.

Paper Currency. (See Currency; Finances discussed.)

Papua.—A British possession in the southeastern part of the island of New Guinea (see also Oceania). The area, with that of the attached islands, is 90,540 square miles, with a population of some 250,000 natives and 1,000 Europeans.

The principal cultures are cocoanuts, rubber and sisal hemp. The timber is especially valuable. There is much mining of gold, and copper ore is being produced. The trade is chiefly with Australia. The chief exports are copra, sisal hemp, pearls and pearl shells, gold, rubber and timber. The latest figures showed annual imports of $1,250,000 and exports of $850,000. The administration of Papua is in the hands of the Commonwealth of Australia. The capital is Port Moresby.

Papua, copyright privileges granted to, 8480.

Paraguay.—Paraguay proper is an inland state of South America, lying between the rivers Paraguay and Alto Paraná, and bounded on the north by the Brazilian province of Matto Grosso, while the Chaco territory lying between the rivers Paraguay and Pilcomayo (and bounded on the north by Bolivia), is also claimed to be Paraguayan, but forms the subject of a long-standing dispute between Paraguay and Bolivia. The whole country may be said to be bounded on the north by Bolivia and Brazil, on the east by Brazil and Argentina, and on the south and west by Argentina. The area of Paraguay proper is about 65,000 square miles, and that of the Chaco district is more than 100,000 square miles.

Physical Features.—The country consists of a series of plateaus. The Paraguay and Alto Paraná Rivers are navigable at all seasons. The Pilcomayo River is navigable for 180 miles from Asuncion. The plateaus are covered with grassy plains and dense forest. The Chaco is practically a dead level, pierced by great rivers; it suffers much from floods and still more from drought.

History.—Paraguay was visited in 1527 by Sebastian Cabot, and in 1535 was settled as a Spanish possession. From that date to 1776 the country formed part of the vice-royalty of Peru, from which it was separated in 1776 and made an adjunct of the vice-royalty of Buenos Aires. In 1811 Paraguay declared its independence of Spain, and from 1814-1840 was governed by Francia, a Paraguayan despot, who was succeeded by Lopez, 1840-1862. In 1862 Francisco Solano Lopez succeeded his father, and in 1864 declared war against Brazil, Argentina and Uruguay being involved in the struggle. Against these three nations Lopez conducted a five years' war, which terminated in his defeat and death at the Battle of Cerro Corá, March 1, 1870. This dogged struggle reduced the country to complete prostration, and the population, which was 800,000 in 1857, is alleged to have fallen in 1870 to 250,000, of whom barely 30,000 were men.

Government.—The present constitution was adopted at the close of the war, and under its provisions the head of the executive is the President, elected by an electoral college for four years and ineligible for office for eight consecutive years after the expiration of his term. A Vice-President is similarly elected, and succeeds automatically in case of the death, expulsion or absence of the President. There is a cabinet of five ministers.

Congress consists of two houses. The upper house (Senate) has twenty members, elected by direct vote for six years, one-third renewable every two years; the Chamber of Deputies is composed of forty members, elected by direct vote for four years and renewable as to one-half every two years.

There is a supreme court at the capital with three judges, two courts of appeal, a court of jurymen, and nine judges of first instance.

Population.—The inhabitants of Paraguay are mainly of Guarani Indian descent. The old Spanish stock has, to a large extent, become mixed with the primitive inhabitants, but during the last fifty years a considerable number of Europeans have settled in the country. The Paraguayan Chaco is only partially explored and is inhabited almost entirely by tribes of nomadic Indians, estimated as 50,000 in number. The total population is estimated as 1,000,000, with some 60,000 foreigners. The official language is Spanish, but Guarani is the language of common usage. Roman Catholicism is the established religion.

Production and Industry.—The chief natural products are timber and yerba maté (Paraguayan tea). Tobacco and fruit, chiefly oranges, are grown for export, sugar cane, roots and grain for home consumption. The chief industry is stock raising. The primitive conditions of the country and the scarcity of labor appear to be, at present, unfavorable to agriculture. The soil and climatic conditions, however, are said to be exceptionally promising.

Marble, lime and salt are found and worked in small quantities. Iron ore is said to exist in large quantities, but coal has not been found. Copper manganese and other minerals exist, but the mineral resources are practically unexplored.

The principal exports are oranges, hides, tobacco, yerba maté, timber, dried meat, meat extracts, and quebracho extract. The imports are textiles, hardware, wines, foodstuffs, fancy goods, drugs and clothing. The principal sources of revenue are import and export duties, land tax, stamps, stamped paper and sundry internal taxes.

Finance.—The last annual budget was in the neighborhood of $5,000,000. The standard of value is the gold peso, equal to $1.00 in United States currency, with a paper peso in circulation whose value has depreciated to almost nothing. The latest figures for the foreign debt placed it at about $5,500,000, with an internal debt of some $2,750,000, not including the paper currency.

A recent cattle census showed 5,250,000 cattle, 600,000 sheep, 478,000 horses, 17,000 mules, 18,000 asses, 61,000 pigs and 87,000 goats. There are seven sugar refineries in Paraguay, the last annual sugar production being 1,700 tons.

The actual value of the goods exported annually is about $12,000,000, with about

$10,000,000 for the imports. In the last calendar year, the United States exported to Uruguay goods valued at $1,813,798 and imported from Uruguay goods valued at $1,179,992. The chief export from the United States was sugar.

Communications.—The main port is the capital, Asuncion. In a recent year, it was visited by some 3,705 vessels, representing a tonnage of 415,000. There is a railway from Asuncion to Encarnacion, a distance of 232 miles, affording through train service between Asuncion and Buenos Ayres. There are several smaller railroads under construction and in contemplation. There are practically no good roads and transport is difficult and costly. There are 64 telegraph offices, with 2,050 miles of line, and some 400 post-offices.

Cities.—The population of Asuncion is more than 100,000. Other towns are Villarrica, 26,000; Concepcion, 15,000; Carapegua, 15,000; Luque, 15,000; Encarnacion, 12,500.

Paraguay:
Affairs in, referred to, 4069.
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Delayed, 2914.
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War with Brazil—
Good offices of United States tendered, 3776, 3883.
Referred to, 4078.
Paraguay Expedition. (See illustration opposite page 2428.)

Paraguay, Treaties with.—A treaty of friendship, commerce, and navigation was concluded in 1859. Concessions to the United States include free navigation of the Paraguay River as far as the boundaries of Brazil and of the right side of the Parana in the dominions of Paraguay on like terms as are conferred upon other nations; vessels may discharge all or part of the cargo at the ports of Pilar or may proceed to Asuncion. Rights and concessions enjoyed by other nations are conferred and shall accrue to the United States. Equitable imposition of charges, tolls, and fees; freedom of importation and exportation is equally enjoyed by the United States and Paraguayan vessels.

The rights of citizens of the United States to conduct trade, commerce, and to follow trades, vocations, and professions, in Paraguay are equal to those of subjects of Paraguay. The transfer and holding of property, succession to real or personal property by will or otherwise and free and open access to courts of justice are secured to citizens of the United States. The consular office may act as executors or administrators of estates.

No military exactions of service or forced loans or contributions other than those to which all subjects of Paraguay are lawfully subject shall be imposed. Consular appointment is provided for as in consular conventions. In the event of war it is agreed that citizens of each country residing or doing business within the confines of the other shall suffer no injustice, persecution, or spoliation and shall be free to continue in business or to close out as they may elect; nor shall debts, stocks, or interest be sequestered or detained. Religious freedom is secured to citizens or subjects in the dominions of the other contracting party.

International arbitration on the lines laid down by The Hague Convention of 1899 was agreed to by a treaty signed at Asuncion March 13, 1909.

Paraguay also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Parcel Post.—The agitation for a parcel post in the United States dates back to 1875 at least.

In 1907 Postmaster-General Meyer advocated the establishment of a general and a local parcel post system. His plan for the general parcel post he described as follows: "The present rate for the transmission of fourth-class matter through the mails is 16 cents a pound, and the limit of weight is four pounds. Under our postal treaties the rate from any American post office to 29 foreign countries is 12 cents a pound, and the limit of weight to twenty-four of these countries is eleven pounds. The Department has simply recommended that our citizens be permitted to dispatch parcels to each other, in our own country, at as liberal a rate as that at which they are allowed to send them to a foreign country.

"The general parcels post system is in operation in Great Britain, New Zealand, Australia, Germany, Austria, France, Belgium, Italy, Holland, Chile and Cuba. The weight limit in each case (with the exceptions of Austria and Belgium) is eleven pounds. In England 26 cents will mail an eleven-pound package, the rate being 6 cents for the first pound and 2 cents for each additional pound. Germany has scheduled its rates by zones; thus all

packages conveyed not more than 10 miles are charged 6 cents, and for greater distances they are charged 13 cents, and when the parcels exceed 12 pounds, the rates are for each additional 2 pounds carried 10 miles, 2 cents; 20 miles, 3 cents; 50 miles, 5 cents; 100 miles, 8 cents. The weight limits in Austria and Belgium are, respectively, 143 and 132 pounds."

Postmaster-General Hitchcock, in December, 1910, recommended the establishment of a general parcel post throughout the country "as soon as the postal savings system is thoroughly organized." As the preliminary step he hoped that Congress would authorize the local parcel post, which, he said, would entail little if any additional expense, and which, if successful, might lead to the general one. However, he urged Congress to appropriate a fund for further investigation of the cost and possibilities of the general system at the time when it authorizes the local parcel post.

In accordance with an act of the Sixty-second Congress a parcel post system was inaugurated Jan. 1, 1913.

The limit of weight for parcels of fourth-class matter for delivery within the first and second zones was extended by act of Dec. 6, 1913, to fifty pounds, and delivery in other than the first and second zones was fixed at twenty pounds. By 1920, the limit had been raised to seventy pounds for the first three zones and to fifty pounds for the last five zones. The limit of size had been raised to eighty-four inches in length and girth combined. (The greatest distance between its ends is taken as the length, and the distance around the parcel at its thickest part is taken as its girth. Thus a parcel 35 inches long, 12 inches wide and 5 inches high measures 69 inches in length and girth combined.)

All parcel post matter must bear the name and address of the sender. It cannot be registered. Parcel post matter must also be unsealed. The special delivery fee is ten cents.

Parcels weighing 4 ounces or less, except books, seeds, plants, etc., are sent at the rate of one cent for each ounce or fraction of an ounce, regardless of distance. Parcels weighing 8 ounces or less, and containing books, seeds, plants, etc., are sent at the rate of one cent for each two ounces or fraction thereof, regardless of distance.

Insurance and C. O. D.—Fourth-class domestic mail (parcel post) may be insured against loss, rifling, or damage in an amount equivalent to its actual value or the cost of repairs, but not to exceed $5 upon payment of a fee of three cents, $25 upon payment of five cents, $50 upon payment of ten cents, or $100 upon payment of twenty-five cents, in addition to the postage, but indemnity will not be allowed for the loss of such mail addressed to the Philippine Islands, unless the loss occurred in the postal service of the United States. Such mail may be sent C. O. D. between domestic money-order offices upon payment of a fee of ten cents in stamps affixed to the parcel when the amount to be remitted does not exceed $50, and upon payment of a twenty-five cent fee in stamps when the amount to be remitted does not exceed $100. Parcels cannot be sent C. O. D. to the Philippine Islands or foreign countries. C. O. D. parcels are automatically insured, by the payment of the C. O. D. fee, for their value up to $50 and $100, respectively, according to the fee paid.

Alaska, Hawaiian and Philippine Islands, etc.—The eighth zone rate of 12 cents for each pound or fraction thereof on all parcels weighing more than 4 ounces (except books, seeds, cuttings, bulbs, roots, scions, and plants, weighing 8 ounces or less) applies (1) between the United States and the Hawaiian Islands; (2) between the United States and its postal agency at Shanghai, China; (3) between any two points in Alaska and between any point in Alaska and any other point in the United States; (4) between the United States and the Canal Zone; (5) between the United States and the Philippine Islands; (6) to, from, or between Guam, Tutuila, and Manua and other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171 degrees west of Greenwich, and the United States and its other possessions; (7) between the United States and its naval vessels stationed in foreign waters; (8) between the United States and its Expeditionary Forces in Europe and Siberia.

Canada, Cuba, Mexico and Republic of Panama.—Twelve cents for each pound or fraction thereof also applies to fourth-class matter, including seeds, cuttings, bulbs, roots, scions, and plants (but excepting books and other printed matter on which the rate is 1 cent for each 2 ounces or fraction thereof in all cases), weighing more than 4 ounces and not exceeding 4 pounds, 6 ounces, when mailed to Canada, Mexico, Cuba, and the Republic of Panama. (Parcels weighing up to 20 pounds may be sent to Mexico and the Republic of Panama as foreign parcel post mail under the parcel post conventions with those countries.)

Packages of merchandise that weigh over 4 ounces and not over 4 pounds, 6 ounces, may be sent to Canada, Cuba, Mexico, and the Republic of Panama, at the eighth zone rate of postage (12 cents for each pound or fraction thereof). Parcels for Cuba, Mexico, and the Republic of Panama must be accompanied by customs declarations regardless of their weight. Packages of merchandise weighing not more than 4 ounces may be mailed, at the postage rate of 1 cent for each ounce or fraction of an ounce, to Canada, Cuba, Mexico, and the Republic of Panama. Customs declarations are required on such parcels of merchandise of 4 ounces or less to Mexico and the Republic of Panama. Packages of merchandise cannot be insured or sent C. O. D., but may be registered for Canada, Cuba, Mexico and the Republic of Panama. Mailable merchandise for Mexico and the Republic of Panama, at the option of the sender, may also be sent by international parcel post if it conforms to the requirements.

List of Articles Included in Fourth-Class Matter.—Albums, photograph and autograph, blank; artificial flowers; bees, when packed as prescribed; bill heads; blank address tags and labels; blank books, blank book with printed headings, blank cards or paper, blank diaries, and blank post and postal cards; blotting paper, blank; books; botanical specimens; bulbs; calendar pads, mainly blank; calendars or other matter printed on celluloid; card coin-holders, not printed; cards, blank; cards, printed playing, of all kinds; catalogues (in the form of books); celluloid, printed or unprinted; check books; Christmas and Easter cards printed on other material than paper; coin; combination calendar and memorandum pads, mainly blank; crayon pictures; cut flowers; cuts, wood or metal; dissected maps and pictures; drawings, framed or unframed; dried fruit; Easter cards, when printed on other material than paper; electrotype plates; engravings, when framed; envelopes, printed or unprinted, except when addressed and inclosed singly with third-class matter; flowers, cut or artificial; forms, order, legal, etc., mainly blank;

Weight in pounds	Local*	Zones							
		1st Up to 50 miles	2d 50 to 150 miles	3d 150 to 300 miles	4th 300 to 600 miles	5th 600 to 1,000 miles	6th 1,000 to 1,400 miles	7th 1,400 to 1,800 miles	8th Over 1,800 miles
1	$0.05	$0.05	$0.05	$0.06	$0.07	$0.08	$0.09	$0.11	$0.12
2	.06	.06	.06	.08	.11	.14	.17	.21	.24
3	.06	.07	.07	.10	.15	.20	.25	.31	.36
4	.07	.08	.08	.12	.19	.26	.33	.41	.48
5	.07	.09	.09	.14	.23	.32	.41	.51	.60
6	.08	.10	.10	.16	.27	.38	.49	.61	.72
7	.08	.11	.11	.18	.31	.44	.57	.71	.84
8	.09	.12	.12	.20	.35	.50	.65	.81	.96
9	.09	.13	.13	.22	.39	.56	.73	.91	1.08
10	.10	.14	.14	.24	.43	.62	.81	1.01	1.20
11	.10	.15	.15	.26	.47	.68	.89	1.11	1.32
12	.11	.16	.16	.28	.51	.74	.97	1.21	1.44
13	.11	.17	.17	.30	.55	.80	1.05	1.31	1.56
14	.12	.18	.18	.32	.59	.86	1.13	1.41	1.68
15	.12	.19	.19	.34	.63	.92	1.21	1.51	1.80
16	.13	.20	.20	.36	.67	.98	1.29	1.61	1.92
17	.13	.21	.21	.38	.71	1.04	1.37	1.71	2.04
18	.14	.22	.22	.40	.75	1.10	1.45	1.81	2.16
19	.14	.23	.23	.42	.79	1.16	1.53	1.91	2.28
20	.15	.24	.24	.44	.83	1.22	1.61	2.01	2.40
21	.15	.25	.25	.46	.87	1.28	1.69	2.11	2.52
22	.16	.26	.26	.48	.91	1.34	1.77	2.21	2.64
23	.16	.27	.27	.50	.95	1.40	1.85	2.31	2.76
24	.17	.28	.28	.52	.99	1.46	1.93	2.41	2.88
25	.17	.29	.29	.54	1.03	1.52	2.01	2.51	3.00
26	.18	.30	.30	.56	1.07	1.58	2.09	2.61	3.12
27	.18	.31	.31	.58	1.11	1.64	2.17	2.71	3.24
28	.19	.32	.32	.60	1.15	1.70	2.25	2.81	3.36
29	.19	.33	.33	.62	1.19	1.76	2.33	2.91	3.48
30	.20	.34	.34	.64	1.23	1.82	2.41	3.01	3.60
31	.20	.35	.35	.66	1.27	1.88	2.49	3.11	3.72
32	.21	.36	.36	.68	1.31	1.94	2.57	3.21	3.84
33	.21	.37	.37	.70	1.35	2.00	2.65	3.31	3.96
34	.22	.38	.38	.72	1.39	2.06	2.73	3.41	4.08
35	.22	.39	.39	.74	1.43	2.12	2.81	3.51	4.20
36	.23	.40	.40	.76	1.47	2.18	2.89	3.61	4.32
37	.23	.41	.41	.78	1.51	2.24	2.97	3.71	4.44
38	.24	.42	.42	.80	1.55	2.30	3.05	3.81	4.56
39	.24	.43	.43	.82	1.59	2.36	3.13	3.91	4.68
40	.25	.44	.44	.84	1.63	2.42	3.21	4.01	4.80
41	.25	.45	.45	.86	1.67	2.48	3.29	4.11	4.92
42	.26	.46	.46	.88	1.71	2.54	3.37	4.21	5.04
43	.26	.47	.47	.90	1.75	2.60	3.45	4.31	5.16
44	.27	.48	.48	.92	1.79	2.66	3.53	4.41	5.28
45	.27	.49	.49	.94	1.83	2.72	3.61	4.51	5.40
46	.28	.50	.50	.96	1.87	2.78	3.69	4.61	5.52
47	.28	.51	.51	.98	1.91	2.84	3.77	4.71	5.64
48	.29	.52	.52	1.00	1.95	2.90	3.85	4.81	6.76
49	.29	.53	.53	1.02	1.99	2.96	3.93	4.91	5.88
50	.30	.54	.54	1.04	2.03	3.02	4.01	5.01	6.00
51	.30	.55	.55	1.06					
52	.31	.56	.56	1.08					
53	.31	.57	.57	1.10					
54	.32	.58	.58	1.12					
55	.32	.59	.59	1.14					
56	.33	.60	.60	1.16					
57	.33	.61	.61	1 18					
58	.34	.62	.62	1.20					
59	.34	.63	.63	1.22					
60	.35	.64	.64	1.24					
61	.35	.65	.65	1.26					
62	.36	.66	.66	1.28					
63	.36	.67	.67	1.30					
64	.37	.68	.68	1.32					
65	.37	.69	.69	1.34					
66	.38	.70	.70	1.36					
67	.38	.71	.71	1.38					
68	.39	.72	.72	1.40					
69	.39	.73	.73	1.42					
70	.40	.74	.74	1.44					

* The local rate applies to parcels mailed under the following conditions: 1. At any post office for local delivery at such office. 2. At any city letter carrier office, or at any point within its delivery limits, for delivery by carriers from that office. 3. At any post office from which a rural route starts, for delivery on such route, or when mailed at any point on a rural route for delivery at any other point thereon, or at the office from which the route starts, or for delivery on any other rural route starting from the same office.

framed engravings, pictures and other printed matter; game; geological specimens; grain; letter-heads; maps, printed on cloth; meat and food products; merchandise samples; memorandum books; merchandise, sealed proprietary articles, put up and labeled in printing as prescribed; metals and minerals; napkins, paper or cloth, printed or unprinted; oil paintings, framed or unframed; order blanks and report forms, mainly blank (spaces covered by ruled lines being regarded as blank), are fourth-class matter; however, one copy may be inclosed with third-class matter mailed at the rate for that class; paper bags and wrapping paper, printed or unprinted; patent medicines; patterns, printed or unprinted; pen or pencil drawings; photograph albums; photographic negatives and kodak films; plants and plant products; postal and post cards, mainly blank; printed matter, miscellaneous, when mailed in parcels weighing more than four pounds; printed matter having samples of merchandise permanently attached covering 20 per cent, or more of the space; printed matter on other material than paper; roots; rulers, wooden or metal, including those bearing printed advertisements; samples of cloth; samples of flour or other manufactured grain; scions; sealed packages of proprietary articles of merchandise put up and labeled in printing as prescribed; seeds; soap; soap wrappers, complete (printed coupons cut from such wrappers are third-class matter); stationery; tags, blank; tape measures; tintypes; tobacco; Valentines printed on material other than paper; wall paper; water color painting; wrapping paper, printed or unprinted.

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  - Persons entitled to benefits of, defined, 3419.
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  - Foreigners on condition of emigration to United States discussed, 3653.
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- Political disabilities, removal of, recommended, 4107, 4209.
- Queen of Spain grants, to American citizens, 2689, 2692.
- Sentences of deserters condemned to death commuted, 3434.

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Paris, Declaration of.—In the treaty of Paris, which was concluded March 30, 1856, between Russia and Turkey, Great Britain, France, and Sardinia, the following declarations with regard to the conduct of war were subscribed to by all the parties to the treaty and have since been accepted by nearly all civilized nations: First, Privateering is and remains abolished. Second, Neutral goods in enemies' ships, enemies' goods in neutral ships, except contraband of war, are not liable to capture. Third, Paper blockades are unlawful. The United States refused to agree to this declaration on account of the clause doing away with privateers, as the country was compelled to rely largely upon such service in naval warfare. This refusal cost it heavily in the Civil War, although it was willing to subscribe to the declaration in 1861. In 1871 the declaration was censured by the British Parliament.

Paris, France:
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Paris, Monetary Conferences at.—There have been three important international monetary conferences held in Paris. The first assembled June 17, 1867, at the solicitation of France, to "consider the question of uniformity of coinage and seek for the basis of ulterior negotiations." The United States sent representatives, as did also nearly every European nation. The conference adjourned after about a month without having arrived at any definite conclusion.

August 16, 1878, a second international monetary conference convened at Paris, this time at the instance of the United States, "to adopt a common ratio between gold and silver for the purpose of establishing internationally the use of bimetallic money and securing fixity of relative value between those metals." The collective decision of the European delegates was that this would be impossible, monetary questions being governed by the special situation of each State or group of States. With this as the final conclusion the conference adjourned August 29.

The conference of April 8, 1881, assembled at the call of France and the United States to adopt a permanent relative value between gold and silver, but adjourned July 8 without arriving at any agreement. (See also Brussels, Belgium; Paris, France.)

Paris, Treaties of.—Paris has been the scene of numerous important diplomatic conferences, both between France and other powers and between neighboring nations, who found hospitable neutral ground of the French capital.

Among the most important of treaties of Paris is that of Feb. 10, 1763, between Great Britain on one side, and France, Spain, and Portugal on the other. France ceded to Great Britain Canada, Prince Edward Island, Cape Breton, Mobile, all the territory east of the Mississippi, Dominica, Tobago, St. Vincent and Granada. England restored to France Guadeloupe, Martinique, St. Pierre, Miquelon and Pondicherry, and ceded St. Lucia to her. Spain ceded Florida to Great Britain, England restored Havana to Spain, and France ceded Louisiana to Spain.

The treaty of Paris of 1782-83 between Great Britain on one side and France, Spain, and the United States on the other, was arranged in 1782 and formally ratified Sept. 3, 1783. John Jay, John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, and Henry Laurens formed the American commission. The absolute independence of the United States was recognized; Florida and Minorca were returned to Spain; navigation of the Mississippi was made free to both Spain and the United States; the Americans relinquished their pretensions to the territory north of Lake Erie; the St. Lawrence River system from the western end of Lake Superior to the forty-fifth parallel was made the boundary between the United States and the British possessions (from the forty-fifth parallel to the sea the boundary followed the highlands after an uncertain fashion and was long a matter of dispute); loyalists and tories were to be protected in America; English troops were to be withdrawn without destroying any property or taking away any negro slaves belonging to Americans; the right of fishing on the Canadian and Newfoundland coasts was granted to Americans. The portion of the treaty which directly affected America was signed at Paris, but that between Great Britain, France, and Spain was signed at Versailles, by which name the entire treaty is sometimes called.

At Versailles the region of Senegal was granted to France and neutral restitution of conquests in the West Indies was made.

In 1908 commissioners were appointed by the Governments of the United States and Spain to meet at Paris and frame a treaty of peace in accordance with the terms of the protocol signed Aug. 12, 1898. The commissioners began their sessions Oct. 1 and ended with the signing of a treaty of peace, Dec. 10. (See also Treaties with the various countries.)

The Peace Conference which met at the close of the World War held its sessions in Paris, but the peace treaty arising from its deliberations was signed at Versailles, so that it is called the Treaty of Versailles. (See World War and Peace Conference at Paris.) The treaty between the Allies and Austria-Hungary after the War is known as the Treaty of St. Germain.

Paris Tribunal of Arbitration:

Acts to give effect to award of, proclaimed, 5926, 6123.
Award of, discussed, recommendations regarding, 5958, 6062.
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Failure of negotiations of, to protect fur seals of Alaska, 6182.
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Parks, Municipal.—Practically all of the cities in the United States having a population above 30,000 contain areas set apart by the municipalities as public parks. In 1916, there were 3,857 such, of the area of 183 square miles. Washington, D. C. has the greatest number of parks, 417, but the largest park area, about twelve square miles, lies in New York City. Philadelphia contains 5,500 acres of public parks, Los Angeles, 4,127; Chicago, 3,815; Denver, 3,719; Washington, 3,067; Minneapolis, 3,038. The largest single park is Fairmount Park, Philadelphia.

Parks in cities are as old as civilization itself. Ancient records of Egypt, Assyria, Persia all indicate that parks and gardens occupied a prominent place in the physical development of cities, although it may well be doubted if they were available to any except the upper classes; whereas the public places in Greece are famous as the seat of the education of the time and those of Rome became renowned as meeting-places, or fora,

of citizens for public discussion. In the Middle Ages, there was little interest in parks, but the re-birth of interest in art which we call the Renaissance led to the foundation of many of the notable parks of today. In many European cities, especially Paris and Vienna, parks were established on the sites of abandoned city walls, military camps and training grounds, and chateaux.

In the United States, the establishment of the first considerable municipal park dates with the establishment of Central Park (2½ miles by ½) in New York City in 1857, although the commons of New England towns must be considered our first city parks.

Parks, National.—On occasions, Congress has set aside certain territory because of its picturesqueness or historic associations. Most of this territory enjoys the status of National Parks, although much of it also is known as National Monuments (q. v.). In addition, many of the famous battlefields of the Civil War, such as those of Gettysburg, Chickamauga, Shiloh, Vicksburg (see Cemeteries, National) have been set aside as Governmental reservations.

The first national park was created at Hot Springs, Arkansas, in 1832. Yellowstone Park was set aside as a national park in 1872, Yosemite in 1890, Glacier in 1910 and Mount McKinley in 1917. There are at the present time 19 national parks, with a total area of 10,859 square miles.

The national parks and reservations mentioned below are under the supervision of the Secretary of the Interior. General information, the annual administrative reports, copies of the rules and regulations, and compilations of the laws relating to the parks may be obtained from the Secretary of the Interior or from the superintendents of the parks.

Yellowstone National Park is in Wyoming, Montana, and Idaho, and has an area of 2,142,720 acres. The superintendent's address is Yellowstone Park, Wyoming. The park can be reached by the following railroads: Northern Pacific Railroad to Gardiner, the northern entrance, via Livingston, Mont.; Oregon Short Line Railroad to Yellowstone, Mont., the western entrance; Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad to Cody, Wyo., from which the eastern entrance to the park is accessible. Stage and private transportation connections for the reservation are made at all these points. The tourist season extends from June 1 to Sept. 15, but accommodations are furnished at Mammoth Hot Springs the entire year.

Yosemite National Park, California, including the Yosemite Valley and Mariposa Big Tree Grove, embraces an area of 719,622 acres. The superintendent's address is Yosemite, Cal. The park can be reached from Merced on the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé and the Southern Pacific railroads, by way of Yosemite Valley Railroad, which runs to the western boundary, and by connections of the same roads to Raymond, on the southwest; stage lines run from the terminus of the Yosemite Valley Railroad and from Raymond to Yosemite Valley within the park.

Glacier National Park, Montana, has an area of approximately 915,000 acres, of which 15,000 acres have been surveyed. Within the limits stated there are 250 lakes, ranging from ten miles to a few hundred feet in extent. There are more than sixty glaciers between five square miles and a few acres in area. There are wild animals, plants, and rocks in numbers and quantity to satisfy the most ardent student, and views of great variety, beauty and grandeur to gratify the artist and the lover of nature. The park can be reached via the Great Northern Railway.

Mount Rainier National Park, Washington, has an area of 207,360 acres. The superintendent's address is Ashford, Wash. The park is reached by stage or private transportation from Ashford, Wash., on the Tacoma Eastern Railroad, and by trail from Fairfax, on the Northern Pacific Railroad. The tourist season extends from June 15 to Sept. 15.

Sequoia National Park, California, has an area of 161,597 acres. The address of the superintendent is Ranger, Cal., during the tourist months (June 1 to Sept. 15) and Three Rivers, Cal., the balance of the year. This park may be reached from Visalia, on the Southern Pacific and the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé railroads by way of the Visalia Electric Railroad Company to Lemon Cove, thence by stage or private conveyance.

General Grant National Park, California, has an area of 2,536 acres. This reservation is administered jointly with Sequoia National Park, and the tourist season extends from June 1 to Sept. 15. The address of the superintendent is given above. The park may be reached by stage and private conveyance from Sanger, on the Southern Pacific Railroad.

Crater Lake National Park, Oregon, has an area of 159,360 acres. The address of the superintendent during the tourist months (June 15 to Sept. 30) is Crater Lake, Ore., and during the balance of the year Klamath Falls, Ore. This park may be reached by steamer line and stage from Klamath Falls, Ore, or by private conveyance from Medford, on the Southern Pacific.

Wind Cave National Park, South Dakota, contains 10,522 acres. The superintendent's address is Wind Cave, S. Dak. This park may be reached by private conveyance from Hot Springs, on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy and the Chicago and Northwestern railroads, or by similar conveyance from Custer, on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad. The reservation is open to tourists the entire year.

Sullys Hill Park, North Dakota, on the shore of Devil's Lake, has an area of 780 acres. The address of the superintendent is Fort Totten, N. Dak. Devil's Lake, Narrows, and Tokio, on the Great Northern Railroad, are close to the park, and from these points the reservation can be approached by wagon, or by boat (private conveyance).

Platt National Park, at Sulphur, Oklahoma, has an area of 848.22 acres. Sulphur is the post-office address of the superintendent. The town is accessible by the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé and the St. Louis and San Francisco railroads. The park, which is open to tourists the entire year, is within walking or riding distance of the railroads.

Mesa Verde National Park, Colorado, has an area of 42,376 acres, and the five-mile strip under the park jurisdiction for the protection of ruins, which abuts the park, contains 175,360 acres. The address of the superintendent is Mancos, Col., the nearest railroad station, on the Rio Grande Southern Railroad. This station is about twenty-five miles from the ruins, which may be reached only by horseback or afoot.

Casa Grande Ruin, Arizona, a reservation, has an area of 480 acres. The nearest railroad station is Casa Grande, on the Southern Pacific Railroad. It may also be reached by private conveyance from Flor-

ence, Ariz., on the Phœnix and Eastern Railroad. The address of the custodian is Florence. The Mesa Verde National Park and the Casa Grande Reservation were set aside to protect the instructive prehistoric ruins and other objects of antiquity which they contain. These ruins are being excavated and repaired and are open for the inspection of visitors. Reports on the repair of such ruins have been issued by the Department of the Interior, and more detailed accounts are distributed by the Bureau of American Ethnology, Smithsonian Institution.

Hot Springs Reservation, Arkansas (the permanent reservation), has an area of 911.63 acres. Eleven bathhouses on the reservation and thirteen in the city of Hot Springs, as well as several hotels operated in connection with bathhouses, receive hot water from the springs, under lease with the Secretary of the Interior. The address of the superintendent is Hot Springs, Ark.

Rocky Mountain National Park, created by the act of Jan. 26, 1915, is in Colorado, about 45 miles in an air line northwest of Denver. It has an area of approximately 229,000 acres, and is on both sides of the Continental Divide in the neighborhood of Long's Peak. The park may be reached from Lyons, on the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railroad; from Loveland, on the Colorado and Southern Railroad, and from Granby, on the Denver and Salt Lake Railroad.

Lassen Volcanic National Park, the bill creating which President Wilson signed in August, 1916, is California's fourth national park. Lassen Peak, which showed volcanic activity only a few years ago, was set apart as a national monument in 1906. Cinder Cone, in its immediate neighborhood was also thus distinguished at the same time. The park, which has an area of 124 square miles, contains also hot springs and mud geysers.

Hawaiian National Park, in the territory of Hawaii, was established on August 1, 1916, and has an area of 75,295 square miles. It contains three famous active volcanoes, a remarkable lake of lava and vast tropical forests.

Mount McKinley National Park, in South Central Alaska, with an area of 2,200 square miles, includes the highest mountain in North America.

Grand Canyon National Park, in north central Arizona, with a total area of 958 square miles, contains the famous canyon of the Colorado, the most magnificent example of erosion in the world.

Lafayette National Park, eight square miles of the Maine coast, contains a group of granite mountains on Mount Desert Island.

Zion National Park, in southwestern Utah, with an area of 120 square miles, contains Zion Canyon.

On August 25, 1916, a law went into effect which created the National Park Service in the Department of the Interior to supervise and manage the national parks. At the head is the Director of the Service, appointed by the Secretary of the Interior.

In a recent year, the National Parks were visited by 755,325 persons, as compared with 198,606 in 1910 and 335,000 in 1915, the year of the Pacific expositions.

The seven national military parks under the administration of the Secretary of War are at Chickamauga and Chattanooga, Georgia and Tennessee; Shiloh, Tenn.; Gettysburg, Pa.; Vicksburg, Miss.; Antietam Battlefield, Md.; Lincoln Birthplace, Ky.; Guilford Court House, N. C.

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Passport.—A document issued by competent civil authority, granting permission to the person specified in it to travel or authenticating his right to protection. In some nations no person is allowed to leave the country without a passport from his government; but the regulations of the different jurisdictions regarding the use of passports have greatly varied and of late years have exhibited a tendency toward a relaxation of stringency, extending in many countries to their total abolition. Passports of the United States, which are given under the seal of the Secretary of State, request that the person named therein be permitted to pass freely and safely, and in case of need that aid and protection be afforded him.

The extent to which an American passport held by a naturalized citizen of this country is recognized in his native land, depends principally upon whether that country has concluded a treaty of naturalization with the United States, although, under the law of this country, no distinction is made between native and naturalized American citizens so far as their right to protection is concerned. The United States has treaties of naturalization with the following European countries: Austria-Hungary, Belgium, Denmark, the German States, Great Britain, Norway, and Sweden.

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Patents.—Literally, open letters. In England the word is applied to all licenses and authorities granted by the Crown. Patents for titles of nobility were first granted by Edward III. in 1334. The earliest patent for the exclusive privilege of printing books was granted in 1591. The property right of inventors and discoverers to their arts and manufactures was first secured by letters patent by an act passed in 1623. In the United States a patent is generally understood to mean the right to the exclusive use for a limited number of years, of a new or useful invention or discovery by the inventor or discoverer or his heirs or assigns. A few patents had been issued by the states. In 1790 the first patent law was passed by the General Government, and granted letters patent for fourteen years to both citizens and foreigners. Application had formerly to be made to the Secretaries of War and State and the Attorney-General. In 1793 an act was passed permitting the issue of patents to citizens only and requiring a fee of $30. The states were not permitted to issue patents. This was decided in the case of Gibbons *vs.* Ogden (q. v.), from New York. In 1836 the patent laws were revised and the present patent system in this country may be said to date from that year. One of the most important changes then introduced was the regulation requiring a preliminary examination of the novelty and patentability of an invention. In 1839 an inventor was given the right to use his invention before applying for a patent, but such use was limited to two years. Under the law of 1842 patents were granted for a term of seven years; the term was subsequently extended to fourteen years, and finally in 1861 the present seventeen-year term was granted. The patent laws were revised in 1870 and patents were allowed to all persons, both citizens and foreigners, who could prove the novelty and usefulness of their inventions. The salient features of the patent laws of to-day, however, are still those of the law of 1836. The number of patents granted annually is about 30,000. Since the yea 1836, no less than 885,635 patents have been issued by the United States, while the combined total of foreign countries amounts to 1,863,836. (See also Department of the Interior.)

Patents are issued in the name of the United States, and under the seal of the Patent Office, to any person who has invented or discovered any new and useful art, machine, manufacture, or composition of matter or any new and useful improvement thereof, or any new original and ornamental design for an article of manufacture, not known or used by others in this country before his invention or discovery thereof, and not patented or described in any printed publication in this or any foreign country, before his invention or discovery thereof or more than two years prior to his application, and not in public use or on sale in the United States for more than two years prior to his application, unless the same is proved to have been abandoned, upon payment of the fees required by law and other due proceedings had.

Every patent contains a grant to the patentee, his heirs or assigns, for the term

of seventeen years, except in the case of design patents, of the exclusive right to make, use, and vend the invention or discovery throughout the United States and the territories, referring to the specification for the particulars thereof.

If it appear that the inventor, at the time of making his application, believed himself to be the first inventor or discoverer, a patent will not be refused on account of the invention or discovery, or any part thereof, having been known or used in any foreign country before his invention or discovery thereof, if it had not been before patented or described in any printed publication.

Joint inventors are entitled to a joint patent; neither can claim one separately. Independent inventors of distinct and independent improvements in the same machine cannot obtain a joint patent for their separate inventions; nor does the fact that one furnishes the capital and another makes the invention entitle them to make application as joint inventors; but in such case they may become joint patentees by means of a deed of assignment.

No person otherwise entitled thereto will be debarred from receiving a patent for his invention or discovery, by reason of its having been first patented or caused to be patented by the inventor or his legal representatives or assigns in a foreign country, unless the application for said foreign patent was filed more than twelve months prior to the filing of the application in this country, and four months in cases of designs, in which case no patent shall be granted in this country.

If an inventor wishes to file an application for patent, a copy of the Rules of Practice, containing forms and instructions, will be sent upon request. It is advisable, in every case, that the services of a competent registered patent attorney be secured, as the value of patents depends largely upon the skilful preparation of the specification and claims.

Applications for a patent must be made in writing to the Commissioner of Patents. The applicant must also file in the Patent Office a written description of the invention or discovery, and of the manner and process of making, constructing, compounding, and using it, in such full, clear, concise, and exact terms as to enable any person skilled in the art or science to which it appertains, or with which it is most nearly connected, to make, construct, compound, and use the same; and in case of a machine, he must explain the principle thereof, and the best mode in which he has contemplated, applying that principle, so as to distinguish it from other inventions, and particularly point out and distinctly claim the part, improvement, or combination which he claims as his invention or discovery. The specification and claim must be signed by the inventor and attested by two witnesses.

When the nature of the case admits of drawings, the applicant must furnish a drawing of the required size, signed by the inventor or his attorney in fact, and attested by two witnesses. The applicant, if required by the Patent Office, shall furnish a model of convenient size to exhibit advantageously the several parts of his invention or discovery, but a model should not be sent unless first called for by the Patent Office.

The applicant shall make oath that he verily believes himself to be the original and first inventor or discoverer of the art, machine, manufacture, composition, or improvement for which he solicits a patent; that he does not know and does not believe that the same was ever before known or used, and shall state of what country he is a citizen and where he resides, and whether he is the sole or joint inventor of the invention claimed in his application. In every original application the applicant must distinctly state under oath that the invention has not been patented to himself or to others with his knowledge or consent in this or any foreign country for more than two years prior to his application, or on an application for a patent filed in any foreign country by himself or his legal representatives or assigns more than twelve months prior to his application in this country, or four months in cases of designs. If any application for patent has been filed in any foreign country by the applicant in this country or by his legal representatives or assigns, prior to his application in this country, he shall state the country or countries in which such application has been filed, giving the date of such application, and shall also state that no application has been filed in any other country or countries than those mentioned; that to the best of his knowledge and belief the invention has not been in public use or on sale in the United States nor described in any printed publication or patent in this or any foreign country for more than two years prior to his application in this country.

Every patent or any interest therein shall be assignable in law by an instrument in writing; and the patentee or his assigns or legal representatives may, in like manner, grant and convey an exclusive right under his patent to the whole or any specified part of the United States.

A reissue is granted to the original patentee, his legal representatives, or the assignees of the entire interest when, by reason of a defective or insufficient specification, or by reason of the patentee claiming as his invention or discovery more than he had a right to claim as new, the original patent is inoperative or invalid, provided the error has arisen from inadvertence, accident, or mistake, and without any fraudulent or deceptive intention. Reissue applications must be made and the specifications sworn to by the inventors, if they be living.

Fees must be paid in advance, and are as follows: On filing each original application for a patent, $15. On issuing each original patent, $20. In design cases: For three years and six months, $10; for seven years, $15; for fourteen years, $30. On every application for the reissue of a patent, $30. On filing each disclaimer, $10. For certified copies of patents and other papers in manuscript, ten cents per hundred words and twenty-five cents for the certificate; for certified copies of printed patents, eighty cents. For uncertified printed copies of specifications and drawings of patents, five cents each. For recording every assignment, agreement, power of attorney, or other paper, of three hundred words or under, $1; of over three hundred and under one thousand words, $2; for each additional thousand words, or fraction thereof, $1. For copies of drawings, the reasonable cost of making them. The Patent Office is prepared to furnish positive photographic copies of the drawings of pending patented or abandoned cases, in sizes and at rates as follows: Large size, 10x15 inches, twenty-five cents; medium size, 8x12½ inches, fifteen cents. Negative photographic copies of specifications and drawings of foreign patents, or of any page or part of page of any printed publication in the possession of the office, will be fur-

nished on paper 7x11 inches, for fifteen cents per sheet. Fee for examining and registering trade-mark, $10, which includes certificate. Stamps cannot be accepted by the Patent Office in payment of fees.

There is now no law permitting the filing of a caveat, the old law having been repealed July 1, 1910. Patent No. 1,000,000 was granted August 8, 1911, to F. H. Holton, of Akron, O., for an automobile tire.

In the most recent year for which figures are available, 80,400 applications were filed with the Pension Office. There were issued 38,958 patents, of which 1,523 were designs and 203 were reissues; 4,208 trade-marks; 520 labels; 146 prints. The Census Office received the sum of $2,417,072. The highest number of patents granted was in the same year (45,927). The total number of patents granted by the United States is more than 1,350,000 with more than 55,000 designs, 15,000 reissues, 130,000 trade marks and 22,000 labels.

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Societies of Spanish War Veterans.
Societies of the Union Army of 1861-65.
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Patrons of Husbandry.—A secret society organized for the purpose of establishing cooperation among farmers. In 1876 it took the name "Grangers" (q. v.).

Paul vs. Virginia.—An important case before the United States Supreme Court. The statutes of Virginia required the deposit in the State treasury of certain moneys in State bonds by insurance companies not incorporated under the State laws in return for licenses to do business in the State. This law was enacted Feb. 3, 1866, and later in the month a supplemental act was passed. In the same year Samuel Paul, a citizen of Virginia, acting as agent for a New York insurance company, was indicted before the Circuit Court of Petersburg and sentenced to pay a fine of $50 for refusing to comply with the above law. The court of appeals of Virginia affirmed the decree of the Circuit Court, and, the case having been taken to the Supreme Court of the United States, that tribunal affirmed the judgment of the State court of appeals on the ground that the State law in question did not conflict with that clause of the National Constitution which declares that "the citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States," nor with the power of Congress to "regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States." Justice Field, for the court, held that issuing a policy of insurance is not a transaction of commerce. The policies are local transactions and are governed by the local law. Justice Field stated that corporations are not citizens within the meaning of the Constitution.

Paulus Hook (N. J.), Capture of.—In the summer of 1779 the British had a garrison of 383 men stationed at Paulus Hook, N. J., opposite New York City. At 3 o'clock on the morning of Aug. 19, Maj. Harry Lee, with a force of 300 picked men, made a descent upon the fort and in a short engagement killed 30 men and took 160 prisoners. The British having retired to a small circular redoubt too strong for Lee's men, he returned to camp with his prisoners. Congress rewarded Lee with thanks and a gold medal.

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Pea Ridge (Ark.), Battle of.—Called by the Confederates the battle of Elk Horn. In December, 1861, Gen. Samuel R. Curtis took command of the 12,000 Federal troops at Rolla, Mo., and advanced against Gen. Sterling Price, who retreated before him into Arkansas. Gen. Price was joined by Gen. Ben. McCulloch. In January Gen. Earl Van Dorn assumed command of the combined Confederate forces, estimated at 16,000, including some 5,000 Cherokee Indians recruited for the service by Albert Pike. Curtis had about 10,000 men in line and forty-eight pieces of artillery. March 7, 1862, Van Dorn attacked Curtis in his position on Pea Ridge, a line of bluffs along Sugar Creek, in Benton County, Ark. Skillful manipulation of the artillery in Sigel's division did much toward determining the result. Fighting continued all day, and during the night both armies changed positions. The battle was renewed at sunrise on the 8th, and after two hours Van Dorn's forces retreated. The Confederate Generals McCulloch and McIntosh were killed and Price and Slack were wounded. The Confederate losses were about 1,300. The Union army lost 1,351 in killed, wounded, and missing.

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Peace, International. (See Arbitration, International; and Hague Peace Conferences.)

Peace Societies.—Among the prominent peace organizations active in the United States may be mentioned the American Union Against Militarism; the Emergency Peace Federation (organized Feb. 7, 1917); the Women's Peace Party; the American Peace Society; the World Court League, which aims for the establishment of an international Supreme Court; the Carnegie Peace Foundation, which seeks to prepare the way for perpetual peace by education; and the League to Enforce Peace (q. v.). Of these, the only ones actively to oppose the entrance of the United States into the European War were the first two mentioned, which, after the declaration of war, devoted themselves to opposing such war measures as censorship and conscription. They also agitated for a statement of war

aims and peace terms, and for a conference on the possibility of peace. To this end, the People's Council was organized, largely from the membership of the two above-mentioned societies; and later the Civil Liberties Union, during and after America's participation in the War, supported the conscientious objectors and those imprisoned under the Espionage Act and other war legislation. It also functioned actively in combating alleged violations of the principle of freedom of speech, petition and assemblage. The Religious Society of Friends had committees working for peace before the entrance of the United States into the war; but on the whole supported America's war participation, once it had been decided upon.

Peace Treaties.—When William Jennings Bryan was appointed Secretary of State by President Wilson in 1913, he conceived a plan for the advancement of the cause of peace throughout the world by means of treaties pledging all nations to submit their grievances with other nations to representatives of disinterested nations for adjustment instead of resorting to war. They were on the same plan but on a broader scale than President Taft's treaties with Great Britain and France. These provided for a year's delay on request of either party before resort to arms, and in the meantime a joint high commission of three to investigate the dispute. The senate eliminated so much of the Taft treaties as to make them valueless and they were never signed.

Bryan's idea was not so much arbitration as delay for a year, or at least six months, during which time investigations should be made and neither nation should increase its army or navy. It was informally advanced at a banquet given to some forty members of the diplomatic corps in Washington in April, 1913. President Wilson acquiesced in the movement, and thirty-nine treaties were prepared. (See Arbitration, International).

Peace Treaties. (See Arbitration, International; Germany, Treaty of Peace with; and the several treaties.)

Peace Without Victory Address, President Wilson's, 8199.

Peach Tree Creek (Ga.), Battle of.—July 17, 1864. Sherman's army advanced across the Chattahoochee River and Johnston fell back toward Atlanta. Just at this time Johnston was superseded in command of the Southern army by Gen. John B. Hood. Before the Federal forces could be brought into line of battle before Atlanta they were attacked by Hood's army near Peach Tree Creek, July 20, 1864. The attack fell mainly upon Newton's division of the Fourth Corps, the Twentieth Corps, and Johnston's division of the Fourteenth Corps. After a severe battle the Confederates retired into their intrenchments, leaving upon the field 500 dead, 1,000 wounded, 7 stand of colors, and many prisoners. The Federal loss in killed, wounded, and missing was 1,500. Gen. Hood censured Hardee for the reverse.

Peacock, The.—A United States sloop of war, carrying eighteen guns, commanded by Capt. Lewis Warrington. On April 29, 1814, when off the coast of Florida, this vessel attacked the British brig *Epervier*, also mounting eighteen guns. After a battle lasting forty minutes, in which 22 of her men were killed or wounded, the *Epervier* surrendered. It proved a rich prize, as it had on board $118,000 in specie. On June 30, 1815, the *Peacock* attacked and captured the *Nautilus*, of fourteen guns. This capture took place after the treaty of peace. Next day, on ascertaining this fact Capt. Warrington released the *Nautilus*, and returned home.

Peat.—Peat is a dark-brown or black residuum produced by the partial decomposition of mosses, sedges and other vegetable matter in marshes and other damp spots. In the United States, peat is found mostly in depressions and poorly drained regions where the temperature is low in summer and the humidity of the air is high. The most extensive peat beds in the United States are found in New England and around the Great Lakes. In a recent year, the peat production of the United States was estimated at 107,261 short tons, valued at more than $1,000,000.

It has been estimated that more than 11,000 square miles of swamp land in the United States contain peat beds of good quality, and that the total available fuel in these beds would total more than 12,000,000,000 tons.

Because of the abundant coal supply of the United States, peat has seldom been used as fuel here. In Europe, however, it is estimated that 15,000,000 to 20,000,000 tons are used annually for the generation of heat and power. The war stimulated the use of peat, a United States Commerce report stating that in Norway alone there were 216 peat machines operated in a recent year, as compared with 55 in 1916 and 36 in 1914. Peat consumed in a properly designed gas producer yields gas of good quality. Peat is also antiseptic and absorbent, and is often used as a substitute for medicated cotton. It is also in general use as a fertilizer in agriculture.

Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, improvement and fortification of, recommended, 5623, 7104.

Pecuniary Claims, convention for arbitration of, with South and Central American Republics, 7982. (See also Claims.)

Pedro Miguel Locks, Panama Canal (see also Panama Canal), view of, 6613.

Pelagosa, island of, disposition of, 8837.

Pelegiac Sealing, consequences of, 7063. (See also Seals.)

Pelew Islands. (See Oceania.)

Pembina, Minn., proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2859.

Penitentiaries.—The first penitentiary in the United States was founded in Philadelphia in 1786 through the influence of the Society of Friends. This was followed soon afterwards by the New York prisons at Sing Sing and Auburn. Sept. 23, 1789, Congress recommended to the several states to make it the duty of keepers of jails to receive prisoners committed under authority of the United States. In 1790 the legislature of Pennsylvania passed a law to try the system of solitary confinement of prisoners at hard labor as a reformatory measure. A society for the improvement of prison discipline and for the reformation of juvenile offenders was established in Boston in 1815, and in 1825 the House of Refuge on Blackwell's Island, N. Y., the first institution in the United States for reforming juvenile delinquents, was opened. The contract system of leasing prisoners to private parties began with the Mississippi penitentiary Feb. 21, 1867.

Federal Penitentiaries.—All territorial penitentiaries were placed under control of United States marshals and the Attorney-General was authorized to prescribe rules for their government by act of Congress of June 10, 1871. In 1874 the United States Military Prison was established at Fort Leavenworth. In 1886 a United States jail was located at Fort Smith, Ark. In 1891 Congress authorized three United States prisons, there being now, besides those mentioned above, a United States penitentiary at Atlanta, Ga., one on McNeil's Island, State of Washington, a United States jail in the District of Columbia, and a Territorial prison at Yuma, Arizona. There is also one penitentiary in Hawaii, and in the Philippine Islands two such institutions for the confinement of offenders against the civil law. In the several states, under state jurisdiction, there are one hundred four prisons and penitentiaries. United States prisoners not confined in Federal institutions are kept in those of the various states.

The Census Bureau reports that on July 1, 1922, the number of persons in federal penitentiaries, state prisons, county jails, chain and road gangs and other penal institutions was 163,889, an increase of about 8% from 1917. The total was thus divided —3 federal penitentiaries, 5,540; 104 state prisons, 78,673; 2,451 county jails, 44,283; 296 chain and road gangs, 12,717; 1,319 city institutions, 21,635; other institutions, 1,041 (women).

Penitentiaries:
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Penitentiaries, Government:
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Military prison at Fort Leavenworth, use of, as discussed, 6161.
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Penitentiary Congress, International, at London, 4162.
Penn Yan, N. Y., special agent to take charge of post-office in, referred to, 3799.
Pennamite War. (See Wyoming Controversy.)

Pennsylvania.—One of the thirteen original states; nickname, "The Keystone State"; motto, "Virtue, Liberty and Independence." It extends from lat. 39° 43′ to 42° 15′ north and from long. 74° 40′ to 80° 34′ west. It is bounded on the north by Lake Erie and New York, on the east by New York and New Jersey (separated from both by the Delaware River), on the south by Delaware, Maryland and West Virginia, and on the west by Ohio and West Virginia. It has an area of 45,126 square miles. Pennsylvania was originally named Sylvania ("forest country"). In 1681 William Penn obtained a grant of 40,000 square miles of land from Charles II in payment of a debt of £16,000 due Penn's father, an admiral in the English navy. The King gave the territory the name of Pennsylvania in honor of Penn. In 1682 the city of Philadelphia was laid out on plans drawn in England. Penn established a popular form of proprietary government and offered inducements to immigrants by his wise administration and honorable dealings with the Indians. His rights passed to his heirs, from whom they were purchased by the state in 1776. Pennsylvania had been settled by a colony of Swedes in 1638, prior to the grant of the territory to Penn. The United States Constitution was ratified by a state convention Dec. 12, 1787. A new state constitution was made in 1790, another in 1838, and the present in 1873.

The state is traversed from northeast to southwest by low parallel ranges of the Alleghanies, and is drained by the Ohio, Susquehanna, and Delaware Rivers. It is the fourth state in the refining of petroleum, first in manufacture of iron and second in general manufactures.

The last federal census of manufactures, as of 1919, published in 1922, gave the number of manufacturing establishments in the state as 27,973, with 1,296,229 employees, capital of $6,177,729,968, annual salaries and wages of $1,740,829,353, cost of materials of $4,210,408,628 and value of products of $7,315,702,867. The chief industries were:—

	Value of Products	*Wage-earners*
Iron and steel	$1,296,412,000	171,715
Foundry and machine shop goods	366,383,000	71,087
Blast furnaces	311,080,000	14,619
Shipbuilding	237,325,000	56,211
Silk goods	231,711,000	53,052
Cars and construction by railroads	231,534,000	78,749
Leather	211,389,000	13,749
Knit goods	188,261,000	44,156

The population in 1920 was 8,720,017, including 284,568 negroes and 4,750,071 native whites of native parentage, 1,724,810 of foreign parentage and 569,995 of mixed native and foreign parentage. The foreign-born whites were 1,387,850, including 222,764 Italians, 177,770 Poles, 161,124 Russians, 122,755 Austrians, 121,601 Irish, 120,194 Germans, 90,666 English and 68,869 Czecho-Slovaks. Illiteracy was 4½% (0.7½% among the native-born) and 65% of the population was urban.

The number of farms in the state is 202,250, with an average of 87 acres to the farm, of which 67% is improved. The average value of farm property is $8,551, of which $3,590 represents land; $2,790, buildings; $810, implements and machinery and $1,181, live stock. The average value of farm land alone is $41.12 an acre. About one-third of the farms are mortgaged.

The 1920 census gave the number and value of farm animals as follows:—Horses, 509,966, $60,828,872; Mules, 55,317, $8,200,501; Dairy cows, 885,855, $85,743,866; Other cattle, 659,693, $37,321,752; Sheep, 508,711, $5,192,704; Swine, 1,190,951, $22,111,277. The last annual wool production was estimated at 3,500,000 pounds.

The leading crops were thus reported for the last year for which figures are available, the first figures being acreage and the second, bushels:—Corn, 1,556,000, 70,020,000; Wheat, 1,368,000, 22,700,000; Oats, 1,210,000, 47,190,000; Potatoes, 246,000, 28,290,000; Hay, 3,025,000, 3,630,000 (tons).

Chiefly because of coal production, Pennsylvania far outranks the other states in value of mineral product. (See Coal.) There are some 325,000 miners. Other valuable minerals produced are petroleum, natural gas, iron ore, pig iron, coke. (See also Education.)

Pennsylvania (see also Philadelphia):
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Pension Office. (See illustration, frontispiece, Vol. X.)
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Pensions.—The word "pension" is derived from the word *pensio*, a payment, and refers to allowances of money paid in fixed amounts at certain intervals by a government to such persons as have rendered some valuable public service, or to the dependent relatives of such. In England pensions are granted to those "who by their useful discoveries in science and attainments in literature and the arts have merited the gracious consideration of their sovereign and the gratitude of their country." Aug. 26, 1776, the Continental Congress passed an act to provide by pension for the disabled soldiers of the Revolution. It was also resolved during the same year that all the officers who should continue in the service until the end of the war should receive half pay for seven years after peace had been established. A few years later the widows and orphans of those who had died were included in the provision of this act. In 1785 Congress recommended that the several states provide for invalid soldiers. By laws passed in 1789 and 1808 the United States assumed the pension obligations of the several states.

Officers and seamen of the Navy disabled in service were placed on the pension lists by act of July 1, 1797, and by acts passed in 1799 and 1800 money accruing from prizes was made to constitute a fund for the payment of naval pensions. By an act passed April 24, 1816, the rate of pension for total disability was fixed at $17 per month for first lieutenants, $15 for second lieutenants, and $8 for non-commissioned officers and privates. In 1818 an act was passed granting pensions to all who had served nine months or more in the Revolutionary Army and were in indigent circumstances. More claimants applied than could possibly have survived from Washington's army. The amount required to be paid the first year was eleven times what had been estimated, and the second year seventeen times the estimate. In 1868, when all the Revolutionary pensioners had died, there remained 888 widows of such soldiers. There remained on the pension rolls as late as 1908 two daughters of Revolutionary soldiers. Acts of July 14, 1862, and subsequent dates provided pensions for soldiers and sailors disabled in the Civil War and for the dependent relatives of those who had died. Under these acts expenditures for pensions reached $34,443,895 in 1871, and then declined until, on Jan. 25, 1879, the arrears act was passed, allowing back pay on all claims theretofore allowed. In two years this act doubled the total annual sum paid for pensions. Meanwhile, in 1871, another act had pensioned all who had served a certain time in the War of 1812, and their widows if married before the treaty of Ghent. The last survivor of the War of 1812 who was on the pension rolls was Hiram Cronk, of Ava, N. Y., who died May 11, 1905, at the age of 105 years.

Pensions for Widows.—Act of May 1, 1920. Under the provisions of the act of May 1, 1920, the widow of any person who served in the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps during the Civil War for ninety days or more, and was honorably discharged, or

regardless of the length of service was discharged for or died in service of a disability incurred in the service in line of duty, may be entitled to pension, without regard to her financial condition, provided she was married to him prior to June 27, 1905. The rate of pension is $30 per month, and $6 additional for each of his children under the age of sixteen years. Pension, if allowed, commences from the date of filing a valid declaration in the bureau.

Under the provisions of Sections 4702 and 4703, Revised Statutes of the United States, the widow of an officer or enlisted man of the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps of the United States, whose death resulted from disability incurred in the service in line of duty, may be entitled to a pension from the date of his death, regardless of the date of her marriage to him or her financial status. The rate of pension ranges from $12 to $30 per month, according to the rank of the soldier or sailor, with $2 additional for each of his children under the age of sixteen years.

Under the acts of July 27, 1892, June 27, 1902, May 30, 1908, and March 4, 1917, the widow of an officer or enlisted man who served in any of the Indian wars, disturbances, or campaigns, mentioned in said acts, for the period stated therein, may be entitled to pension from date of approval of the act giving her a pensionable status, or, where soldier died subsequent to such date, from date of his death. No grant is made for minor children.

Under the provisions of the Act of July 16, 1918, the widow of an officer or enlisted man of the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps of the United States, who served therein at least ninety days in the war with Spain or the Philippine Insurrection or as a participant in the Chinese Boxer rebellion campaign and was honorably discharged therefrom, may be entitled to pension, if her marriage to him occurred prior to the passage of that act, without proving his death to be the result of his army or navy service, provided she has no means of support other than her daily labor and an actual net income not exceeding $250 a year. The rate of pension is $12 per month, and $2 additional for each of his children under the age of sixteen years. Pension, if allowed, commences from the date of filing a valid declaration with the Pension office.

The only general pension laws under which a widow may have title to pension based on service in the war with Spain or the Philippine Insurrection are Sections 4702 and 4703, Revised Statutes of the United States and the Act of July 16, 1918.

World War Pensions.—The act of October 7, 1917, as amended, provided that existing pension laws should not apply to a person entering the military or naval service after that date, unless he has prior rights under such law. Allowances for service after that date were assigned to the hands of the Bureau of War Risk Insurance. (See Soldiers' and Sailors' Compensation.)

Pensions for Soldiers and Sailors.—Any officer or enlisted or appointed man of the Army, Navy, or Marine Corps of the United States, disabled by a wound, injury, or disease, incurred in line of duty since March 4, 1861, in a term of service which ended prior to October 6, 1917, may be entitled to pension on account thereof under the provisions of Section 4692, Revised Statutes. Rates range from $6 to $100 per month, according to the degree of disability established. Pension commences from date of filing of declaration except in claims of certain insane persons.

Act of May 1, 1920. Any person who served ninety days or more in the Army, Navy or Marine Corps of the United States during the Civil War, and who has been honorably discharged, or who, having so served less than ninety days, was discharged for a disability incurred in service in line of duty, may be entitled to a pension at the rate of $50 per month from the date of filing a valid declaration.

A rate of $72 per month is provided for any person who served as above and who is now, or hereafter may become, by reason of age and physical or mental disability, helpless or blind, or so nearly helpless or blind as to require the regular personal aid and attendance of another person, pension to commence from the date of the certificate of medical examination by a board of surgeons, establishing the existence of the requisite condition of disability, after May 1, 1920, the date of approval of the act. This act also provides increased rates for specific disabilities.

Act of June 5, 1920. Any person who served ninety days or more in the military or naval service of the United States during the War with Spain, the Philippine insurrection, or the China relief expedition, who has been honorably discharged therefrom, and who is suffering from any mental or physical disability of a permanent character, not the result of his own vicious habits, and thereby rendered unable to earn support, may be entitled to a pension. Rates range from $12 to $30 per month, proportioned to the degree of inability to earn support, pension to commence from date of filing claim upon proof that the disability then existed.

Any person who served as noted above and who has reached the age of 62 years is entitled to a pension of $12 per month; 68 years, $18 per month; 72 years, $24 per month, and 75 years, $30 per month. This act also provides increased rates for specific disabilities.

In addition to the 299,363 widows on the pension rolls in 1920, there were 4,422 dependents, 2,273 minors, 913 helpless children and 109 nurses. Of the total number of pensioners, in 1920 there were 243,520 Civil War soldiers and 290,100 Civil War widows, as against 298,808 and 288,815, respectively, for 1918. There were surviving in 1920, 71 widows of the War of 1812, 148 soldiers and 2,423 widows of the Mexican War, 30,432 pensioners of the Spanish-American War. There were 6,228 pensioners of the Indian Wars, and 19,031 of the Regular Establishment.

In a recent year, the average pension for all wars was $355.78. The average pension for the Civil War was $373.39; for the War with Spain, $137.28; for the War of 1812, $218.57; for the Mexican War, $256.48; for the Indian Wars, $285.84; for the Regular Establishment, $192.62, annually.

The total amount paid by the United States Government for pensions from 1790 is as follows:

Revolutionary War	$ 70,000,000.00
War of 1812	46,049,268.15
Indian Wars	16,705,750.41
Mexican War	52,906,295.05
Civil War	5,299,859,509.39
Spanish War and Filipino Revolts	65,211,665.71
Regular Establishment	50,242,190.99
War of 1917	37,275.28
Unclassified	16,508,447.41
Total	$5,617,520,402.39

The number of pensioners and the amounts paid each year from 1869 to the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, as reported by the Commissioner of Pensions, follows:

Year	Number of Pensioners on the Rolls			Paid as Pensions
	Invalids	Widows etc.	Total	
1870	87,521	111,165	198,686	$29,351,488.78
1871	93,394	114,101	207,495	28,518,792.62
1872	113,954	118,275	232,229	29,752,746.81
1873	119,500	118,911	238,411	26,982,063.89
1874	121,628	114,613	227,241	30,206,778.99
1875	122,989	111,832	234,821	29,270,404.76
1876	124,239	107,898	232,137	27,936,209.53
1877	128,723	103,381	232,104	28,182,821.72
1878	131,649	92,349	223,998	26,786,009.44
1879	138,615	104,140	242,755	33,664,428.92
1880	145,410	105,392	250,802	56,689,229.08
1881	164,110	104,720	268,830	50,583,405.35
1882	182,633	103,064	285,697	54,313,172.05
1883	206,042	97,616	303,658	60,427,573.81
1884	225,470	97,286	322,756	57,912,387.47
1885	247,146	97,979	345,125	65,171,937.12
1886	270,346	95,437	365,783	64,091,142.90
1887	306,298	99,709	406,007	73,752,997.08
1888	343,701	108,856	452,557	78,950,501.67
1889	373,699	116,026	489,725	88,842,720.58
1890	415,654	122,290	537,944	106,093,850.39
1891	536,821	139,339	676,160	117,312,690.50
1892	703,242	172,826	876,068	139,394,147.11
1893	759,706	206,306	966,012	156,906,637.94
1894	754,382	215,162	969,544	139,986,726.17
1895	751,456	219,068	970,524	139,812,294.30
1896	748,514	222,164	970,678	138,220,704.46
1897	747,492	228,522	976,014	139,949,717.35
1898	758,511	235,203	993,714	144,651,879.80
1899	754,104	237,415	991,519	138,355,052.95
1900	752,510	241,019	993,529	138,462,130.65
1901	748,649	249,086	997,735	138,531,483.84
1902	739,443	260,003	999,446	137,504,267.99
1903	729,356	267,189	996,545	137,759,653.71
1904	720,921	273,841	994,762	141,093,571.49
1905	717,761	280,680	998,441	141,142,861.33
1906	701,483	284,488	985,971	139,000,288.25
1907	679,937	287,434	967,371	138,155,412.46
1908	658,071	293,616	951,687	153,093,086.27
1909	632,557	313,637	946,194	161,973,703.77
1910	602,180	318,903	921,083	159,974,056.08
1911	570,050	322,048	892,098	157,325,160.35
1912	538,000	322,294	860,294	152,986,433.72
1913	503,633	316,567	820,200	174,171,660.80
1914	470,331	314,908	785,239	172,417,546.26
1915	437,448	310,699	748,147	165,518,266.14
1916	403,120	306,452	709,572	159,155,090.92
1917	369,936	303,175	673,111	160,895,053.94
1918	340,318	306,582	646,895	179,835,328.75
1919	313,140	311,287	624,427	222,159,292.70
1920	*285,110	*299,363	*592,190	213,295,314.00

* Subject to revision.

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Sums paid to, and residences of pensioners referred to, 602.

System of, for civil servants, discussed and urged, 7425, 7536, 7551, 7697, 7754.

Pensions, Bureau of.—Up to 1833 the disbursement of pensions had been under the supervision of the Secretary of War and the Secretary of the Navy. In that year Congress established the Pension Bureau and placed J. L. Edwards in charge. He immediately assumed the business theretofore under the War Department, and in 1840 the pension affairs of the Navy Department were transferred to this Bureau. In 1849, when the Department of the Interior was created, the Pension Bureau was placed under its jurisdiction. The chief officer of this Bureau is called the Commissioner of Pensions.

Pensions, Bureau of:
Efficiency of, 6803, 6911.
Expenditures of. (See Pensions discussed.)
Increase in clerical force of, 5552. Recommended, 4673.
Transfer of, from Interior Department to War Department recommended, 4060.
Work of, 6803, 7006.

Pensions, Commissioner of, provision for continuance of, recommended, 1789.

Peoples Party. (See Populist or Peoples Party.)

Peoria Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

"Perdicaris Alive or Raizuli Dead."—In 1904, Ion H. Perdicaris, an American citizen, was held for ransom by Raizuli, a bandit in Morocco. After mild negotiations had failed to obtain the release of Perdicaris, John Hay, then Secretary of State, by direction of President Roosevelt sent to Mr. Gummere, the American Consul at Tangier, the famous ultimatum cablegram: "We want Perdicaris alive or Raizuli dead." The result was the immediate release of Perdicaris.

Perjury.—In law the willful giving, under oath lawfully administered in a judicial proceeding, of false testimony in regard to a matter or thing material to the issue or point of inquiry. The early Romans threw perjurers from the Tarpeian Rock. The Greeks branded them with a mark of infamy. After the Empire became Christianized any person who swore falsely upon the Gospels was sentenced to have his tongue cut out. The canons of the early church imposed eleven years' penance. In some countries the perjurer was liable to any punishment to which his false testimony had exposed an innocent person. In England perjury was punished by fine, the pillory, and imprisonment. It is now in both England and America a statutory offense, punishable by fine or imprisonment, or both.

Pernicious Activity.—A phrase contained in an Executive order of President Cleveland. It occurred in the following sentence: "Individual interest and activity in political affairs are by no means condemned. Officeholders are neither disfranchised nor forbidden the exercise of political privileges, but their privileges are not enlarged nor is their duty to party increased to pernicious activity by officeholding." (5079.) (See Obtrusive Partisanship.)

Perpetual Emigrating Fund Co., suit instituted by Government for termination of, discussed, 5379.

Perry's Victory Exposition.—The one hundredth anniversary of the victory of Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry over the British fleet under command of Captain Barclay in the battle of Lake Erie, Sept. 10, 1813, was celebrated by an historical and educational exposition at Put-in-Bay Island during the summer of 1913 and a dedication of a national memorial to Commodore Perry and the American seamen who perished in that conflict, the remains of many of whom have reposed in unmarked graves on Put-in-Bay Island for nearly a hundred years. The memorial cost more than a million dollars. Congress had appropriated $250,000.

The exposition opened July 4, 1913, and closed Sept. 10. Its historical and educational interests were under the direction of the historical societies and the universities and colleges of the states participating. The only industrial feature related to an exhibit for the promotion of the shipping interests of the great lakes. In conjunction with the permanent memorial to Commodore Perry the exposition commemorated the one hundredth anniversay of Gen. William Henry Harrison's northwestern campaign.

Perryville (Ky.), Battle of.—Oct. 1, 1862, the Confederate forces under Bragg and Kirby Smith having united at Frankfort, Ky., Bragg issued a proclamation calling the people of Kentucky to his assistance. He inaugurated a provisional government at Frankfort, with Richard Hawes as governor. Buell's army, divided into three corps, under McCook, Gilbert, and Crittenden, advanced against the Confederates by way of Louisville. Oct. 8, McCook's corps was attacked near Perryville, and after a fight lasting all day Bragg's army was repulsed. The engagement, while not general all day, was severe. During the night the Confederates retired, and later retreated to Cumberland Gap, leaving 1,200 wounded and sick behind. The Federal losses were 916 killed (including Generals Jackson and Terrell), 2,943 wounded, and 489 missing—a total of 4,348. The Confederates lost 510 killed, 2,635 wounded and 251 missing—a total of 3,396.

Persia.—Persia is a kingdom in the west of the continent of Asia, and is bounded on the north by Russian Transcaucasia, the Caspian Sea, and Russian Transcaspia, on the east by Afghanistan and British Baluchistan; on the south by the Arabian Sea and the Persian Gulf; and on the west by Asiatic Turkey. The territory thus defined lies, approximately, between 44°-63° E. longitude, and between 25°-39° 45′ N. latitude, an area of 630,000 square miles. It is called Iran by the natives, and is referred to in the Bible as Elam.

Physical Features.—The kingdom occupies the western and greater portion of the Iranian Plateau (which extends between the valleys of the Indus and the Tigris), and consists of a series of plateaus. The coast of the Caspian is low lying and forest clad; the shores of the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea are low and sandy, but elsewhere the country between the mountain ranges is elevated. In the southeast are two volcanoes, Kuh i Basman (dormant), about 12,000 feet in height, and

Kuh i Nushadar (active), a triple-peaked cone of 12,681 feet. The Kizil Uzain, the Herhaz, the Gurgan and the Atrek rivers flow into the Caspian Sea. Many rivers into the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea. The salt swamps of the depressions of the interior are watered by many streams, which soon lose themselves in the saline swamps or dry salt area. There are many lakes, the largest being Lake Urmia, about 4,000 feet above sea level, its area being close on 1,000 square miles and its waters so salt that fish cannot live therein.

Population.—The population figures are largely conjectural, but the usual estimate is 9,000,000. There are only about 1,000 foreigners. The principal cities are the capital, Teheran, and Tabriz, each with more than 200,000 inhabitants; Isaphan and Kermanshah, with about 80,000 each; and Meshed and Kerman, with about 75,000 each. Practically all the people are Mohammedans. The population is extremely mixed, including Arabs, Turks, Armenians, Jews, Kurds, Leks, Gypsies, Lurs, Baluchis.

History.—The country now known as Persia formed part, at various times, of a much greater kingdom, and under Cyrus (560-528 B.C.) was included in a mighty empire extending from Asia Minor and Syria to the Indies. Attempts at a westward extension under Darius (521-485 B.C.) and Xerxes (485-465 B.C.) were checked by the victories of the Greeks at the battles of Marathon (490), Thermopylæ (480), Salamis (480) and Platæ (479 B.C.). Under a later dynasty (226-651 A.D.), known as the Sassanians (Assassins or Isma'ilites), the Persian empire was extended once again, to be consolidated by Chosroes (or Khosra), over an area from the Red Sea to the Indus, and from Arabia into the heart of Central Asia. From the eighth to the tenth centuries A.D. Persia fell under Moslem rule, and with a short interval of independence was afterwards overrun by the Mongols from the northeast, forming part of the territories of Jenghiz Khan at his death in 1272. A further period of independence was interrupted by the conquest of Persia by Timur (Tamburlane the Great), from whose death (1405) to the present time the kingdom has been independent, under the rule of a Shah, the reign of Nadir Shah (1736-1747) being the most brilliant in the annals of modern Persia. After the death of Nadir, Afghanistan asserted its independence, and the nineteenth century witnessed the gradual decay of the kingdom. The rule of the Shah was absolute and despotic from the earliest times, but many internal dissensions, culminating in the revolution of 1905-1906, have marked the later years of Persian history and have further weakened the powers of resistance to external forces. Owing to increasing popular discontent with a corrupt and incompetent administration and an extravagant Court, a nationalist movement began in December, 1905. After a period of revolt and interference by Great Britain and Russia, the movement for constitutional Government failed, and at the present time the Government is once more in the hands of the Shah and his cabinet. However, in practise the Government is extremely weak, and the people largely govern themselves.

In 1907, Great Britain and Russia signed an agreement respecting Persia, the control of which had become the objective of each country. By this agreement, a British zone of protection was established over the southeastern portion and a Russian zone over the northern portion, with a neutral zone intervening. With the collapse of Tsarist Russia and the success of the Entente Allies in the World War, control over Persia passed, for practical purposes, to the British Empire.

Government.—For administrative purposes, the country is divided into 33 provinces, each under a Governor appointed by and responsible to the Central Government. There is also some local government, but in practise the officials concern themselves chiefly with collecting the taxes.

Finance.—The latest figures for the outstanding public debt place it as about $15,000,000. The latest financial report showed an annual budget of about $10,000,000. Most of the revenue consists of payments in kind levied upon the lower classes. In 1917-8, the customs receipts were around $4,000,000.

Production and Commerce.—Persia produces wheat, barley, fruits, gums, drugs, wool, cotton. The silk production is important, as is the opium. Persian handmade carpets are very valuable. The mineral deposits are varied, but undeveloped.

The last official figures showed imports of $75,000,000 and exports of $55,000,000. In order of value, the chief exports are petroleum, fruits, opium, animals, cotton; and the chief imports are cotton goods and sugar. The countries of chief trade are the British Empire and Russia. In a recent year, the United States imported from Persia goods valued at $3,932,600 and exported to Persia goods valued at $749,722, chiefly pipes and fittings, and oils.

Communications.—The total railway mileage is less than 100 miles. There are several good roads of length. The telegraph system is about 6,300 miles long and has some 130 stations. There are some 225 post-offices in the country.

Persia:
Constitutional government in, progress of, 7414.
Diplomatic relations with, 2977, 4678, 4718, 4761, 5088.
Diplomatic representation of, in United States, 5368.
Minister of United States to, recommended, 2977.
Legation established, 5088.
Protection of American citizens in, referred to, 4678.
Resources of, developed by American citizens, discussed, 5471.
Treaty with, 2682, 2956.
Referred to, 2977.

Persia, Treaties with.—A treaty of friendship and commerce was concluded in 1856. Provision is made for the reception and protection of ambassadors and diplomatic agents on terms of the most favored nation; freedom of travel is secured to all citizens, and of trade in conformity with the laws of the country in which such is carried on. Such privileges as may at any time be conferred upon other powers are to be enjoyed by citizens and subjects of the two contracting powers. No exceptional or discriminating tax upon import or export is to be charged. Suits and disputes are to be tried before the proper Persian officer in the presence of the consul or of his agent or representative at the place of consular residence. Disputes between citizens of the United States are to be settled by and before the consul.

Disputes between citizens of the United States and subjects of other powers in Persia are to be settled by their consuls. The goods and effects of a citizen or subject dying in the country of the other shall be delivered to his heirs or successors; when such are not represented, the effects shall be delivered to the consul for disposition. Each country shall appoint a diplomatic agent to reside at the seat of government of the other, and three consuls, those of the United States to reside at Teheran, Bender Bushir, and Tauris; those of Persia at Washington, New York, and New Orleans. No greater number of domestics may be retained by the diplomatic agent in Persia than are allowed to Russia by treaty.

Personal-Liberty Laws.—A name given to laws passed by some of the northern states for the purpose of impeding the operations of "fugitive-slave laws." In 1840 and the years immediately prior and subsequent thereto most of the northern states enacted statutes for the protection of negroes within their borders. Indiana and Connecticut had previously provided that fugitive slaves might have trial by jury. After the Prigg decision many of the states forbade the use of their jails for the detention of fugitives. The bitter opposition in the north to the fugitive-slave law of 1850 induced many of the state legislatures to enact personal-liberty laws. Besides prohibiting the use of state jails, these laws forbade state judges and officers to assist claimants or issue writs. Trial was to be given all alleged fugitives. Such acts were passed by Vermont, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Massachusetts, Maine, Michigan, Wisconsin, Kansas, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and heavy penalties were provided for their violation. New Jersey and California alone of the northern states sanctioned the return of fugitives. It was claimed by the people of the South that these laws were in violation of Article IV., section 2, of the Constitution, which reads as follows: "No person held to service or labor in one state, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labor, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labor may be due."

Perthshire, The, appropriation to owners for detention of, recommended, 3247.

Peru.—Peru is a maritime country on the northwest of the South American Continent, between 1° 31′-17° 47′ S. latitude (the territory between 17° 47′-19° 13′ being the department of Tacna, occupied by Chile), with a coast-line on the Pacific of about 1,200 miles. It is bounded on the north by Ecuador and Colombia, on the east by Bolivia and Brazil, and on the south by Chile.

Physical Features.—The country is traversed throughout its length by the Andes, running parallel to the Pacific coast, the highest points being Huascaran (22,050 feet), Huandoy (21,100 feet), Arequipa (or Misti) volcano (20,013 feet), Hualcan (20,000 feet), and Lirima, Tocora, and Sarasara, all over 19,000 feet. There are four distinct regions, the costa, west of the Andes, a low arid desert except where watered by transverse mountain streams, but capable of irrigation; the sierra or western slopes of the Andes, the punas or mountainous wastes below the region of perpetual snow, and the inward slopes and boundless forests of the Amazonian basin.

History.—Peru was conquered in the sixteenth century by Francisco Pizarro, who subjugated the Incas (a tribe of the Quichua Indians), who had invaded the country some 500 years earlier, and for nearly three centuries Peru remained under the Spanish rule. A revolutionary war of 1821-1824 established its independence, declared on July 28, 1821.

The exact boundaries of Peru are in dispute with her neighbors. By the treaty after the war with Chile, signed in 1883, Chile was to occupy the provinces of Tacna and Arica until 1894, when a referendum was to have been held. Arrangements for the referendum have never been agreed upon, however, and up to the present, Chile has refused to surrender the provinces. A boundary dispute with Bolivia was settled in 1912, and one with Brazil some years later. A region north of the Maranon from the Pongo de Manseriche, at present occupied by Peru, is claimed also by Ecuador and Colombia.

The capital is Lima, with a population estimated at 150,000. The other large cities are Callao, 40,000, and Arequipa, 37,500.

There has been no official census of the population since 1876. Roman Catholicism is the state religion.

AREA AND POPULATION

Departments	Area in English Sq. Miles	Estimated Population
Amazonas	13,941	53,000
Ancachs	16,659	317,000
Apurimac	8,186	133,000
Arequipa	21,947	172,000
Ayacucho	18,188	227,000
Cajamarca	12,545	333,000
Callao	14	34,000
Cuzco	131,305	313,000
Huancavelica	9,264	168,000
Huanuco	13,896	109,000
Ica	8,685	68,000
Junin	23,314	306,000
Lambayeque	4,593	93,000
Liberdad	10,190	188,000
Lima	13,278	250,000
Loreto	254,507	120,000
Madre de Dios	24,645	16,000
Moquegua	5,714	32,000
Piura	14,822	154,000
Puno	41,000	403,000
San Martin	31,243	33,000
Tacna	12,590	39,961
Tumbez	1,930	8,000
Total	692,616	3,569,961

If the total may be assumed at 3,500,000 the races may be approximately stated at: Whites, 480,000; Indians (Quichua and Aymará tribes and "wild" Indians of the forests of the eastern interior), 2,000,000; Half-castes (Cholos or Spanish Indian and Zambos or Spanish Negro), 875,000; Negroes, 87,500; and Asiatics (mainly Chinese), 60,000.

Although elementary education is theoretically compulsory, illiteracy is general. There are about 2,900 public primary schools, with an enrolment of 200,000. The government maintains some thirty higher schools, and there are a number of private seminaries of learning, including several universities.

Government.—The constitution rests upon the fundamental law of Oct. 18, 1856 (amended 1860 and 1920), and is that of a democratic Republic. The President and

two Vice-Presidents are elected for four years by direct vote of the people, and are ineligible for a succeeding term of office. The President exercises his executive power through a cabinet of six members.

Congress consists of a Senate and Chamber of Deputies, and meets annually on Independence Day (July 28) for ninety days. The Senate is composed of fifty-seven members, the Chamber of 128 members, in each case elected by the direct vote of all male citizens aged twenty-one who can read and write or possess a small property or tax-paying qualification.

There is a Supreme Court at Lima, the members of which are appointed by Congress, and Superior Courts at Arequipa, Ayacucho, Cajamarca, Cuzco, Huaraz, Piura, Puno, and Truxillo.

The nineteen departments and three Provinces are divided into Provinces (113 in all), which again are parcelled out into 873 districts. At the head of the Department is a Prefect, with a sub-Prefect over each Province.

Army.—By a law of Dec. 27, 1898, service in the Army is compulsory for all citizens. (For the Army, see Armies of the World.)

Navy.—The Peruvian Navy consists of 2 modern protected cruisers (Almirante Grau and Coronel Bolognesi), one modernized cruiser (Lima), and two submarines; with certain miscellaneous craft, school ships, sailing vessels, etc.

Production and Industry.—The eastern provinces are of vast extent and fertility with a tropical climate, while the valleys running from the Andes to the coast are very fertile and are capable of development by irrigation. The staple agricultural product is sugar, while cotton is grown in large and increasing quantities. The medicinal products of the eastern provinces are valuable, and include cinchona (Peruvian bark), sarsaparilla, copaiba, cocaine, etc. India rubber is a product of the Amazonian basin, and coffee and cocoa are increasingly grown, while the sugar plantations are mainly in the costa west of the Andes. The Live Stock includes herds of guanaco, llama, and alpaca, the wool being a valuable item of the export trade. Guano is brought from the Lobos and other islands on the Pacific coast.

The latest figures show 140,000 acres given over to cotton, with an annual production of 29,000 tons; and 100,000 acres to sugar with an annual production of 340,000 tons. About 50,000 tons of rice are also produced annually, and the production is increasing rapidly.

The mountains are rich in minerals, among which silver, quicksilver, copper and coal (of inferior quality) are conspicuous; while in the department of Tumbez, in the northwest, there are important beds of petroleum. The last available figures showed an annual mineral production valued at $40,000,000, of which almost $20,000,000 was represented by copper, $10,000,000 by refined petroleum and $8,000,000 by silver.

In the last year for which figures are available, the value of the imports was $48,000,000 and of the exports, $98,000,000. In order of value, the imports were coal, iron and steel goods, textiles, wheat, lumber and oils; in order of value, the exports were sugar, cotton, copper, wool and petroleum. Most of the trade is with the United States, although a considerable proportion goes also to Great Britain and Chile. In a recent year, the United States imported from Peru goods valued at $63,730,964 and exported to Peru goods valued at $47,037,128.

Finance. — For the collection of most taxes, there is a private syndicate formed under Government approval (Compania Recaudadora de Impuestos). Salt is a Government monopoly. The most recent budget was in the neighborhood of $23,000,000. Due to the contraction of a large foreign debt, many of the important resources of the country have been conceded to foreign corporations. The unit of currency is the gold libra, equal in value to the British sovereign. Ten soles equal one libra.

Communications.—The total length of the railroads is about 1,900 miles. There are 263 telegraph offices and 7,850 miles of telegraph wire. There are telephone systems and a number of wireless stations. The latest reports showed 650 post-offices in the country. In a recent year, 395 vessels, of 790,000 tons, entered Callao in the foreign trade, and 364, of 717,000 tons, cleared. Of the vessels entering, 111 were Chilean, 82 were United States and 37 were British steamers.

Peru (see also Peru-Bolivian Confederation):
Alleged agreement between ministers of United States, Great Britain, France, and Italy in, 4745.
Bolivia, boundary dispute with, arbitration of, discussed, 7414.
Claims against, of—
Members of Hydrographic Commission of the Amazon, 6099.
United States, 1594, 2193, 4463, 4919, 5988, 6092, 6335.
Arbitration of, 6335.
Convention for adjustment of, referred to, 1933, 1944, 2135, 2193, 2294, 2400, 2586, 3353, 3381, 3396, 3893, 3987, 5088.
Amendment to, recommended, 3553.
Indemnity paid, 2400.
Indemnity stipulated to be paid, 2586.
Payment of mutual claims, 3445.
Claims of, against United States (see also *Georgiana*, The; *Lizzie Thompson*, The)—
Appropriation for, 4013.
Convention for adjustment of, 3893, 4013.
Commercial relations with, 1159, 2745.
Domestic disturbances in, 5960.
Earthquakes in, 3885.
Ecuador, dispute with, arbitration of, 7499.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 4068, 4247.
Termination of, referred to, 4919.
Government in, restored, 5088.
Guano imported from. (See Guano.)
Gunboats constructed by Spain in and near New York to operate against, discussed, 3987.
Imprisonment of American citizens

by, and claims arising out of, 5988, 6092, 6335.
Lobos Islands, discussed. (See Lobos Islands.)
Naval force of United States on shores of, 875.
Neutral rights, treaty with, regarding, 2953.
Proceeds of cargo of the *Macedonian* seized in, by authorities of Chile. (See *Macedonian*, The.)
Railroads operated by American citizens in, questions affecting American interests in connection with, 5470.
Relations of, with Chile, referred to, 4662, 4673.
Treaty with, termination of—
Notification of, given by Peru, 6335.
Referred to, 4919.
Treaty with, transmitted and discussed by President—
Buchanan, 3001.
Cleveland, 5179, 5369.
Fillmore, 2600, 2680.
Grant, 4068, 4212, 4247.
Pierce, 2952.
Polk, 2422, 2479.
Tyler, 1944, 2116, 2135.
Vessels purchased for, from United States, detained, 3831, 3835.
Vice-President of, refuge given to, by the *St. Louis*, 1133.
War between Chile, Bolivia, and, 4522, 4563, 4628, 4717.
Claims of United States arising out of, 4913, 5083, 5369, 5514.
Conditions of peace proposed by Chile, discussed, 4662, 4717, 4760.
Efforts of United States to bring about peace, discussed, 4522, 4563, 4582, 4662, 4717.
Stable government restored in Peru, 5088.
Terminated, 4822.
Treaty of peace, discussed, 4760.

Peru, Treaties with.—A convention declaring the rights of neutrals at sea was concluded in 1856. Both parties recognize the principle that free ships make free goods and that the property of neutrals on an enemy's vessel is not subject to detention or confiscation unless contraband of war. The rights resulting from a formal recognition of these principles shall be conferred upon all other countries who desire to accede. Arbitration and naturalization conventions are also in force. (For extradition terms of 1899, see Extradition Treaties.)

Peru also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Peru-Bolivian Confederation (see also Bolivia; Peru):
Dissolution of, referred to, 1751.
Treaty with, 1563, 1694, 1706.
Pet Banks. (See Banks, Pet.)
Petersburg, Va., explosion of mine in front of, referred to, 3471.

Petersburg (Va.), Siege of.—When Grant crossed the Rapidan, May 4, 1864, with the Army of the Potomac to operate against Lee, he ordered Ben. Butler, with the Army of the James, to proceed up the James River toward Richmond. Butler's army consisted of the Tenth and Eighteenth army corps, under Generals Gillmore and W. F. Smith, and numbered 38,648 officers and men and ninety guns. May 5, he occupied City Point and Bermuda Hundred, eighteen miles southeast of Richmond. On the evening of May 13 and the morning of the 14th he carried a portion of the first line of defenses of Richmond at Fort Darling, on Drury's Bluff. On the 16th Butler was attacked and driven back to Bermuda Hundred. June 10 he sent a force under Gillmore and Kautz against Petersburg. The cavalry entered the town, but were driven back, and the expedition returned to Bermuda Hundred. June 15, after a march of fifty-five miles from Cold Harbor in two days, Grant was ready to cross the James. The army of 130,000 men crossed by pontoon bridge in three days. The two armies were now united and prepared for final operations against Richmond. The first step toward taking Richmond seemed to be the occupation of Petersburg, twenty-two miles to the south, on the Richmond and Petersburg Railroad. June 16, 1864, after the junction of the Army of the James and the Army of the Potomac, an attack was made on Petersburg by W. F. Smith's corps. The assaults were continued for four days. Reenforcements were sent from Richmond to defend the place, and the attempts cost Grant 7,881 men.

During parts of June and July a powder mine was dug beneath portions of the Petersburg intrenchments. It was intended to explode this and make an assault through the breach thus made. The mine, known as "the Crater," was charged with 8,000 pounds of powder, and at 4 o'clock A. M., July 30, 1864, was exploded. A Confederate battery and most of a regiment were blown up. The assault, which was made by 50,000 men under Burnside, Warren, and Ord, was a total failure, and 4,000 men were lost in it. Gen. Mahone commanded the Confederate force that recovered the line broken by the explosion. During this siege a number of brilliant sorties were made. The losses in Lee's army are not fully reported. Elliott's brigade lost 677 men. Petersburg was not surrendered until April 3, 1865, nearly a year afterward.

Petition.—The Constitution prohibits Congress from making any law to abridge "the right of the people peaceably to assemble and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances." Feb. 11, 1790, a petition signed by Benjamin Franklin was offered to Congress, praying for the abolition of slavery, but no notice was taken of it. Between 1830 and 1844 numerous petitions from Abolitionists poured into Congress. May 26, 1836, the House resolved, by a vote of 117 to 68, that "all petitions, memorials, resolutions, propositions, or papers relating in any way to the subject of slavery or the abolition of slavery shall, without being printed or referred, be laid

on the table, and that no further action be taken thereon." This was the first of the famous "gag rules" of Congress. John Quincy Adams championed the cause of the Abolitionists and opposed the gag rules for ten years, finally securing their repeal. In 1837 he presented a petition to Congress purporting to come from slaves. This was the first of the kind ever offered, though in 1800 Congress was thrown into an uproar of debate by a petition from freed negroes.

In his annual message to Congress, Dec. 2, 1835, President Jackson asserted that publications addressed to the passions of slaves and stimulating them to insurrection were being circulated through the mails, and suggested laws to prohibit, under severe penalties, such circulation (1394). One of the most noted laws under this recommendation was the Atherton gag, introduced by K. G. Atherton, of New Hampshire. It was rescinded in 1845. The rules of Congress now provide that petitions, when presented, shall be indorsed with the name of the member presenting them and the committee to which they were referred. They are entered by the Clerk on the Journal and then transmitted to the proper committee.

Petrel, The, mentioned, 6297.

Petroleum and Petroleum Refining.—Petroleum, or rock oil, was found in the United States as early as 1635, in what is now southwestern New York and northwestern Pennsylvania, but its value long went unrecognized. As late as 1829, a well draining into the Cumberland River, and ignited, set the water on fire for some fifty miles.

The main sources of petroleum are shale and bituminous coal. Most American comes from the Devonian and Upper Silurian and usually is found in sandstone between layers of slate or shale. Its origin is a matter of dispute. The method of mining or drilling is similar to that used in sinking gas or artesian water wells.

As petroleum emerges, it usually contains gas, ethane, propane and butane, but these soon escape. The sand and oil in it are easily separated from the petroleum proper by allowing it to settle in tanks. The distilling process produces these components—1—Benzine distillate, yielding gasoline and naphtha when re-distilled; 2—Burning oils, from which kerosene is obtained; 3—Residuum, producing lubricants, vaseline, etc.

The following table shows the growth of the petroleum production in the United States, in barrels of 42 gallons. The figures for 1919, 1920, 1921 and 1922 are preliminary and subject to slight revision. The figures for 1922 are those of the fiscal year ending June 30 of that year:—

Year	*Barrels*	*Year*	*Barrels*
1856....	2,000	1910....	209,557,248
1860....	500,000	1915....	281,104,104
1870....	5,260,745	1917....	335,315,601
1880....	26,286,123	1919....	377,719,000
1890....	45,823,572	1920....	443,402,000
1900....	63,620,529	1921....	469,639,000
1905....	134,717,580	1921-2...	500,269,000

The 1921 product was valued at the wells at $753,300,000.

In a recent year, about two-thirds of the world production came from the United States, with 13½% from Mexico and 8% from Russia. Other countries which produced oil, in order, were—Dutch East Indies, Roumania, India, Persia, Galicia, Peru, Japan, Trinidad, Egypt, Argentina, Germany, Canada, Venezuela, Italy and Cuba. Since 1857, the United States has accounted for about 63% of the world's production, Russia for 23% and Mexico for about 5%.

The production by states in a recent year, in barrels, was as follows, the figures being subject to slight revision:—

State	*Barrels*
California	114,709,000
Oklahoma	113,978,000
Osage County	21,592,000
Texas	103,332,000
Coastal	32,430,000
Kansas	36,232,000
Louisiana	26,523,000
Coastal	1,730,000
Wyoming	19,222,000
Salt Creek	12,133,000
Arkansas	10,190,000
Illinois	10,044,000
Kentucky	8,951,000
West Virginia	8,003,000
Pennsylvania	7,434,000
Ohio	7,333,000
Northwestern	2,139,000
Montana, Indiana, New York...	3,578,000
Colorado, Tennessee (12,000)...	121,000

In the fiscal year 1921-2, the exports of domestic petroleum from the United States were as follows, in gallons:—

Crude petroleum	378,975,150
Gasoline, naphtha, etc.	550,478,181
Illuminating oil	807,701,055
Gas and fuel oil	740,196,772
Lubricating oil	322,872,204

Crude goes chiefly to Canada; Gasoline and naphtha to the United Kingdom and France; Illuminating to the United Kingdom and China; Gas and fuel to the United Kingdom and Canada; Lubricating to Germany, the United Kingdom and France.

The value of these exports was $320,594,871. In addition, there were exported 5,611,863 tons of bunker oil, valued at $35,270,789. In the same year, the imports, chiefly from Mexico, comprised 5,710,290,838 gallons of crude oil, valued at $72,951,583 and 181,855,567 gallons of refined, valued at $12,849,824.

The refining of petroleum was covered in the last federal census of manufactures, taken as of 1919 and published in 1922. A summary of the industry is given in an adjoining table.

The leading states are New Jersey, with 17% of the wage-earners and 17% of the value of products; Texas, 14% and 15%; California, 9% and 13%; Pennsylvania, 14% and 11%; Oklahoma, 8% and 9%.

The quantity and value of the chief products for the report year were as follows:—

	Gallons	*Value*
Gasoline	3,648,590,635	$679,867,064
Naphtha	392,282,320	65,077,854
Benzine	67,491,006	10,015,853
Illuminating oil	2,305,489,735	235,663,055
Fuel oils—		
Distillates	646,652,618	36,548,107
Gas oil	1,393,623,486	76,383,453
Residual	5,727,624,452	205,192,779
Partly refined oils, for re-running	428,346,637	29,268,849
Lubricating oils	821,580,400	196,242,439
Greases	28,147,534	11,896,655

About half the wage-earners work in establishments where the prevailing hours per week are 48, as compared with 54 in 1914 and 1909.

There were 15 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 13, from 500 to 1,000; 19, from 250 to 500; 32, from 100 to 250; 44, from 50 to 100; 59, from 20 to 50.

The growth of the petroleum-refining industry has been as follows:—

	1919 (Pub. 1922)	*1914*	*1909*	*1899*
Number Establishments	320	176	147	67
Persons Engaged	73,473	31,077	16,640	13,447
Capital	$1,170,278,189	$325,646,120	$181,916,205	$ 95,327,892
Salaries and Wages	116,368,661	27,289,894	13,758,945	8,528,487
Cost of Materials	1,247,908,355	325,264,509	199,273,402	102,859,341
Value of Products	1,632,532,766	396,361,406	236,997,659	123,929,384

There were 168 establishments with annual product valued at more than $1,000,000 each; with 56, at between $500,000 and $1,000,000; and 65, at between $100,000 and $500,000.

Petroleum:
- Resources—
  - Of Dutch East Indies, disposition of, 8956, 8968.
  - Of Mesopotamia, disposition of, discussed, 8877, 8879.
  - Of world discussed, 8880.
- Specifications left to Fuel Administration, 8560.
- Taxation of, in Holland, etc., referred to, 4979, 4986.

Pettaquamscut Purchasers.—In 1660 John Hull, who had become well known through his coinage of pine-tree money (q. v.), organized a company and purchased a tract of land from the Narragansett Indians, about Pettaquamscut Rock, on the south shore of Rhode Island, between Point Judith and Wickford. About the same time lands near Wickford had been purchased by a company headed by Humphrey Atherton, of Massachusetts, the two companies claiming the same territory. When the boundary line between Connecticut and Rhode Island was settled, in 1662, the Atherton Company had its region placed under the government of Connecticut. In 1665 the royal commission ordered the Indians to return the price paid by the Atherton Company, and that the lands be returned to them. The disputed territory became the King's province. It was later made part of Rhode Island and was known as King's County until the Revolution, when the name was changed to Washington County. It was a subject of contention between Connecticut and Rhode Island for fifty years.

Pewter Muggers.—A faction of the Democratic party in New York City which in 1828 bolted the Tammany candidates. These dissatisfied Democrats held their meetings over a resort in Frankfort Street, New York, locally famous for its refreshments served in pewter mugs; hence the name.

Philadelphia, Pa.:
- Centennial anniversary of framing Constitution, proposition to celebrate, in, discussed, 5118.
- Centennial Exposition held in, discussed, 4158, 4215, 4254, 4308.
  - Appropriation for, recommended, 4270, 4314.
  - Commission, referred to, 4272, 4315.
  - Correspondence regarding, referred to, 4311.
  - Executive orders, regarding, 4235, 4280.
  - Government aid to, recommended, 4215.
  - Proclamation regarding, 4181.
  - Referred to, 9120.
  - Removal of Government exhibit to Washington for permanent exhibit, recommended, 4364.
  - Exhibits of foreign nations contributed for, 4365.
  - Report of board on behalf of Executive Departments, printing and distribution of, recommended, 4381, 4429.
  - Report of commission, referred to, 4364, 4465.
  - Results of, discussed, 4355, 4364, 4465.
- Congress assembles in, 240, 244, 247.
- Courts, Federal, in, provision for accommodation of, discussed, 2832.
  - Appropriation for, recommended, 2899.
- Declaration of Independence, celebration of, at. (See Centennial, *above*, and Sesquicentennial, *below*.)
- Dry dock at, 2414.
  - Completed, 2669.
- National Conference of Electricians at, referred to, 4956.
- Officers continued in, without consent of Senate referred to, 3663.
- Post-office building to be erected in, 2911.
  - Appropriation for, recommended, 2912.
- Seat of Government transferred to, Washington from, 281, 295, 298.
- Sesquicentennial anniversary of Declaration of Independence, proposal to celebrate at, 9120.
- Sickness prevalent in, does not prevent convening of Congress at, 240.

Philadelphia (Pa.), Occupation of.—The defeat of Washington's army at Brandywine Creek and the disaster to Wayne's forces at Paoli rendered Howe's occupation of Philadelphia merely a successful manœuver. Sept. 25, 1777, he entered Germantown, and the next day sent Cornwallis to occupy Philadelphia. The occupation was effected without a battle.

Philadelphia, The:
- Attacked by vessel of Morocco, 352.
  - Disavowal of, by Emperor of Morocco, 353.
- Wrecked on coast of Tripoli, 356, 362.
  - Claims of officers and crew arising out of, 1025.

Philippine Commission, mentioned, 6692, 6861.

Philippines.—The Philippine group, ly-

ing off the southern coast of Asia, extending almost due north and south from Formosa to Borneo and the Moluccas, between longitude 116° 40′-126° 34′ and latitude 4° 40′-21° 10′, approximately numbers about 3,141 islands and islets, of which 1,668 are listed by name, while 1,473 are, so far as known, without names. The actual land area is given as 114,420 square miles. The six New England States, New York, and New Jersey have about an equal area. The island of Luzon, on which the capital city (Manila) is situated, is the largest, most populous, and wealthiest member of the group, being about the size of the State of New York. Mindanao is nearly as large, but its population is very much smaller. There are two islands with areas exceeding 10,000 square miles each, namely, Luzon, with 40,814, and Mindanao, with 36,906. There are nine islands each of which has an area of more than 1,000 square miles and less than 10,000. There are twenty between 100 and 1,000 square miles, seventy-three between 10 and 100 square miles, and two hundred and sixty-two between 1 and 10 square miles. The remaining number, 2,775, or seven-eighths of all, have areas less than a square mile each. The islands more important because of their size or population are Luzon, Mindanao, Samar, Palawan, Panay, Mindoro, Leyte, Negro, Cebu and Bohol.

A census of the Philippines was taken in 1903 under the auspices of the Census Office. The population returned was 7,635,426. Of this number about seven millions are more or less civilized. The wild tribes form about 9 per cent. of the entire population. Racially the inhabitants are principally Malays. The civilized tribes are practically all adherents of the Catholic Church, the religion being that introduced into the country by the Spaniards when they took possession of the islands in 1565. The Church has since then been a strong ruling power and the priesthood is numerous. The Moros are Mohammedans.

The climate is one of the best in the tropics. The thermometer during July and August rarely goes below 79° or above 85°. The extreme ranges in a year are said to be 61° and 97°, and the annual mean 81°.

Although agriculture is the chief occupation of the Filipinos, yet only one-ninth of the surface is under cultivation. The soil is very fertile, and even after deducting the mountainous areas it is probable that the area of cultivation can be very largely extended and that the islands can support population equal to that of Japan (42,000,000).

The chief products are hemp, rice, corn, sugar, tobacco, cocoanuts, and cacao, hemp being the most important commercial product and constituting 43 per cent. of the value of all exports. Coffee and cotton were formerly produced in large quantities —the former for export and the latter for home consumption; but the coffee plant has been almost exterminated by insects and the home-made cotton cloths have been driven out by the competition of those imported from England. The rice and corn are principally produced in Luzon and Mindoro and are consumed in the islands. The cacao is raised in the southern islands, the best quality of it at Mindanao. The sugar cane is raised in the Visayas. The hemp is produced in Southern Luzon, Mindaro, the Visayas, and Mindanao. It is nearly all exported in bales. Tobacco is raised in many of the islands, especially Luzon and Negros.

The last census gave the population as 10,350,640. About 1,000,000 of the inhabitants are non-Christian, and there are about 12,000 Americans and Europeans on the islands, exclusive of troops. Since 1902, Chinese immigration has been prohibited, the present number of Chinese being about 35,000. The natives are mostly of the Malayan race, but there are some tribes of Negritos.

The capital is Manila, with a population of about 300,000. Other large towns are Iloilo (Panay), 48,000; Cebu (Cebu), 46,000; Laoag, 46,000; Albay, 43,000; Vigan, 18,000, and Naga, 12,000, (all on Luzon); and Zamboanga (Mindanao), 30,000.

History and Government.—The islands were discovered by Magellan in 1521 and were conquered by Spanish forces about fifty years later. They were ceded to the United States after the Spanish-American War, during which they had been occupied by American forces. (See Spanish-American War and Manila Bay, Battle of.) After the cession, the natives revolted against the rule by a new Power, and the insurrections were not quelled for several years. In the act for the temporary government of the Philippines of 1902, a civil Governor and Governing Commission were established. In 1907, local elections were held for the native assembly, and later acts further provided for extension of self-government. By Act of Congress on August 29, 1916, the Philippines were practically granted autonomy. In the following years, the movement for complete independence has grown in the islands, and has found much support in the United States, although there is also a feeling that the moment for complete independence has not yet arrived.

Under the provisions of the act of 1916, the Governor-General, the Vice-Governor (who is also the secretary of the Department of Public Education), the Auditor and Deputy Auditor are appointed by the President of the United States. Both branches of the Philippine Congress are elected by the people. The 24 members of the Senate are elected for six years each and the 90 members of the House of Representatives, for three years each. The Congress elects the two resident commissioners to the United States, who hold office for the term of three years. The secretaries of the six executive departments are selected by the Governor-General, by and with the consent of the Philippine Senate, and each, except that of the Department for Public Education, must be a native.

The power of the Governor-General over legislation is practically that enjoyed by the President of the United States over the legislation of the United States Congress. However, all acts of the Philippine Congress are generally subject to the jurisdiction of the United States President, Congress and Supreme Court.

The islands are divided into forty-five provinces, of which thirty-three are classed as regular and the remainder as special provinces. Each of the regular provinces is administered by a Governor and two other members of a Governing Board, the three elected. The Governors of the special provinces, with one exception, are selected by the Governor-General. Municipal government is almost entirely autonomous.

There are a Supreme Court of nine and twenty-nine district judges. There are about 6,000 officers and men in the Philippine Constabulary, and there is also a Philippine National Guard, or militia. The United States in normal times keeps about

15,000 soldiers in the islands, more than half of these being Philippine scouts.

Education.—The islands are divided into forty-eight educational divisions. The teachers include more than 400 American and 11,800 native teachers. English is taught in all the public schools, which have an enrollment of about 700,000. There are also a number of special schools maintained by the Government for the non-Christian population, and many private and professional schools. There are a number of newspapers and periodicals published in English, Spanish and the native dialects.

Finance.—In recent years the budget has been in the neighborhood of $35,000,000. The public debt is about $1,000,000. Besides the United States currency, the islands have the Mexican dollar, which is worth $.50 in United States currency; and there is also a silver peso in circulation. The sole Government depository is the Philippine National Bank.

Production and Commerce.—The most important products are rice, Manila hemp, sugar cane, cocoanuts, corn, tobacco. The total area cultivated is about 7,000,000 acres, of which more than 3,000,000 are given over to rice, the annual production of which runs above 2,000,000,000 litres. Except for sugar and the production of hemp, agriculture is still largely primitive. The timber is especially valuable. More than one million dollars' worth of gold is produced annually. Other minerals are found, including silver, copper, platinum and petroleum.

For the last fiscal year, the value of the imports was $107,774,263, of which almost $65,000,000 came from the United States, with $7,000,000 from the French West Indies, $6,500,000 from China and $13,000,000 from Japan. The value of the exports was $122,729,238, of which more than $79,000,000 went to the United States, $15,000,000 to the United Kingdom, $7,000,000 to Japan, almost $6,000,000 to Honkong and $5,000,000 to China. In the last calendar year the United States imported from the Philippine Islands goods valued at $112,950,779 and exported thither goods valued at $99,830,055.

By far the most important import is cotton goods, followed in order of value by iron and steel goods, rice and food products. Almost half of the value of the exports is represented by Manila hemp, followed by sugar, tobacco and copra.

In the last year for which figures are available, the most important products exported from the United States to the Philippines, in order of value, were as follows: Iron and steel goods, including machinery; cotton goods, mineral oils, automobiles and parts, meat and dairy products, leather goods.

Communications.—In the last fiscal year, there entered and cleared in the foreign trade some 650 vessels, with a tonnage of 1,500,000. There are more than 800 post-offices. There are 5,500 miles of telegraph and almost 1,000 miles of cable. There are about 800 miles of railroad, chiefly on Luzon; and 6,000 miles of roads, of which more than 2,000 are hard-surfaced.

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Administration of, 6661, 6663, 6800.
Allegiance, oath of, taken by insurgents, 6692.
Amnesty for insurgents in, 6690, 6720.
Army of United States in, 6694, 6720, 6947.
Business conditions in, 6662, 6738, 6800, 7375.
Cable communications with, 6348, 6663.
Cattle plague in, 7015.
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Civil servants in, eulogy of, 6929.
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Commission, report of, 6732, 6861.
Commissioners to, and duties of, set forth by President, 6584.
Competition of, with United States, 7017.
Contributions to be levied upon. (See Military occupation of, *post.*)
Cruelty by soldiers in, 6720.
Debt limit of, extension of, 7689.
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Education in, 7015.
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Force, etc., suggestions from commanders regarding, requested by President, 6580.
Fortifications in, completion of, urged, 7429, 7516.
Free trade with, proposed, 7017, 7050, 7374.
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Governor-general of, to report to Secretary of War, 8170.
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Proposed for future, 7911.
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Merritt, General, expeditions to, under, 6315.
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Otis, General, to avoid conflicts with insurgents, 6584.
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Progress of, 6928, 7015, 7017, 7051, 7232.
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Revenue of, 7015.
Scientific surveys in, proposed, 6944.
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Tariff in, discussed, 6738, 6930, 7017, 7050, 7374, 7380, 7406, 7516.
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American squadron and land forces at Manila discussed, 6319.
Thanks of President tendered commanders and men, 6579.

Phœnix, Arizona, office of Surveyor-General located at, 6704.

Phonograph.—The word phonograph is indiscriminately applied to all talking machines or instruments used for the reproduction of previously recorded sounds, whether of the voice or of musical instruments. A pencil attached to one prong of a tuning fork and passed lightly over a sheet of paper while the fork vibrated produced the first recorded sound. The earliest device for registering speech was made by Leon Scott in 1855. He called his machine the phonautograph. It consisted of a sort of cone, the larger end of which was open to receive the sound. From the smaller enclosed end, projected a tube, across which was stretched a flexible membrane. To this membrane was attached a bristle which moved in consonance with the slightest motion of the membrane. In front of the membrane was a horizontal cylinder or roll of paper covered with lampblack, against which the bristle touched lightly. Sound waves entering the open end of the cone were transmitted to the bristle by the vibrations of the membrane, and as the blackened cylinder was made to revolve and advance slowly the faintly moving bristle cut through the lampblack, leaving a white wavy line which was an exact graphic record of the sounds entering the cone.

In 1877 Edison constructed a form of this machine, substituting a metal diaphragm for the membrane, a sharp metallic point for the bristle and a wax or tin-foil-covered cylinder for the lampblack coated paper. In this machine the microscopic sound waves were indented instead of traced on the surface of the cylinder.

By reversing the machine and causing the metal point to retrace the indentations previously made in the cylinder the original sound was reproduced by the diaphragm.

Charles S. Tainter and C. A. Bell in 1885 substituted a wax cylinder for the tin-foil, and an up and down line was cut rather than indented in the wax.

In 1887 Emil Berliner, a German-American of Philadelphia, patented the gramophone, wherein the sound waves of a diaphragm are recorded on a disk as a wavy line in a horizontal plane, instead of as a vertical cut in a cylinder. As this line is cut in a continuous spiral, no feed screw is necessary to propel the metal point or the recorded sound waves, only a clock spring being necessary to rotate the disk. This was incorporated in the machine by Eldridge R. Johnson. With the expiration of the Tainter and Bell patents on wax records the etching process was abandoned for the wax cutting process, which now became common property, but horizontal recording was retained. Berliner made electrotyped reverses of these wax records, and from the plates so obtained duplicate copies of the records may be turned out like printed sheets from the printing press. The records, formerly stamped in celluloid or vulcanized rubber, are now printed on light fibrous compositions similar to paper pulp coated with shellac.

The manufacture of disk records began in 1897, and soon became recognized as an important industry. The cylinder machines remained in use under the names dictaphone and dictograph, and are used for recording conversation for future reproduction, such as testimony, instruction, commercial correspondence, etc., and the reproductions have been accepted as legal evidence by judges of criminal courts.

Opera singers, orators, musicians, orchestras, bands, and other entertainers were soon in demand for making records for reproduction, and the voice that once enthralled a contemporaneous audience but a brief hour may now become immortal and be heard by millions after life has left the human tones. The field thus widened has afforded new and increased popularity and earning power for all who sing or talk or play an instrument for hire. Some of the favorite singing artists are paid outright for the records of their voices, while others receive a percentage of the price of every record sold.

In 1889 there were but two establishments in the country making records and reproducing instruments. In ten years the number had increased to eleven, with a capital of $3,348,282, and a yearly output

valued at $2,246,274. In 1909 there were 18 establishments with a total capital of $14,363,361, and an output valued at $11,725,996. The most recent figures for phonographs, graphophones and talking machines show 166 establishments, with 33,826 individuals engaged, capital of $105,241,359, salaries and wages of $42,650,716 yearly, annual cost of materials, $59,740,205 and value of products, $158,547,870. The leading states are New Jersey, which produced 42¾% of the total value of products, and Connecticut. More than 2,200,000 machines were produced in the year and about 107,000,000 records and blanks. There were 3 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each and 11, with from 250 to 1,000.

Phosphate Lands. (See Lands, Phosphate).

Phosphates discovered on coast of Brazil, 4795.

Physicians in Indian Service, allowed private practice, 6893.

Piankeshaw Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Pictures, Films and Publications, Division of, created under Public Information Committee, 8360.

Piegan Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Pierce, Franklin.—1853-1857.

Seventeenth Administration—Democratic.

Vice-President—William R. King.

Secretary of State—
William L. Marcy.

Secretary of the Treasury—
James Guthrie.

Secretary of War—
Jefferson Davis.

Secretary of the Navy—
James C. Dobbin.

Secretary of the Interior—
Robert McClellan.

Postmaster-General—
James Campbell.

Attorney-General—
Caleb Cushing.

Nomination.—Pierce was elected as a Democrat. At the national convention which met at Baltimore in June, 1852, thirty-five ballots were taken for a Presidential candidate without a choice being reached and without mention of Pierce's name. Up to that point Lewis Cass and James Buchanan were leaders in the balloting. Virginia then presented Pierce's name and he was chosen on the forty-ninth ballot.

Platform.—The platform of the Democratic party commended rigid economy in public expenditure and a tariff for revenue and for the gradual payment of the public debt; opposed the national banking system as being unconstitutional; favored free immigration and ease of naturalization; deprecated Federal interference in domestic affairs, and especially in imposing restrictions upon slave-holding; supported the Fugitive Slave Act; characterized the war with Mexico as just and necessary; and condemned monopolies and exclusive legislation for the benefit of the few.

Opposition.—The Whig National Convention at Baltimore, in June, 1852, nominated General Winfield Scott on the fifty-third ballot, over Millard Fillmore and Daniel Webster. The party stood upon a platform embodying strict construction of the Constitution; freedom from entangling alliances with foreign countries; a tariff for revenue and for the encouragement of American industry; internal improvements, and support of the Fugitive Slave Act. The Free-Soil Democrats met at Pittsburg in August, 1852, and nominated John P. Hale, on a platform setting forth strict construction of the Constitution; "no more slave states, no slave territory, no nationalized slavery, and no national legislation for the extradition of slaves"; the abolition of slavery; the repugnance of the Fugitive Slave Act to the Constitution; the inconsistence with Democracy of the Compromise Measures of 1850; the natural right of all men to the soil; the holding in trust of the public lands for the landless settlers; the keeping of government funds separate from banking institutions; the provision by Congress of internal improvements; the hostility of the Free Democratic party to both the Whigs and the Democrats; and embodying the principles of the party in the phrase "Free Soil, Free Speech, Free Labor, and Free Men."

Vote.—The popular vote in thirty-one states—California participating for the first time—gave Pierce, 1,601,274; Scott, 1,386,580; and Hale, 155,825. The electoral vote, counted on Feb. 9, 1853, gave Pierce 254 votes, and Scott 42.

Party Affiliation.—Pierce gave his earliest political allegiance to the cause of General Jackson, whom he supported throughout. In Congress he opposed the abolition of slavery within the District of Columbia, and the policy of internal improvements. When he left Congress and retired temporarily to private life, he favored the annexation of Texas; and led the Democrats of his state in the memorable struggle against John P. Hale. In 1850, he reluctantly supported the several compromise measures, including the Fugitive Slave Act and the admission of California as a free state. He was thus in hearty accord with the principles enunciated by his party when elected to the Presidency.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the Thirty-third Congress the Senate was composed of 62 members, of whom 38 were Democrats, 22 Whigs, and 2 Free-Soil. The House was composed of 234 members, of whom 159 were Democrats, 71 Whigs, and 4 Free-Soil. In the Thirty-fourth Congress the Senate, of 62 members, was made up of 42 Democrats, 15 Republicans, and 5 Americans. The House, of 234 members, was divided as follows: 83 Democrats, 108 Republicans, and 43 Americans.

Finance.—The platform of the Democratic party upon which Pierce was elected committed the administration to a policy of rigid economy in the expenditure of the public funds. The practice of this economy, and opposition to internal improvements, curtailed the expenditure and left a surplus in the Treasury, which was applied to the reduction of the public debt, and made the subject of an argument in favor of a reduction in the tariff. The condition of the public finances is referred to and discussed in each of the annual messages, but as the statements cover dissimilar periods, the following table will better show the financial status of the country during the administration at the end of each fiscal year:—

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)

FLAG OF 1857

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Year.	Public Debt, Less Cash, in Treasury.	Receipts, Total Net, Ordinary.
1853.....	$59,803,117.70	$61,587,032.00
1854.....	42,242,222.42	73,800,341.00
1855.....	35,586,956.56	65,350,575.00
1856.....	10,965,953.01	74,056,699.00

Year.	Expenditures, Total Net, Ordinary.	Total Money in Circulation.
1853.....	$44,078,156.00	$402,238,107.00
1854.....	51,967,528.00	425,551,240.00
1855.....	56,316,198.00	418,020,247.00
1856.....	66,772,528.00	425,846,625.00

Foreign Policy.—In his Inaugural Address (page 2730) President Pierce advocated the cultivation of peace with the nations of the world. He said: "The rights, security and repose of this Confederacy reject the idea of interference or colonization on this side of the ocean by any foreign power beyond present jurisdiction as utterly inadmissible." During this administration, no fewer than twenty-eight treaties with foreign powers were signed. Among the most important of them was that with Japan by Commodore Perry; the settlement with Great Britain of the fisheries rights in Canada, and the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, and the Gadsden Treaty with Mexico. Complications with Nicaragua caused the bombardment of Greytown in the spring of 1854, by the United States vessel *Cyane*, in retaliation for property stolen from Americans; and in 1856, William Walker conducted a filibustering expedition against Nicaragua with such temporary success that President Pierce recognized the Minister sent by him to the United States. The British Minister and the Consuls at New York, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati were dismissed by President Pierce for complicity in recruiting in the United States for the Crimean War, in 1854 and 1855. Bills for the reorganization of the diplomatic and consular systems were signed by the President in 1855. The attempts to gain Cuba from Spain, in which the Ostend Manifesto (*q. v.*) was an incident, in 1854, proved abortive by reason of the unfriendly attitude of European powers and the excitement at home over the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. In his Fourth Annual Address he said (page 2950): "In foreign relations we have to attemper our power to the less happy condition of other Republics in America and to place ourselves in the calmness and conscious dignity of right by the side of the greatest and the wealthiest of the Empires of Europe."

Slavery.—In his Inaugural Address (page 2730) the President set forth his conviction that slavery was constitutional, as was also the Fugitive Slave Act, and denounced slavery agitation. "Such," he says, "have been, and are, my convictions, and upon them I shall act. I fervently hope that the question is at rest, and that no sectional or ambitious or fanatical excitement may again threaten the durability of our institutions or obscure the light of our prosperity." Doubtless he was sincere in his hopes and wishes, but the enforcement of his policies was fraught with tremendous and lasting results. The two most important pre-slavery measures supported by the Pierce administration were the Ostend Manifesto and the Kansas-Nebraska Bill. President Pierce reviews the historical and constitutional aspects of slavery in his Third Annual Message (page 2860), and, in concluding his denunciation of abolitionist reformers, says: "I know that the Union is a thousand times stronger than all the wild and chimerical schemes of social change which are generated one after another in the unstable minds of visionary sophists and interested agitators."

In his Fourth Annual Message (page 2930) he is especially severe in his arraignment of the slavery reformers, of whom he said: "They are perfectly aware that the change in the relative conditions of the white and black races in the slave-holding states which they would promote is beyond their lawful authority; that to them it is a foreign object; that it cannot be effected by any peaceful instrumentality of theirs; that for them and the states of which they are citizens the only path to its accomplishment is through burning cities, and ravaged fields, and slaughtering populations, and all there is most terrible in foreign, complicated with civil and servile, war; and that the first step in the attempt is the forcible disruption of a country embracing in its broad bosom a degree of liberty and an amount of individual and public prosperity to which there is no parallel in history, and substituting in its place hostile governments, driven at once and inevitably into mutual devastation and fratricidal carnage, transforming the new peaceful and felicitous brotherhood into a vast permanent camp of armed men, like the rival monarchies of Europe and Asia."

But for the wanton opening of the slavery question, Pierce's administration would have been one of the most creditable in the nation's history. But for the repeal of the Missouri Compromise and the popular excitement attending the whole question of slavery the defection from the Democratic party and the formation of the Republican party in 1856 would have been at least longer delayed.

Internal Improvements.—In his First Annual Message (page 2751) President Pierce declares that the subject of internal improvements "has stood as a deep graven line of division between statesmen of eminent ability and patriotism"; refers to President Jackson's message of May 27, 1830, on the subject; and asks Congress for a reconsideration of the subject, with a view to adopting a settled standard of action. In vetoing certain bills making appropriations for works coming under this head (page 2790), the President fully discusses the several phases of the question and clearly defines his opposing attitude, summing up with these words: "On the other hand, so long as these improvements are carried on by appropriations from the Treasury the benefits will continue to inure to those alone who enjoy the facilities afforded, while the expenditure will be a burden upon the whole country and the discrimination a double injury to places equally requiring improvement, but not equally favored by appropriations." He seeks to illustrate the difficulty of knowing what improvements may properly be provided by the national government and what should be left to individual or state enterprise, by concrete examples of railroads and harbor improvements. Again, in 1856, several bills of the same nature were vetoed by the President. In fact, nearly all of the vetoed measures during this administration were bills of this nature.

Commerce.—In his Second Annual Message (page 2808) President Pierce was able to say: "Our foreign commerce has reached a magnitude and extent nearly equal to that of the first maritime power of the earth, and exceeding that of any

other." Especial emphasis was laid in this message upon the necessity of securing by treaty with the other world powers a recognition of the rights of neutrals in time of war as the best means of conserving the commercial interests and safety of the country. Great progress was made by the administration in securing from European nations a treaty agreement to the principle that free ships make free goods, except in the case of articles contraband of war, and that neutral property other than contraband, though on board enemy's ships, shall be exempt from confiscation. The condition of the commercial aspects of the country during the four years' administration is presented in the following table:

	1853	1854
Imports	$263,777,265	$297,803,794
Exports	203,489,282	237,043,764
Miles of Railway	15,360	16,720
Tons of Vessels Built	427,494	536,046
No. of Immigrants	368,645	427,833
	1855	1856
Imports	$257,808,708	$310,432,310
Exports	218,909,503	281,219,423
Miles of Railway	18,374	22,016
Tons of Vessels Built	583,450	469,293
No. of Immigrants	200,877	195,857

Tariff.—In his First Annual Message, President Pierce (page 2747) asks the attention of Congress to the consideration of a decrease in duties, in view of the surplus in the Treasury. Again, in his Third Annual Message he says (page 2871): "The conspicuous fact that the annual revenue from all sources exceeds by many millions of dollars the amount needed for a prudent and economical administration of public affairs, can not fail to suggest the propriety of an early revision and reduction of the tariff of duties on imports." In his Fourth Annual Message (page 2941) he urges a reduction so that the revenue from customs should not exceed forty-eight or fifty millions. Congress accordingly passed the act of March 3, 1857, "reducing the duty on imports, and for other purposes."

Army.—In his Second Annual Message President Pierce (page 2819) urges that the forces be increased to prevent the Indian atrocities on the frontier, and adds: "Without increase of the military force these scenes will be repeated, it is to be feared, on a larger scale and with more disastrous consequences." At the previous session of Congress a bill was passed increasing the pay of the rank and file of the Army, which the President reports "has had beneficial results, not only in facilitating enlistments, but in obvious improvement in the class of men who enter the service." He regrets that the increase had not been extended to the officers. To meet the present needs of the nation, he asks for four new regiments, two of infantry and two of cavalry. Several suggestions are made in this message to reform the Army organization, especially in the direction of the creation of a retired list in order to provide for officers who, having rendered distinguished or even meritorious service, would, by the standard of seniority be promoted to posts which impairment by age would render them unfit to fill. He asks that a test of one year be made of the efficacy of the plan proposed. The organization of the artillery is subjected to criticism because the force as then organized required infantry duty from the force, because of its arrangement in regiments instead of batteries.

In his Fourth Annual Message (page 2941) he commends the work of the Army in suppressing the hostile demonstrations of the Indians and reiterates his recommendation for the adoption of measures of reform in the organization and in the increase of the force which "during the past year has been so constantly employed against the hostile Indians in various quarters that it can scarcely be said to have been a peace establishment."

Navy.—The Navy was substantially increased during this administration by the addition of six new steam frigates, of which the President says (page 2942): "The condition of the Navy is not merely satisfactory but exhibits the most gratifying evidences of increased vigor. . . . The new frigates ordered by Congress are now (1856) afloat and two of them are in active service. They are superior models of naval architecture and with their formidable battery add largely to public strength and security."

Among the reforms in the organization of the Navy carried through by this administration were the apprentice system by which boys were trained for service on a three years' cruise in national vessels, the permission granted to honorably discharged seamen to enlist after a few months without cessation of pay, and the law for the promotion of discipline in the naval force.

Pierce, Franklin:
- Annual messages of, 2740, 2806, 2860, 2930.
- Biographical sketch of, 2728.
- Death of, announced and honors to be paid memory of, 3979.
- Domestic relations discussed by, 2874, 2930, 2950.
- Exequaturs granted consuls of Great Britain revoked by, 2924, 2925.
- Finances discussed by, 2746, 2817, 2870, 2940.
- Foreign policy discussed by, 2731, 2745, 2807, 2864, 2904.
- Inaugural addresses of, 2730.
- Intercourse with British minister terminated by, 2908.
- Internal dissensions discouraged by, 2755, 2930.
- Internal improvements discussed by, 2751, 2789, 2790, 2919, 2920, 2921.
- Large standing army unnecessary in time of peace, 2733.
- Portrait of, 2227.
- Powers of Federal and State Governments discussed by, 2751, 2755, 2780, 2789, 2790, 2855, 2874, 2919, 2920, 2921, 2930.
- Proclamations of—
  - Boundary line with Mexico, 2926.
  - Commercial agreement with Great Britain, 2858, 2922.
  - Exequaturs issued consuls of Great Britain revoked, 2924, 2925.
  - Extraordinary session of—
    - Congress, 2927.
    - Senate, 2959.
  - Military expeditions against—
    - Cuba, 2805. (See illustration opposite 2823.)
    - Mexico, 2804.

Nicaragua, 2921.
Privileges granted certain ports, 2859.
Unlawful combination in Kansas, 2923.
Prosperous condition of country discussed by, 2755, 2950.
Retirement of, from Presidency alluded to by, 2949.
Sectional agitation in the States discussed by, 2755, 2874, 2930.
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Veto messages of—
Deepening channel over—
St. Clair flats, 2919.
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French spoliation claims, 2840.
Grant of lands for benefit of indigent insane, 2780.
Improvement of—
Des Moines Rapids, 2921.
Navigation of Patapsco River, 2921.
Ocean mail transportation, 2855.
Removing obstructions to navigation in Mississippi River, 2919.
Repair and preservation of public works, 2789.
Reasons for vetoing, 2790.

Pilgrim Fathers.—A name given by William Bradford in his journal to certain emigrants under the leadership of Bradford, Brewster, Cushman, Carver, and Miles Standish, who came to New England early in the seventeenth century on account of religious differences in England and founded the colony of Plymouth. Those who came in the first three ships are also called "old comers" or "forefathers." The first ship, the *Mayflower*, arrived on the coast in December, 1620, and had on board 108 souls. The *Fortune* came in November, 1621, with twenty-nine, and the *Anne* and *Little James* came in August, 1623, bringing forty-six persons. In religion the Pilgrims were Separatists or Independents, while the settlers of Massachusetts Bay were Puritan, who at first adhered to the Church of England and endeavored to purify it.

Pilgrims, tercentenary of landing of, celebration of, 8861.

Pinchot-Ballinger Controversy. — James R. Garfield, Secretary of the Interior under Roosevelt, and Gifford Pinchot, Chief Forester, attacked the policy and conduct of Mr. R. A. Ballinger, Secretary of the Interior under President Taft, in the matter of the conservation of the natural resources in the public domain, using as their principal text the course of Mr. Ballinger with reference to the coal lands in Alaska.

Congress, in January, 1910, appointed a committee consisting of six members from each house to investigate the charges. In September the four Democratic members and one "insurgent" Republican met in Minneapolis, and drafted a report recommending the dismissal of Mr. Ballinger. The seven "regular" Republican members issued a majority report, Dec. 7, 1910, in which it was declared that the evidence did not exhibit Mr. Ballinger as being anything but a competent and honorable gentleman, honestly and faithfully performing the duties of his high office with an eye single to the public interest. The most important finding of the committee was that coal mines on the public land should be leased, not sold, by the Government. The attacks on Mr. Ballinger, however, continued, and he resigned his office before the close of President Taft's administration.

Pine-Tree Money.—On May 27, 1652, the general court of Massachusetts passed an act establishing a mint at Boston. John Hull was appointed mint master, and he began the coinage of shillings, 6d. pieces, and 3d. pieces. This was called pine-tree money from a design on the obverse of a pine-tree encircled by a grained ring, with the legend "Masathusets. In." The coinage was discontinued on the death of the mint master, Oct. 1, 1683.

Pines, Isle of.—An island, with an area of almost 1,000 square miles, off the west end of Cuba and comprised within the province of Havana. (See Cuba.)

Pines, Isle of, Cuba, referred to, 6739.

Pioneering, illustrations of, opposite 843, 1083, 1777, 2019.

Piracy.—Robbery on the high seas. In the law of nations the essential element of piracy is the intention of preying indiscriminately on the human race, and not a desire to interfere with the trade of some distinct power. As the high seas are not under the jurisdiction of any one state, the crime of piracy is triable in any court. The difference between a pirate and a privateer consists in these facts, that whereas the former is a sea rover who preys on the vessels and goods of any nation he may chance to run across, or who makes descents upon land for purposes of plunder, a privateer, on the other hand, has for his purpose the preying upon the commerce of a hostile nation only; he is under bond to the state whose flag he flies and of which he carries the commission or letter of marque granting him a share in the prizes taken. A privateer exceeding his commission might not be considered a pirate, but one with commissions from two opposite belligerents would be, for it would be apparent that his motive would be plunder of both. A vessel of a part of a country organized for rebellion has been held to be piratical because, although it may have a commission, such commission issued by an unknown and unrecognized power can not be admitted as valid, as it offers no guaranty of legal belligerent behavior. Piracy in the international sense of the word, however, is a crime against all nations; but any nation may class other crimes under this head.

The United States in 1820 made the slave-trade piracy for any of its citizens on any ship and for persons not citizens on any of its vessels. Notwithstanding this law passed by the United States, slave trading was not piracy in the international sense of the word. Search of a vessel by a public ship of another state is a war right only, but the right to search on suspicion of piracy exists at all times. The usual penalty for piracy is the confiscation of the vessel and hanging of the crew, while the penalty for privateering is at most imprisonment. (See also Privateering.)

Piracy:
Cuba, piracies from, suppressed, 782.
Gulf of Mexico, force employed in, for suppression of, 826.
Mediterranean Sea infested with piracies, 929.
Practice of—
Death penalty for, discussed, 2202.
Must be suppressed, 848.
Prizes captured by pirates, recommendations regarding recapture of, 3248.
Puerto Rico, piracies from, suppressed, 783.
Sumatra, American vessels attacked by pirates on coast of, 1159.
Vessels instructed to defend themselves against, 3248.
West Indies, 758, 765, 984.
Suppression of, in, 929.

Pittsburg Landing (Tenn.), Battle of. (See Shiloh (Tenn.), Battle of.)

Pi-Ute Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Plague, The (see also Contagious Diseases; International Sanitary Conference; Quarantine Regulations):
Regulations to prevent introduction of, into United States, 4501.
Revoked, 4509.

Plant Industry, Bureau of.—This bureau of the Department of Agriculture conducts experiments in economic botany, physiology, and diseases of plants and forest trees; plant breeding; soil bacteriology; biophysics; acclimatization and adaptation of plants. It also studies farm management; demonstration work with farmers in improved farm practice; conditions of agriculture under dry land, irrigation and other special conditions. It also collects and tests seeds and plants from foreign countries. It engages in the purchase and distribution of seeds, largely through members of Congress; makes tests of imported and domestic seeds, and establishes standard grades of grain and cotton. It takes care of department parks and conservatories, and manages the Arlington Experimental farm.

There are more than 6,300,000 farms in the United States. The primary function of this bureau is to assist the farmer to increase the output per acre and at the same time to build up and maintain the fertility of the soil.

Study of the diseases of forest trees, plants, fruit, potatoes, cotton and truck crops engage the attention of the bureau. In one recent year $2,730,892 was expended in fighting diseases of plants. Standard grades of cotton and corn have been established by the bureau and enacted into law by Congress to the advantage of both buyer and seller.

Plaster of Paris, restriction on importation of, removed by proclamation, 603, 605.

Platforms.—In politics the platform of a party is the public declaration of the principles that the party represents. In May, 1832, a national assembly of young men was held in Washington, D. C., to indorse the nomination of Henry Clay by the National Republican party. They agreed to the first platform ever adopted by a national convention. In 1844 both the Whigs and Democrats drew up platforms, but in 1848 the Whigs refused to commit themselves by a platform. After this time the adoption of party platforms by national conventions became general.

Platt Amendment. (See Cuba.)

Platt National Park. (See Parks, National.)

Plattsburg, The, surrender of persons charged with murder on board of, referred to, 1808.

Plattsburg (N. Y.), Battle of.—The overthrow of Napoleon by the allied powers in 1814 released many British soldiers from service in Europe, and several thousand of them were sent to reenforce the little army in Canada. By Aug. 1, Governor-General Prevost had 15,000 troops under his command at Quebec, most of them hardened veterans from the Peninsula. One brigade was sent west. The remainder were held for a contemplated invasion of New York. Wilkinson and Hampton had been retired from the American Army and Gen. George Izard was placed in command of the right wing of the Army of the North, May 4, 1814, with headquarters at Plattsburg, N. Y., near the head of Lake Champlain. Notwithstanding it was evident that the British contemplated a descent upon New York by way of Lake Champlain and the Hudson, Izard was detached from his command and sent with 4,000 men to the Niagara frontier, leaving Gen. Macomb in command with about 3,500 men. Sept. 6, 1814, the British army, fully 14,000 strong, already upon American soil, marched toward Plattsburg. Maj. Wool, with a body of about 300 regulars, met the invading army at Beekmantown, about four miles north of Plattsburg, and subjected it to a harassing fire all the way to the Saranac River. Wool's retreating column crossed the stream to South Plattsburg and destroyed the bridges. Though in overwhelming force, the British army was checked, with a loss in killed and wounded of more than 200 men. The American loss was 45.

From Sept. 7 to 11, Prevost's army rested, preparatory to acting in conjunction with the fleet on Lake Champlain. On the 11th, while the forces of Macomb and Prevost contended on land, a desperate naval battle was fought on Lake Champlain between the American and British fleets, the former under Macdonough and the latter under Downie. This battle lasted for two hours, resulting in victory for the Americans. The British lost 200 men and the commodore of the fleet. The news of the naval victory reached the contending armies at a critical point of the battle and turned the tide in favor of the Americans. Prevost fled with his army to Champlain, leaving behind his sick and wounded and large quantities of stores. Sept. 24 the British returned to Canada, having lost in the expedition about 2,000 men. (See Lake Champlain, Battle of, and illustration opposite page 651.)

Plattsburg, N. Y., battle of, British troops defeated in, 534.

Plattsburg Training Camp—The wave of Preparedness (q. v.) which swept over the country in 1914, 1915, and 1916, was responsible for the establishment of a training camp for college graduates and business and professional men at Plattsburg, N. Y., in 1915. The camp was under the direction of the United States Regular Army, and di-

rectly under Major-General Leonard Wood, commander of the Department of the East. The camp was so successful and attracted so much attention that other similar camps were established in different parts of the country during the following year. The Plattsburg camp was held again in 1916, and in 1917 was used as a training center for officers volunteering for service in the European War. Attendance at the camp was voluntary, and did not increase the attendant's military obligations to the Government; and the camp was established primarily for those men who wished to increase their potential military effectiveness for the country, but who were unable to assume service in the National Guard.

Playgrounds.—The playground movement owes its origin in the United States to a realization of the importance of organized recreation in the development of the individual and of the community, together with the growth of urban congestion and commercialized amusements which has altered radically the facilities for recreation within the past few decades. The establishment of recreation centers, both daytime and evening, both separate and in the public schools, has gone along hand in hand with the establishment of playgrounds.

From their organization, cities in New England had set apart land for common usage, known as "Commons," which became naturally the center of the public recreation in those localities. In the third decade of the nineteenth century, an enthusiasm for outdoor gymnasium work led to the establishment of an outdoor gymnasium in Salem, Massachusetts in 1821, followed by others in surrounding towns; but the movement had died out by 1830. There is a record of a vacation school in Boston in 1866, and of others in 1879 and 1881. In 1872, Brookline, Massachusetts, became the first city to purchase land for playground purposes, and the first park playground and recreation center was opened in Chicago in 1876. In 1886, a number of sand gardens for children were started in Boston, where in 1889 arose the first public gymnasium for adult men. New York State provided in 1888 for the incorporation of societies to further public recreation, and a landmark in the playground movement is 1903, the date of the formation of the Public School Athletic League. Later developments of playgrounds in large cities have been associated with general reform endeavors concerned with the abolition of the slums, the lesson being early learned that evils can best be combated by substituting channels for normal development.

Latest available figures indicate that there are in the United States 414 cities maintaining 3,270 public recreation centers and playgrounds. The paid workers number 7,122, of whom 1,058 are employed throughout the year. Six hundred and seventy-five of the centers are open throughout the year, and 65 cities maintain training classes for their playground directors and teachers. The most common forms of activity are folk dancing, story-telling, civics, industrial work, swimming, tramping, singing. (See also Social Settlements.)

Pleasant Hill (La.), Battle of.—After the defeat of the Federal army under Gen. Banks at Sabine Cross Roads, April 8, 1864, it retreated by way of Pleasant Grove to Pleasant Hill, about eighteen miles south, where Banks was joined by Gen. A. J. Smith with 10,000 men. Occupying a strong position here, the Federals awaited the pursuing force under Kirby Smith and Dick Taylor. April 9, about 4 o'clock in the afternoon, the Confederates came up and began the attack. In the battle which ensued they were checked and some of the guns they had taken the day before at Sabine Cross Roads were retaken. Banks now returned to the Red River at Grand Ecore, having lost in the campaign 18 guns, 5,000 men, 130 wagons, 1,200 horses, and many small arms.

Pleuro-Pneumonia among cattle, discussed, 4578, 4508, 4771, 5112, 5383, 5764, 5887.

Plumed Knight of Maine.—A soubriquet given to James G. Blaine.

Plymouth, celebration of tercentenary of landing of Pilgrims at, 8861.

Plymouth Colony.—The earliest settlement in Massachusetts. It was founded by a party of English Separatists who arrived in this country Dec. 21, 1620, and landed for permanent settlement in the following January. These Separatists were dissenters from the Church of England. Unlike the Puritans, who sought to purify the church, they regarded such purification as hopeless, and therefore advocated and practiced separation. The Plymouth colonists came to America from Delft, Holland, whither they had emigrated from Plymouth, England. One of the chief objects in coming to America was to enjoy their religion without molestation. The company named their settlement Plymouth, partly because it had been so called by Capt. John Smith, who had previously surveyed the harbor, and partly because the people of Plymouth, England, had treated them kindly. Miles Standish was made captain, with military authority, soon after landing, and John Carver was chosen the first governor of the colony. They entered into a treaty with Massasoit, chief of the Wampanoags, which was faithfully kept for fifty-five years. No royal charter was ever granted. With the arrival of the ship *Fortune* and twenty-nine immigrants in 1621 came a land patent from the Council for New England. The patent did not fix territorial limits, but allowed 100 acres of land to each immigrant and 1,500 for public buildings, and empowered the grantees to make laws and set up a government. After enduring many hardships and privations the first colonists were joined by others from England and material prosperity followed. Plymouth Colony became a member of the New England Confederation in 1643. By the Massachusetts charter of 1691 it was united with the Colony of Massachusetts Bay.

Plymouth Company.—In 1606 a company of merchants of Bristol and Plymouth, England, were incorporated under a charter granted by James I. and called the North Virginia Company. They became a rival of the London Company. In 1607, having obtained a grant of land between Long Island and Passamaquoddy Bay, they sent out two ships carrying a company of colonists commanded by George Popham. A settlement was attempted on the Kennebec, but Popham died and the other colonists returned home. The company continued to exist till 1620, when it was reorganized as the New England Company or Council for New England.

Plymouth, N. C., capture of, referred to, 3458.

Pocket, The, convention with Texas, for adjustment of claims in case of 1686.

Pocket-Borough.—An opprobrious term referring to a political division supposed to be completely controlled by a leader or boss; especially with the implication that it is controlled by the use of money from his pocket.

Pocket Vetoes. (See the several Presidents; the several messages.)

Point Barrow, Alaska, refuge station established at, 5476.

Pola assigned to Italy, 8704.

Poland.—A country of central Europe, bounded on the west by Germany; on the south by Czecho-Slovakia, Hungary and Roumania; on the east by Ukraine and Russia; and on the north by Lithuania, East Prussia, Danzig and the Baltic Sea. Even several years after the close of the World War, its eastern boundary was in dispute with Soviet Russia; its northern boundary in dispute with Lithuania; and with territories to its north and southwest to be determined by plebiscites. However, its probable final area was carefully computed at 150,000 square miles, with a population of some 30,000,000.

History.—The history of Poland is entirely legendary until the middle of the ninth century, when there is some evidence for believing that a central kingdom was established from a number of tribes. However, it is not until the latter half of the tenth century, when the country became Christianized, that Poland swings into the orbit of European history. About 1200, Pomerania separated itself from Poland, and in 1241 the country was overrun by Mongol tribes, was conquered, and was generally subdivided. Soon after this, German and Jewish colonists entered the country, and helped to add to its economic growth. In the fourteenth century, Poland regained its territorial integrity, with Cracow as the capital. At this time, Galicia also was annexed.

From 1386 to 1572, Poland was under the Jagellon dynasty, which brought the country to its greatest power, eventually reaching an area of about 375,000 square miles and a population of 15,000,000. Lithuania was added in 1549, and later much of the Ukraine and Livonia. The Protestant Reformation swept through Poland, but soon gave way before a strong Catholic reaction. In the seventeenth century, Poland was drawn into wars with Sweden, and with the Cossacks of Russia. She was defeated in the Battle of Warsaw in 1656, and much Polish territory had to be ceded to Russia. In 1674, the crown was given to John Sobieski, who, with German forces, saved Vienna from the Turks; and in the following years Poland was engaged in struggles with the Turks, the Saxons and later with Sweden again.

The early years of the eighteenth century saw the beginning of Russian penetration into Poland, and the decline of Polish power. The Russian court allied itself with certain elements among the Polish nobility, and began to control the selection of the Polish rulers. The country hence became torn by civil wars. In 1764, Poland was invaded by a Russian army, and the Russian successes made inevitable the cession of further territory to the Tsar's domain. In order also to profit by the Polish reverses, Austria and Prussia joined Russia in the first partition of Poland. By treaty of August 5, 1772, Russia got part of old Lithuania, Prussia got West Prussia and other territory and Austria got Galicia. Again Russia allied herself with the reactionary Polish nobility, and invaded the country again in 1792. The Poles rallied under the leadership of Kosciuszko, and defeated the enemy at Dubienka on July 17, 1792; but a Prussian invasion was followed by the second partition, in 1793, Russia taking more of Lithuania and Polish Ukraine, and Prussia adding a large slice of territory on the west.

Again the Poles rose under Kosciuszko, and the Russians were driven from Warsaw, but again internal dissensions proved fatal, and on October 10, 1794, the Poles went down in complete defeat. In 1795, therefore, the partition of all the remainder of Poland occurred, and Poland ceased to exist as an independent country. Under Napoleon, the Duchy of Warsaw was created in Polish territory, but vanished with the final defeat of Napoleon. The Congress of Vienna in 1815 confirmed the final partition of Poland by distributing the Duchy of Warsaw among Russia, Prussia and Austria, so that in all Russia obtained some 220,500 square miles of Poland, Prussia 26,000 square miles, and Austria 30,500 square miles.

In Austria (Galicia), the Poles were well-treated, whereas in Prussia they were subjected to suppression and colonization, so that the problem of racial antagonism continued in Prussian Poland into the twentieth century. For a period of years after the Congress of Vienna, the majority of the Poles, who were in Russian Poland, were well treated; but a revolt in 1831 saw the beginning of suppression and deportation. Further revolts against Russian rule occurred in 1846 and in 1848, but in 1855 the Russian Government granted amnesty and conditions became better. But in the sixties further revolts occurred, so that in 1868 Poland was annexed to Russia outright, and whatever of autonomous government had existed in Russian Poland came to an end. Russia colonized the country, dispersed many of its inhabitants, exiled the Polish nationalist leaders, banned the Polish language, and in other ways tried to thwart the expression of Polish national consciousness. In the World War, Russian Poland was overrun by the Austro-German forces in 1915, and remained in their hands until the end of the War.

The creation of an independent Polish state was in the program of the Entente Allies and the United States, and with their victory, the independence of Poland was proclaimed on November 9, 1918. On June 28, 1919, the Treaty of Versailles recognized the independence of Poland. In the following months, Poland opened war upon Bolshevist Russia, and invaded it, but was defeated. However, the final terms of peace with Russia gave the Poles an eastern boundary beyond that which had been tentatively set by the Allies. Poland also was engaged in war with Lithuania, with the hope of extending her northern boundary, and for a time hoped to include much of the Ukraine within the territory flying the Polish flag. The country was in a wretched economic condition as a result of the World War, and suffering and disorganization were acute. Poland was in close understanding with France, who dictated its foreign policy.

Cities.—The capital is Warsaw, with a population of 820,000. Lodz has 460,000 inhabitants, Lwow and Wilno about 240,000; Cracow, 200,00 and Poznan, 175,000.

Religion.—The great majority of the people are Roman Catholics, but there is no established church, and there is theoretical

equality for all faiths. However, there are about 3,500,000 Greek Catholics, 2,400,000 Protestants and 3,000,000 Jews in the country.

Finance.—For the nine months ending March 31, 1920, the receipts were 3,000,000 Polish marks and the expenditure, 15,000,000,000. The internal debt is given as 5½ milliards of Polish marks, probably since increased; and the foreign debt as follows: To the United States, $143,000,000; to France, 114,000,000 francs; to Great Britain, 929,000 pounds; to Italy, 6,500,000 lire; to Holland, 16,500,000 florins. The mark was fixed as the temporary unit of currency; it is equal to about $0.23 in United States currency at its normal value, and to 100 Polish pfennigs.

Production and Commerce.—Poland is predominantly agricultural, being divided chiefly into small farms and the large estates of the nobility. In 1912, about half of the farms were under 5 hectares, with 22½% between 5 and 25 hectares. About 85% of the area of Poland is productive, of which about 25% is forest land, with more than half of the remainder arable, and the rest pasture and meadows. Excluding the Wilno and Grodno Provinces, the annual production of present Poland before the World War was 3,100,000 metric tons of wheat; 8,300,000 of rye; 2,300,000 of barley; 4,400,000 of oats; 32,600,000 of potatoes; and 6,300,000 of beets. Before the War there were in this territory 2,850,000 horses, 16,375,000 cattle, 8,210,000 sheep, 12,000,000 swine; but the distress during and after the War has sharply reduced these figures. There are many distilleries and some sugar refineries. The most important industries are the textile, food, metal and mining.

The most important minerals found and worked are coal; iron ore; zinc and lead ore; mineral salt; rock oil; potassium salt. The petroleum deposits in Galicia are extensive.

In 1920, the United States exported to Poland and Danzig goods valued at $69,929,171, and imported from Poland and Danzig goods valued at $739,114.

Communications.—There are more than 30,000 miles of roads. The railways, which are owned by the state, have some 7,300 miles open for operation. There are about 1,800 post-offices, more than 1,200 post and telegraph offices, 60,000 miles of telegraph line, 8,500 miles of telephone line.

Poland:
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Poliomyelitis. (Infantile Paralysis.)—So far as can be discovered, this disease is of recent origin. At least, the first serious poliomyelitis outbreak occurred in New York in 1907. The disease, which is acutely infectious, is caused by a strong virus which distributes itself generally throughout the body, but attacks in particular the brain and the spinal cord. Infection may be either direct, as from the nose or mouth of a person suffering from the disease or carrying the virus without injury to himself; or indirect, as from the use of a towel or drinking glass after such a person. The name of infantile paralysis, generally used to describe the disease, owes its origin to the fact that the disease usually attacks young children, especially those under five; and to the fact that paralysis, complete, partial, or slight, often is an after-result. However, so many cases of infantile paralysis pass unnoticed because of the absence of evil after-effects that it has been estimated that paralysis does not occur in the majority of cases, although it may well occur in the majority of those cases where the infection is strong enough to make its presence evident. The most frequent symptoms are fever, stiffness of the neck, digestive disturbances, and vomiting. If paralysis is to develop, it usually occurs from 2 to 8 days after the illness of the patient has become pronounced.

The most severe epidemic of poliomyelitis in the world occurred in New York City in the summer of 1916, and to a lesser extent in different parts of the country. It is estimated that 12,000 cases broke out in that period, of which almost 25% were fatal. All efforts to find a cure proved futile—drugs being useless and the best results being obtained by injecting into the spinal canal of the patient a blood serum from a person who had had the disease some years previously. The best treatment would seem to be scientific after-care, and convalescence should last for from one to two years after the disease has departed.

Political Contributions:
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Political Economy: (See Economics.)

Political Methods the only road to reform in America, 8820.

Political Parties.—The following is a list of the principal political parties extant and heretofore existent in the United States. (See respective names): Abolition, American, Anti-Federalists, Anti-Masonic, Democratic, Democratic-Republican, Farmer-Labor, Federalists, Free Soil, Greenback, Independence, Independence National, Liberal Republican, Liberty, National, National Anti-Slavery, National Republican, National Silver, Non-Partisan League, Patrons of Husbandry, People's, Progressive, Prohibition, Populist, Republican, Social Democrat, Socialist, Socialist Labor, Sound Money Democrats, Strong Government Men, Tory, Whig.

Political Parties essential to popular government, 7405.

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT POLK, 1845-1849.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)

FLAG OF 1849

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Political Prisoners. (See Civil War and Espionage Law.)

Politics should be separated from local offices, 7698.

Polk, James K.—1845-1849.

Fifteenth Administration—Democratic.
Vice-President—George M. Dallas.
Secretary of State—
James Buchanan.
Secretary of the Treasury—
Robert J. Walker.
Secretary of War—
William L. Marcy.
Secretary of the Navy—
George Bancroft.
John Y. Mason.
Postmaster-General—
Cave Johnson.
Attorney-General—
John Y. Mason.
Nathan Clifford.
Isaac Toucey.

Polk was elected by the Democratic party, Nov. 5, 1844. He was the first "dark-horse" candidate ever nominated by a prominent party. At the Democratic National Convention held in Baltimore, May 27-29, 1844, Van Buren and Cass were the leaders in the first eight ballots. On the ninth ballot, Polk's vote rose from 44 in the eighth to 233, sufficient for the nomination.

Platform.—The platform of the party reaffirmed the nine sections of the platform of 1840 and added three more sections. These specified that the public lands should be held as the Constitution provides, and that proceeds from the sale should not be distributed among States; that the veto power of the President should in no wise be curtailed; and that all of Oregon belonged to the United States, and that Texas should be reannexed as soon as practicable.

Opposition.—At the Whig National Convention held at Baltimore in May, 1844, Henry Clay was endorsed for the Presidency, and the first Whig national platform was formulated. It advocated a well-regulated currency, tariff for revenue and protection, distribution of the money derived from sales of public lands, a single term for the Presidency, curtailing of Executive Power, and an effective, careful, and economical government. The Liberty party met at Buffalo in convention on Aug. 30, 1843, and nominated James G. Birney for the Presidency. The platform adopted at that convention announced belief in human brotherhood, the abolition of slavery.

Vote.—The popular vote cast by twenty-six States gave Polk, 1,337,243; Clay, 1,299,068; and Birney, 62,300. The electoral vote, counted on Feb. 12, 1845, gave Polk 170 and Clay 105.

Party Affiliation.—Polk was brought up a Jeffersonian in politics and, during the whole period of Jackson's administration, he was a leading supporter of his policies. As Speaker of the House (1835-1839) he supported Van Buren's administration. His opposition to the reforms advocated by the anti-slavery party was firm but not rabid. As Governor of Tennessee (1839-1841) he opposed the national bank, Federal taxation for revenue surplus, and the policies of the Abolitionists. He strongly favored the reannexation of Texas, and it was upon this issue that he was elected President.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the Twenty-ninth Congress (1845-1847) the Senate, of 56 members, was composed of 30 Democrats, 25 Whigs, and 1 vacancy; and the House, of 225 members, was made up of 141 Democrats, 78 Whigs, and 6 Americans. In the Thirtieth Congress (1847-1849) the Senate, of 58 members, was composed of 37 Democrats and 21 Whigs; and the House, of 227 members, was made up of 108 Democrats, 115 Whigs, and 4 Independents.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the years of Polk's administration stood as follows: 1846, $15,550,202.97; 1847, $38,826,534.77; 1848, $47,044,862,23; 1849, $63,061,858.69.

In his First Annual Message (page 2252) President Polk referred to the total extinguishment of the public debt by a previous administration and cherished the hope that, by especial effort, his administration might bring about the same most desirable result. But the expenses due to the wars in which the country became involved soon dispelled all hope of accomplishing his purpose.

Tariff.—In his First Annual Message (page 2253) President Polk discusses the tariff in theory and the scale of the tariff of 1842 specifically. He points out the difference between the revenue standard and the protection standard, and says: "It does not follow that Congress should levy the highest duty on all articles of import which they will bear within the revenue standard, for such rates would probably produce a much larger amount than the economical administration of the Government would require." Such incidental protection as a tariff for revenue carries with it should in his opinion be so regulated that the tax may be made to bear equally upon consumers, and should be so arranged as to justly protect all industries alike. He refers to the fact that the tariff of 1842 was passed by a majority of only one vote in the Senate and two in the House (page 2255). He recommends a reduction in the tariff and prefers the *ad valorem* to the specific duty. "Such a system, when once firmly established, would be permanent, and not be subject to the constant complaints, agitations, and changes, which must ever occur when duties are not laid for revenue, but for the protection merely of a favored interest."

In a special message of June 16, 1846, the President presents a plan from the Secretary of the Treasury for the modification of the duties. He says (page 2301): "The high duties at present levied on many articles totally exclude them from importation, whilst the quantity and the amount of others which are imported are greatly diminished. By reducing these duties to a revenue standard, it is not doubted that a large amount of the articles on which they are imposed would be imported, and a corresponding amount of revenue be received at the Treasury from this source." On July 30, 1846 Congress passed an act "reducing the duty on imports, and for other purposes." This act went into effect on Dec. 1, 1846. In his Third Annual Message the President (page 2403) reports the satisfactory working of this act in its first year, and says: "All the beneficial effects which were anticipated from its operation have been fully realized." The revenue for the year was increased over $8,000,000. "While the repeal of the prohibitory and restrictive duties of the act of 1842 and the substitution in their place of reasonable revenue rates levied on articles imported according to their actual value has increased the revenue and augmented our foreign trade, all the great interests of the country have been advanced and promoted." These results are reported as continuing during the following year (page 2497). The President's attitude on the question of protection

is fully enunciated in his discussion of the American System in his Fourth Annual Message (page 2504).

Foreign Policy.—On the annexation of Texas and the possible interference by foreign powers, the President said in his Inaugural Address (page 2230): "I regard the question of annexation as belonging exclusively to the United States and Texas. They are independent powers competent to contract, and foreign powers have no right to interfere with them or to take exceptions to their reunion. Foreign powers do not seem to appreciate the true character of our government. . . . Foreign powers should therefore look on the annexation of Texas to the United States not as the conquest of a nation seeking to extend her dominions by arms and violence, but as the peaceful acquisition of a territory once her own, by adding another member to our confederation, with the consent of that member, thereby diminishing the chances of war and opening to them new and ever-increasing markets for their products." In his First Annual Message (page 2237) the President, in referring to the same subject, said: "We may rejoice that the tranquil and pervading influence of the American principle of self-government was sufficient to defeat the purposes of British and French interference, and that the almost unanimous voice of the people of Texas has given to that interference a peaceful and effective rebuke. From this example, European governments may learn how vain diplomatic arts and intrigues must ever prove upon this continent against the system of self-government which seems natural to our soil, and which will ever resist foreign interference." In the same message he reviews the conditions of the war with Mexico.

War with Mexico.—The proclamation of war against Mexico (page 2320) was issued by President Polk on May 13, 1846. In his Second Annual Message (page 2321) the President goes fully into the Mexican War history.

In his Third Annual Message, in speaking of the Mexican War (page 2394), he says: "I am persuaded that the best means of vindicating the national honor and interest and of bringing the war to an honorable close will be to prosecute it with increased energy and power in the vital parts of the enemy's country." In his Fourth Annual Message (page 2481), in speaking of the effects of the Mexican War, the President says: "One of the most important results of the war into which we were recently forced with a neighboring nation is the demonstration it has afforded of the military strength of our country. . . . The great results which have developed and been brought to light by this war will be of immeasurable importance in the future progress of our country. They will tend powerfully to preserve us from foreign collisions, and enable us to pursue uninterruptedly our cherished policy of 'peace with all nations, entangling alliances with none.'"

Panama.—A special message (page 2361) accompanies the treaty with Granada, which by its thirty-fifth article confers upon the United States the right of passage across the Isthmus of Panama. The President says: "The importance of this concession to the commercial and political interests of the United States can not be easily overrated. The route by the Isthmus of Panama is the shortest between the two oceans, and from the information herewith communicated it would seem to be the most practicable for a railroad or a canal."

Slavery.—In his Fourth Annual Message President Polk gives his views on slavery (page 2491) in these words: ". . . No duty imposed on Congress by the Constitution requires that they should legislate on the subject of slavery, while their power to do so is not only seriously questioned but denied by many of the soundest expounders of that instrument. Whether Congress shall legislate or not, the people of the acquired territories, when assembled in convention to form State constitutions will possess the sole and exclusive power to determine for themselves whether slavery shall or shall not exist within their limits. . . . Any and all of the states possess this right, and Congress can not deprive them of it. The people of Georgia might if they chose so alter their Constitution as to abolish slavery within its limits, and the people of Vermont might so alter their Constitution as to admit slavery within its limits."

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Warehousing system, discussed by, 2405.

Poll Tax.—An individual or head tax levied upon the male citizens of some foreign countries and a portion of the United States. The Federal Government has the power to levy such a tax in proportion to the census (20) but has never exercised it. Before the Revolution the Colonies levied poll taxes at various times. In 1898 twenty-seven states and territories levied and collected a poll tax. Some states, as South Carolina, have constitutional provisions for levying the poll tax. In Ohio and some other states any tax on polls is prohibited by the constitution. In others, as in Massachusetts and Tennessee, its payment is made a qualification for voting. Many of the states devote their revenue from poll taxes to free schools.

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Ponca Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Poncarar Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Pontiac's War.—A war between the English garrisons and settlers on the western frontier and a confederacy of the Delaware, Shawnee, Mingo, Ottawa, Chippewa, and other Indian tribes, led by Pontiac, an Ottawa chief. Pontiac assembled a great council of Indians near Detroit April 27, 1763, and unfolded his plans for retarding or preventing white settlers locating west of Pittsburg. To capture Detroit was Pontiac's special task, and May 7 was the date selected, but the commander of the post was warned of the plot by an Indian girl, and the attempt was not made. The town was surrounded, however, and July 31 the garrison made a night attack on the Indians in which 59 English were killed or wounded. Oct. 12 Pontiac raised the siege and retired. Forts Sandusky, St. Joseph, Miami, Ouatanon, Mackinaw, Presque Isle, Le Bœuf, and Venango were taken and their garrisons massacred by the Indians in this war. A treaty of peace was made in 1766. Pontiac was murdered by a Kaskaskia Indian in 1769.

Pontifical States. (See Italy; Papal States.)

Poor Richard's Almanac.—In 1732 Benjamin Franklin began the publication of Poor Richard's Almanac. It contained many homely but very striking maxims, and for this reason became famous.

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Population.—The first United States census having been taken in 1790, all population figures previous to that date are based upon estimates.

Early estimates, of somewhat doubtful accuracy, give the following population figures for the colonies and states since incorporated into the Union:

1688.....	200,000	1760.....	1,695,000
1714.....	434,000	1770.....	2,312,000
1750.....	1,260,000	1780.....	2,945,000

The people of New England were almost purely English; those of New York largely Dutch, Pennsylvania and the countries to the southward attracted many Germans, Scotch, Irish, and Huguenot immigrants, the

Population of the United States at Ten-Year Intervals between 1790 and 1920, as Shown by the Federal Census.

States—Territories	1790	1800	1810	1820	1830	1840	1850	1860	1870	1880	1890	1900	1910	1920
Alabama	.....	.....	.....	127,901	309,527	590,756	771,623	964,201	996,992	1,262,992	1,513,017	1,828,697	2,138,093	2,348,174
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,658	40,440	59,620	122,931	204,354	333,903
Arkansas	.....	.....	1,062	14,273	30,388	97,574	209,897	435,450	484,471	802,525	1,128,179	1,311,564	1,574,449	1,752,204
California	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	92,597	379,994	560,247	864,694	1,208,130	1,485,053	2,377,549	3,426,861
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,277	39,864	194,327	419,198	539,700	799,024	939,629
Connecticut	237,946	251,002	261,942	275,248	297,675	309,978	370,792	460,147	537,454	622,700	746,258	908,420	1,114,756	1,380,631
Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4,837	14,181	135,177	Divided in	to North a	nd South D	akota
Delaware	59,096	64,273	72,674	72,749	76,748	78,085	91,532	112,216	125,015	146,608	168,493	184,735	202,322	223,003
Dist. of Columbia	.....	14,093	24,023	33,039	39,834	43,712	51,687	75,080	131,700	177,624	230,392	278,718	331,069	437,571
Florida	.....	.....	.....	.....	34,730	54,477	87,445	140,424	187,748	269,493	391,422	528,542	751,139	968,470
Georgia	82,548	162,686	252,433	340,989	516,823	691,392	906,185	1,057,286	1,184,109	1,542,180	1,837,353	2,216,331	2,609,121	2,895,832
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14,999	32,610	84,385	161,772	325,594	431,866
Illinois	.....	.....	12,282	55,211	157,445	476,183	851,470	1,711,951	2,539,891	3,077,871	3,826,351	4,821,550	5,638,591	6,485,280
Indiana	.....	5,641	24,520	147,178	343,031	685,866	988,416	1,350,428	1,680,637	1,978,301	2,192,404	2,516,462	2,700,876	2,930,390
Indian Territory	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	392,060	Merged in	to Okla.
Iowa	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	43,112	192,214	674,913	1,194,020	1,624,615	1,911,896	2,231,853	2,224,771	2,404,021
Kansas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	107,206	364,399	996,096	1,427,096	1,470,495	1,690,949	1,769,257
Kentucky	73,677	220,955	406,511	564,317	687,917	779,828	982,405	1,155,684	1,321,011	1,648,690	1,858,635	2,147,174	2,289,905	2,416,630
Louisiana	.....	.....	76,556	153,407	215,739	352,411	517,762	708,002	726,915	939,946	1,118,587	1,381,625	1,656,388	1,798,509
Maine	96,540	151,719	228,705	298,335	399,455	501,793	583,169	628,279	626,915	648,936	661,086	694,466	742,371	768,014
Maryland	319,728	341,548	380,546	407,350	447,040	470,019	583,034	687,049	780,894	934,943	1,042,390	1,188,044	1,295,346	1,449,661
Massachusetts	378,787	422,845	472,040	523,287	610,408	737,699	994,514	1,231,066	1,457,351	1,783,085	2,238,943	2,805,346	3,366,416	3,852,356
Michigan	.....	.....	4,762	8,896	31,639	212,267	397,654	749,113	1,184,059	1,636,937	2,093,889	2,420,982	2,810,173	3,668,412
Minnesota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,077	172,023	439,706	780,773	1,301,826	1,751,394	2,075,708	2,387,125
Mississippi	.....	8,850	40,352	75,448	136,621	375,651	606,526	791,305	827,922	1,133,597	1,289,600	1,551,270	1,797,114	1,790,618
Missouri	.....	.....	19,783	66,586	140,455	383,702	682,044	1,182,012	1,721,295	2,168,380	2,679,184	3,106,665	3,293,335	3,404,055
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	20,595	39,159	132,159	243,329	376,053	548,889
Nebraska	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	28,841	122,993	452,402	1,058,910	1,066,300	1,192,214	1,296,372
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	6,857	42,491	62,266	45,761	42,335	81,875	77,407
New Hampshire	141,885	183,858	214,460	244,161	269,328	284,574	317,976	326,073	318,300	346,991	376,530	411,588	430,572	443,083
New Jersey	184,139	211,149	245,562	277,575	320,823	373,306	489,555	672,035	906,096	1,131,116	1,444,933	1,883,669	2,537,167	3,155,900
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	61,547	93,516	91,874	119,565	153,593	195,310	327,301	360,350
New York	340,120	589,051	959,049	1,372,812	1,918,608	2,428,921	3,097,394	3,880,735	4,382,759	5,082,871	5,997,853	7,268,894	9,113,279	10,384,829
North Carolina	393,751	478,103	555,500	638,829	737,987	753,419	869,039	992,622	1,071,361	1,399,750	1,617,947	1,893,810	2,206,287	2,559,123
North Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	182,719	319,146	577,056	645,680
Ohio	.....	45,365	230,760	581,434	937,903	1,519,467	1,980,329	2,339,511	2,665,260	3,198,062	3,672,316	4,157,545	4,767,121	5,759,394
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	61,834	398,331	1,657,155	2,028,283
Oregon	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	13,294	52,465	90,923	174,768	313,767	413,536	672,765	783,389
Pennsylania	434,373	602,365	810,091	1,049,458	1,384,233	1,724,033	2,311,786	2,906,215	3,521,951	4,282,891	5,258,014	6,302,115	7,665,111	8,720,017
Rhode Island	68,825	69,122	76,931	83,059	97,199	108,830	147,545	174,620	217,353	276,531	345,506	428,556	542,610	604,397
South Carolina	249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	594,398	668,507	703,708	705,606	995,577	1,151,149	1,340,316	1,515,400	1,683,724
South Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	328,808	401,570	583,888	636,547
Tennessee	35,691	105,602	261,727	422,823	681,904	829,210	1,002,717	1,109,801	1,258,520	1,542,359	1,767,518	2,020,616	2,184,789	2,337,885
Texas	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	212,592	604,215	818,579	1,591,749	2,235,523	3,048,710	3,896,542	4,663,228
Utah	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,380	40,273	86,786	143,963	207,905	276,749	373,351	449,396
Vermont	85,425	154,465	217,895	235,981	280,652	291,948	314,120	315,098	330,551	332,286	332,422	343,641	355,956	352,428
Virginia	747,610	880,200	974,600	1,065,366	1,211,405	1,239,797	1,421,661	1,596,318	1,225,163	1,512,565	1,655,980	1,854,184	2,061,612	2,309,187
Washington	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,594	23,955	75,116	349,390	518,103	1,141,990	1,356,621
West Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	442,014	618,457	762,704	958,800	1,221,119	1,463,701
Wisconsin	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30,945	305,391	775,881	1,054,670	1,315,497	1,686,880	2,069,042	2,333,860	2,632,067
Wyoming	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,118	20,789	60,705	92,531	145,965	194,402
Total	3,929,214	5,308,483	7,239,881	9,638,453	12,866,020	17,069,453	23,691,876	31,443,321	38,558,371	50,155,783	62,622,250	75,994,575	91,972,266	105,708,771
Alaska	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	63,592	64,356	54,899
American Samoa	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	a1,251	8,056
Guam	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	11,806	13,275
Hawaii	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	154,001	191,909	255,912
Panama Can. Zone	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	a62,810	22,858
Porto Rico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1,118,012	1,299,809
Military, naval &c. service abroad	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	55,608	117,238
Philippine Islands	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	c7,635,426	b10,350,640
Virgin Islands	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	e27,086	d26,051
Outlying possess.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	9,174,264	12,148,738

Notes—(a) Population in 1912. (b) Population in 1918. (c) Population in 1903. (d) Population in 1917. (e) Population in 1911.

latter settling largely in South Carolina and Georgia.

The census of 1920 showed that in Continental United States the number of persons living in cities and towns of more than 2,500 inhabitants was 54,318,032, and the number living elsewhere, classed as rural population, was 51,390,739. Only slightly more than 9% lived in incorporated places of less than 2,500, so that about 39% of the population lived in what may be called purely rural districts.

Population, Center of.—(See Center of Population.)

Populist or People's Party.—In December, 1889, a meeting of the Farmers' and Laborers' Union of America was held at St. Louis, Mo., for the purpose of consolidating the various bodies of organized farmers which had been formed at different times and places in the United States since 1867, and which were known under the general name of Grangers (q. v.). The consolidated body was called the Farmers' Alliance and Industrial Union. On Dec. 2, 1890, a national convention was held at Ocala, Fla. Thirty-five States and Territories were represented by 163 delegates. Independent political action was decided upon, and a platform was adopted advocating free silver, the subtreasury plan, equal taxation, a graduated income tax, election of President, Vice-President, and Senators by direct vote, and prohibition of alien ownership of land.

The second convention was held at Cincinnati, Ohio, May 19, 1891. Thirty States and Territories were represented by 1,418 delegates. At this convention the Ocala platform was heartily indorsed and the name People's party was adopted. A third national meeting was held at St. Louis, Mo., in February, 1892. It was decided to put in the field candidates for President and Vice-President, and on July 2, 1892, a national body of delegates met at Omaha, Nebr., and nominated Gen. James B. Weaver, of Iowa, for President, and James G. Field, of Virginia, for Vice-President. Weaver obtained a popular vote of 1,041,028 and an electoral vote of 22.

In 1896 the People's party met at St. Louis, Mo., and nominated for President William J. Bryan of Nebraska, and for Vice-President Thomas E. Watson, of Georgia. Mr. Bryan had been previously nominated for the Presidency by the Democratic party. In the popular vote the Bryan and Watson ticket (straight Populist) received 245,728 votes, and Bryan and Sewall ticket (Democratic and straight fusion ticket) 6,257,198 votes. In the electoral college McKinley and Hobart (Republican candidates) received 271 votes. Bryan, 176, Sewall 149, and Watson 27. On May 10, 1900, a convention of the fusion wing of the party met at Sioux Falls, S. D., and nominated William J. Bryan for President and Charles A. Town for Vice-President. Mr. Town withdrew in favor of Adlai Stevenson, the Democratic candidate, and on Aug. 28th the executive committee nominated Mr. Stevenson. The anti-fusion wing of the party met at Cincinnati on May 10th and nominated Wharton Barker for President and Ignatius Donnelly for Vice-President. The Democratic and fusion nominees received 6,374,397 popular votes and 155 electoral votes. The anti-fusion (middle of the road) wing of the People's party received 50,373 popular votes. In 1904 the People's party nominated Thomas E. Watson for President and Thomas H. Tibbles for Vice-President and they received 120,903 votes. In 1908 Watson and Samuel Williams of Indiana were nominated to head the ticket. The vote in that year fell to less than 35,000, and the Party then ceased to exist.

Pork-Barrel.—A term applied, in comparatively recent years, to the Congressional appropriations for local improvements, with the insinuation that they are not vital to the cause of the country, but that they are obtained as a result of "log-rolling" (q. v.) and favoritism, and for the purpose of impressing constituents with the importance of their Congressmen or Senators,—such as appropriations for rivers and harbors, post-office buildings, etc.

Pork Products. (See Animals and Animal Products.)

Port Arthur Bombarded. (See illustration opposite 6549 and Russo-Japanese War.)

Port Gibson (Miss.), Battle of.—On the night of April 16, 1863, the Federal gunboats under Admiral Porter succeeded in running past the batteries at Vicksburg. Grant ordered Sherman to make a feint on the Confederate batteries at Haines Bluff, above Vicksburg, while Porter covered the landing of McClernand's and McPherson's corps at Bruinsburg, a few miles below Grand Gulf. Immediately upon landing McClernand pushed forward toward Port Gibson. A march of eight miles brought him in sight of the Confederates, whom he forced back until dark. The next day (May 2) the Confederates held a strong position, which they stubbornly defended. That night the troops slept on their arms. During the night the Confederate forces retired across the Bayou Pierre, pursued next day by McPherson's corps. The Federal loss was 131 killed, 719 wounded, and 25 missing—a total of 875. One thousand prisoners and 5 cannon were taken from the Confederates.

Port Hudson (La), Surrender of.—As early as August, 1862, Confederates began to fortify Port Hudson, a point on the Mississippi River in Louisiana, at the terminus of the Clinton and Port Hudson Railroad, twenty-five miles above Baton Rouge and one hundred and forty-seven above New Orleans. Dec. 14, 1862, Maj.-Gen. N. P. Banks took command of the Department of the Gulf, and in March, 1863, made a demonstration against Port Hudson while Farragut's fleet attempted to run the batteries to assist Porter in the naval investment of Vicksburg. The attempt was a failure. May 26, 1863, Banks again invested Port Hudson, and was reenforced by Maj.-Gen. Augur, Brig.-Gen. T. W. Sherman, and Gen. Weitzel, increasing his forces to 12,000 men. An unsuccessful assault was made on the 27th, which showed the place to be strongly fortified. Banks lost 2,000 men in the assault. June 14 a second assault was made after a bombardment of several days by Farragut's fleet. This was also repulsed, with a loss of 700 killed and wounded. Banks now invested the place by a series of approaches. July 6 the news of the surrender of Vicksburg reached Port Hudson, and three days later Gardner surrendered, with 6,340 men and 51 guns. Besides, the garrison lost about 500 prisoners or deserters before the surrender, and about 700 killed and wounded.

Port Republic (Va.), Battle of.—June 9, 1862, the morning after the skirmish between the forces of Ewell and Frémont at Cross Keys, Jackson drew in Ewell, crossed the branch of the Shenandoah, and destroy-

ing the bridges cut off two brigades of Shields's advance from Frémont, defeated them in battle, and captured some 450 prisoners and 800 muskets.

Port Royal (S. C.), Expedition to.—Oct. 29, 1861, a strong naval and military expedition left Hampton Roads under command of Commodore Samuel F. Du Pont and Gen. Thomas W. Sherman. The first was composed of the steam frigate *Wabash*, fourteen gunboats, twenty-two first-class and twelve smaller steamers, and twenty-six sailing vessels. The land forces under Sherman consisted of thirteen regiments of volunteers, forming three brigades and numbering 10,000 men. After a tempestuous voyage the fleet arrived off Port Royal, S. C., Nov. 3. Upon each side of the mouth of the Broad River is an island on which the Confederates had built forts. On Bay Point Fort Beauregard mounted twenty-three guns, and on Hilton Head, opposite, Fort Walker had six, some of them of the largest caliber. A fleet of eight steamers lay inside the harbor. The guns of the fort were fully manned by 1,700 South Carolinians, and a field battery with 500 men supported one of them. On the 7th Du Pont brought his gunboats into action. He manœuvred his fleet in a circle around the harbor between the forts, firing broadsides as he passed the Confederate batteries. His shells wrought havoc in the works, but the moving ships were little damaged. For four hours the battle raged, when the garrison retreated leaving everything behind. Forty-three guns were captured. Hilton Head was made the center of later naval operations.

Port Royal, S. C., blockade of, removed by proclamation, 3290.

Portage Lake, Mich., act authorizing establishment of new harbor lines in, returned, 5506.

Portland Company, bill for relief of, vetoed, 5527.

Portland, Ore., proclaimed port of delivery, 2588.
Lewis and Clark Centennial Exposition at, 6798.

Porto Rican Tobacco Company, referred to, 7684.

Porto Rico.—The island of Porto Rico, over which the flag of the United States was raised in token of formal possession on October 18, 1898, is the most eastern of the Great Antilles in the West Indies and is separated on the east from the island of Saint Thomas by a distance of about fifty miles, and from Haiti on the west by the Mona passage, seventy miles wide. Distances from San Juan, the capital, to important points are as follows: New York, 1,411 miles; Charleston, S. C., 1,200 miles; Key West, Fla., 1,050 miles; Havana, 1,000 miles.

The island is a parallelogram in general outline, 108 miles from the east to the west and from 37 to 43 miles across, the area being about 3,600 square miles, or somewhat less than half that of the State of New Jersey (Delaware has 2,050 square miles and Connecticut 4,990 square miles). The population according to an enumeration made by the United States Government in 1900 showed a population of 953,243, of whom 589,426 are white and 363,817 are colored. The density was 260 to the square mile in 1900; 83.2 per cent of the population could not read.

Porto Rico is unusually fertile, and its dominant industries are agriculture and lumbering. In elevated regions the vegetation of the temperate zone is not unknown. There are more than 500 varieties of trees found in the forests, and the plains are full of palm, orange, and other trees. The principal crops are sugar, coffee, tobacco, and maize, but oranges, bananas, rice, pineapples, and many other fruits are important products. The largest article of export from Porto Rico is sugar. The next is tobacco. Other exports in order of amount are coffee, fruits, molasses, cattle, timber, and hides.

The principal minerals found in Porto Rico are gold, carbonates, and sulphides of copper and magnetic oxide of iron in large quantities. Lignite is found at Utuado and Moca, and also yellow amber. A large variety of marbles, limestones, and other building stones are deposited on the island, but these resources are very undeveloped. There are salt works at Guanica and Salina on the south coast, and at Cape Rojo on the west, and these constitute the principal mineral industry in Porto Rico.

The 1920 census gave the population as 1,297,772, an increase of 16% over 1910. The largest cities are San Juan, 70,707; Ponce, 41,561; Mayaguez, 19,069; Caguas, 12,154; Bayamon, 10,411; and Arecibo, 10,039. There were in addition 10 towns with between 5,000 and 10,000 inhabitants and 16 with between 2,500 and 5,000. These towns account for about 22% of the population, the remainder being classed as rural. Most of the population is white, negroes constituting about 30-35% of the total number of inhabitants. In 1910, 63% of the population was engaged in agriculture, mining and fishing; 21% in domestic and personal service; 8% in manufacturing; and 8% in trade and transportation.

The latest figures show 1,725 public schools, with almost 3,000 classrooms. The enrolment was 160,794. There are also night schools, kindergartens and private schools. In 1910, the percentage of illiteracy was 66½%.

History.—Porto Rico was discovered by Columbus in 1493. It was conquered by Ponce de Leon with Spanish forces in 1510-20, from which time until it was occupied by American troops in the Spanish-American war the island existed in comparative tranquility as a Spanish possession. It was formally ceded to the United States by the treaty with Spain of December 10, 1898.

Government.—By the act of the United States Congress for the Government of Porto Rico, approved on March 2, 1917, the people of Porto Rico are granted United States citizenship. The executive power is wielded by a Governor appointed by the President. The legislature consists of a Senate of nineteen and a House of Representatives of thirty-nine. The resident commissioner to the United States is selected by the people for a term of four years. The Governor is assisted by an Executive Council of six heads of the executive departments.

Finance.—The most recent annual budget was in the neighborhood of $13,000,000. The assessed valuation of the property on the island is $254,170,000. The outstanding bonded indebtedness is about $9,500,000.

Production and Commerce.—The last annual sugar crop was slightly above 400,000 tons, of which more than 350,000 were exported, valued at $48,000,000. In 1919

more than 180,000,000 cigars, 6,400,000 cigarettes and 17,000,000 pounds of leaf and scrap tobacco were exported. The coffee exports were about 28,000,000 pounds. The 1910 census showed 939 industrial establishments, employing 15,582 wage-earners, with a total capital of $25,544,000 and with an annual product valued at $36,750,000.

In 1919, the imports into Porto Rico were valued at $62,400,360 and the exports from Porto Rico at $79,496,040. Practically all of the trade is with continental United States. In a more recent year, the United States shipped to Porto Rico goods valued at $121,561,574 and imported from Porto Rico goods valued at $158,322,083.

Communications.—About 1,300 vessels, of more than 3,000,000 tons, visit Porto Rico annually. The chief port is San Juan, with a harbor 1,800 feet wide and 30 feet deep. There are more than 1,100 miles of road on Porto Rico and about 340 miles of railroad. There are 1,600 miles of telephone and telegraph wire, 90 post-offices and 75 telegraph stations.

Porto Rico:
American citizens in, unlawfully punished, 783.
Autonomy of, to be established cautiously and gradually, 7386.
Campaign against, under command of Maj.-Gen. Miles, 6318.
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Sanitary problems connected with, referred to, 6341.
Slavery in, discussed, 4100.
Release of persons held in, discussed, 4194.
Suffrage in, should eventually be limited to United States citizens, 7467.
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Retaliatory measures, discussed, 4763.
Visit of American naval officer to, referred to, 845.

Ports. (See Rivers and Harbors.)

Portsmouth, N. H., dry dock at, about completed, 2669.
Site for, 934.

Portsmouth, Ohio, act to erect public building at, vetoed, 5152.

Portsmouth, Treaty of.—A treaty of peace between Russia and Japan, at Portsmouth, N. H., Sept. 5, 1905, bringing to a close the war that had been waged between those two countries since Feb. 11, 1904.

Shortly after the battle of the Japan Sea, May 27-29, 1905 (see Japan), President Roosevelt, after conference with the Russian Ambassador and the Japanese Minister, sent identical notes to the Governments of the two countries, urging them to begin direct peace negotiations with each other, and offering the services of the United States in bringing their envoys together. Japan accepted the proposition two days later, and Russia within a week. Various places were proposed for the meeting: Paris, The Hague, Chefoo, Geneva, and Washington. As the summer heat made the latter place unsuitable, the United States Government offered the use of a building at the United States Navy Yard, at Portsmouth, N. H., and the offer was accepted. The envoys appointed were, on the part of Japan, Baron Komura, Minister of Foreign Affairs, and Kogoro Takahira, Minister to the United States; and on the part of Russia, Count Sergius Witte and Baron Rosen, Ambassador to the United States.

On Aug. 5 the envoys assembled on the U. S. Presidential yacht, *Mayflower*, near Oyster Bay, L. I., and were introduced by President Roosevelt. The sessions of the conference began Aug. 9, when the Japanese presented their terms: I. Recognition

by Russia of the preponderating influence of Japan in Korea; II. Simultaneous evacuation of Manchuria by Russia and Japan; III. Transfer to Japan of the Russian leases of Port Arthur and Dalny; IV. The return of Manchuria to China according to the previous agreement between Russia and China; V. The cession of Sakhalin Island to Japan; VI. The transfer to Japan of all public property in Port Arthur and Dalny, rights of private property to be respected; VII. The transfer to Japan of the Manchurian railroad between Port Arthur and Dalny and Harbin; VIII. Russia to retain the main line in Vladivostok; IX. The reimbursement of Japan for the expenses of the war; X. The surrender to Japan of the Russian warships interned at neutral ports; XI. Limitation of Russia's naval strength in the Pacific; XII. Fishing rights for citizens of Japan in Russian waters.

To some of these Russia agreed at once; but the questions of indemnity and the cession of the Island of Sakhalin still remained open, and by the 19th of August the negotiations seemed certain to end in failure. The pressure of neutral nations, brought to bear on both parties, and especially the influence of President Roosevelt, led to a compromise. Japan waived the question of indemnity, and withdrew her demand for the interned warships; while Russia consented to the surrender of the southern half of the island of Sakhalin. Each nation agreed to pay the cost of the maintenance of its prisoners of war, an arrangement much to the advantage of Japan. An agreement was reached August 29, and the formal treaty was signed Sept. 5, 1905. Ratifications of the treaty were exchanged on Oct. 14, 1905. (See also Japan.)

Portugal.—Continental Portugal occupies part of the maritime district of the Iberian Peninsula, between 6° 15′-9° 30′ W. longitude, and 37°-42° 8′ N. latitude, and is bounded on the north and east by Spain, and on the south and west by the Atlantic Ocean. The Azores and Madeira Islands form an integral part of Portugal for administrative purposes.

Physical Features.—Portugal is generally hilly, but with no great heights, and there are many plains. The principal rivers are Douro, Tagus, Guadiana and Minho. The climate is equable and temperate, the southwestern winds bringing an abundant rainfall. Lisbon has an annual mean temperature of 61° F., but there is a difference of 50° F. in the extremes.

History.—From the close of the eleventh century until the revolution of 1910 the government of Portugal was a monarchy, and in the year 1500 the King of Portugal was "Lord of the conquest, navigation, and commerce of India, Ethiopia, Arabia and Persia," the territories of the Empire including also the Vice-Royalty of Brazil, which declared its independence in 1822 (see Brazil). In 1910 an armed rising drove the King and the Royal family into exile, effected a separation of Church and State, and established a Republic. In accordance with treaty obligations with Great Britain, Portugal joined the struggle against the Central Powers in 1916, and dispatched troops to the western battle-line, where they remained until the end of the War.

Government.—The National Assembly of Aug. 21, 1911, sanctioned the Republic and adopted a Constitution, with a President elected by Congress for four years, a Congress of two Chambers, and an Executive appointed by the President but responsible to the Legislature. The Republic was formally recognized by the Powers on Sept. 11, 1911. The Constitution makes provision for a Congress of two houses, the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Senate consists of seventy-one members, elected by the Municipal Councils of the Republic for six years, one-half renewable every three years. The Chamber of Deputies (or National Council) consists of 164 members, elected by direct vote for three years.

There are Courts of first instance in each of the 193 judicial districts or comarcas, with Courts of Appeal (tribunaes de relaçao) at Lisbon and Oporto and at Ponta Delgada in the Azores. There is a Supreme Court of Appeal at Lisbon.

The Republic is divided into twenty-one Districts (Continental Portugal seventeen, Azores three, Madeira one), governed by an appointed Governor, a District Auditor and an elective council of three members.

AREA AND POPULATION

Districts	Area in English Sq. Miles	Population
Aveiro	1,064	336,243
Azores	922	242,560
Beja	3,958	192,499
Braga	1,041	382,276
Bragança	2,512	192,024
Castello Branco	2,581	241,184
Coimbra	1,507	359,387
Evora	2,856	148,295
Faro	1,937	272,861
Guarda	2,114	271,616
Leiria	1,316	262,632
Lisboa	3,085	852,854
Madeira	314	169,783
Portalegre	2,404	141,481
Porto	892	679,540
Santarem	2,554	325,775
Vianna do Castello	857	227,250
Villa Real	1,649	245,547
Vizeu	1,937	416,744
Total Portugal	35,500	5,960,056
Portuguese Colonies	804,841	9,675,000
Grand Total	840,341	15,635,056

In 1911 there were 41,197 foreigners resident in Portugal, of whom 20,517 were Spanish, 12,143 Brazilians, 2,516 British, 1,832 French, 1,645 Americans.

Of the population in 1911, there were 11 females to every 10 males. The urban population was slightly more than 30% of the total. The capital is Lisbon, with a population estimated at 500,000; Oporto has an estimated population of 225,000. Practically all the people are Roman Catholics, although freedom of worship is guaranteed.

The latest education statistics show 6,706 public elementary schools, with 342,763 pupils; and 32 secondary schools, with 11,791 pupils. There are three universities, with a combined enrolment of some 3,000; and some private and professional schools.

Finance.—The most recent figures show an annual revenue of about $125,000,000, and an annual expenditure of about $260,000,000. The latest figures for the foreign debt place it at $175,000,000, and the internal debt at almost $800,000,000, of which $385,000,000 was held by the Government. The unit of currency is the gold escudo (divided into 100 centavos), which is equivalent to the former gold milreis and is normally worth about $1.08 in United States currency. However, the country is practically on a paper basis, due to the disappearance of almost all gold and silver.

Production and Industry.—The principal products are wheat, barley, oats, maize, flax and hemp, while the vine is extensively cultivated, the best wine being produced in the elevated tracts, and the commoner kinds in the low-lying country. In the plains and lowlands rice, olives, oranges, lemons, citrons, figs, and almonds are abundantly grown. The vine and the olive are the chief branches of industry, the rich red wine known as "port" being grown in the Paiz do Vinho and carried down the Douro partly in sailing vessels but mainly by rail, for shipment at Oporto. The Live Stock (1910) included cattle, sheep, pigs, and horses.

There are extensive forests of oak, chestnut, seapine and cork, covering nearly 20 per cent of the cultivated area of the country, and cork products are largely manufactured for export, while the wine trade requires much timber for the numerous cooperages, much of which, however, is imported from abroad.

The most recent figures for the annual production show 5,560,000 bushels of wheat; 2,900,000 bushels of rye; 3,630,000 of oats; 1,420,000 of barley; 1,075,000 of beans; and 80,000 tons of potatoes. The area of the vineyards is put at 780,000 acres, with an annual vintage of more than 90,000,000 gallons. The last annual wool production was 6,245,000 pounds.

The mineral wealth is reported to be considerable, but is worked but little because of the scarcity of coal and cheap transportation.

Latest figures show some 50,000 persons and 11,500 vessels engaged in the fisheries, especially the sardine and tunny.

The latest available figures show annual imports of $140,000,000 and annual exports of $60,000,000. The chief imports, in order of value, are raw materials, food substances and textiles; the chief exports are food substances. In a recent year, the United States exported to Portugal goods valued at $24,426,592, and imported from Portugal goods valued at $9,323,165.

In order of value, the most important products exported by the United States to Portugal in the last year for which figures are available were as follows:—Cotton, unmanufactured; Wheat; Leaf Tobacco; Mineral Oils; Staves; Leather.

Communications.—There are two State-railways, with a combined length of 733 miles, and five private lines, with a combined length of 1,315 miles. Before the World War, 4,265 post-offices and 580 telegraph offices were reported. There were approximately 6,000 miles of telegraph line and 13,500 miles of wire. In a recent year, 1,285 vessels, representing a tonnage of almost 10,000,000, entered Portuguese ports.

PORTUGUESE INDIA has an area of 1,470 square miles, with an estimated population of 605,000. The Portuguese dominions consist of Goa on the western coast of India, about 265 miles southeast of Bombay; Damão, on the east side of the Gulf of Cambay, and of Diu, a town and fort on an island on the west side of the same gulf. These settlements form a single administrative province under a Governor-General.

MACAO is a settlement on the western side of the estuary of the Canton River, occupied by the Portuguese in the sixteenth century, and finally ceded by China in 1887.

PORTUGUESE TIMOR consists of the northern portion of Timor, a large island in the Malay Archipelago, of an enclave on the northwest coast of the island, and of the neighboring island of Pulo Cambing, with area of 7,450 square miles, and an estimated population of 300,000.

CAPE VERDE ISLANDS are an archipelago of the west African coast, between 14° 47′-17° 13′ N. latitude and 22° 40′-25° 22′ W. longitude, consisting of twelve islands. They were settled by the Portuguese, who imported negroes from the African coast to work the plantations, slavery being finally abolished in 1876. The inhabitants are mainly negroes and mulattoes, who speak a debased form of Portuguese, and belong to the Roman Catholic Church. Coffee is the principal product, maize, millet, sugar cane, manioc, oranges, tobacco and cotton being also grown. The exports are coffee, physic-nuts, millet, sugar, spirits, salt, live animals, skins and fish; the imports being coal, textiles, food stuffs, wine, metals, tobacco, pottery, machinery and vegetables.

PORTUGUESE GUINEA extends along the west coast of Africa between the Casamanci district of Senegal (French) and French Guinea. The settlement includes also Orango, Bolama, Bissao and other islands, and has a total area of about 14,000 square miles, with an estimated population of 300,000 to 500,000, of various negro tribes. The interior is dense forest with palms, ebony and mahogany.

SÃO THOMÉ and *PRINCIPÉ* are two islands in the Gulf of Guinea. The principal product of both islands is cocoa, the exports of which were about one-sixth of the world's supply in 1907. Exaggerated reports as to the conditions of indentured laborers stopped the cocoa exports from 1909-1910, but the conditions have now been radically altered.

ANGOLA lies south of the Kongo River in West Africa and extends eastward as far as Rhodesia. The northern boundary is that of the Belgian Kongo, and the southern boundary is conterminous with German Southwest Africa.

PORTUGUESE EAST AFRICA lies between German East Africa on the north and Natal on the south. The area is estimated as 425,000 square miles, with population not exceeding 3,200,000, of whom about 10,000 are Europeans. Of the natives, 90 per cent are Bantu negroes. The Province of Moçambique is administered by a Governor-General, with headquarters at Lourenço Marques. Large portions of the territory are leased to the Companhia de Moçambique (headquarters, Beira), the Companhia di Zambezia (Quelimane), and the Companhia do Nyasa (Porto Amelia). The mineral resources include coal and ironstone, malachite, copper, gold, petroleum and bitumen. The agricultural products are wheat and other cereals, sugar-cane, rice, ground-nuts, coffee and tobacco. The exports are principally rubber, sugar, coal, beeswax, coco-nuts, copra and mangrove bark, ivory, cattle, skins and hides, ground-nuts, cotton, tobacco and gold; the imports being cotton goods, hardware and foodstuffs. The special trade of the Province is about 30,000,000 escudos annually, the transit trade being of approximately the same value, on the way to and from the Transvaal (via Lourenço Marques and Beira).

Portugal (see also Lisbon; Oporto):
Blockade established by, claims of United States growing out of, 1098, 1113, 1243.
Brazil, questions with respecting escape of insurgent Admiral Da Gama, 5956.

Citizens of, effort made to improve condition of, 762, 786.
Claims of United States against, 1071, 1113, 1157, 1243, 1317, 2268, 2453, 2550, 2618, 2680, 2759. (See also *General Armstrong*, The; *Miles*, The.)
Admitted, but payment of, delayed, 1456.
Convention for adjustment of, referred to, 2618, 2642, 2655.
Payment of, 1157, 1243, 1368, 1749, 2655.
Commercial relations with, 811.
Vessels sent to protect American interests, 1099.
Copyright privilege extended, by proclamation, 5830.
Cotton culture in African possessions of, referred to, 3267.
Diplomatic relations with, resumed, 1008.
Duties on rice reduced by, 1243.
Friendly disposition of, toward United States, 919.
Government of, removed to Lisbon, 674.
Internal tranquility restored to, 1317.
Minister of United States in, 90.
Salary of, referred to, 3667.
Railroad in, operated by American citizens, seized by Government of, 5470.
Claim regarding, submitted to arbitration, 5546.
Relations with, 89, 168, 820.
Republic of—
Establishment of, 7495.
Recognition of, 7669.
Revenue laws of United States, complaints of, against, referred to, 1956.
Slavery in colonies of, abolition of, discussed, 4289.
Treaty with, referred to, 1821, 1839, 1894, 2127.
Vessels of—
Discriminating duties on, suspended by proclamation, 4080.
Report regarding, 1135, 1443.
Requested by Portugal, 1442.
Duties on, 1135.
Proclamation levying duties on, 1589.
Referred to, 1592.
Vessels of United States seized or interfered with by, 1070, 1098, 1113, 1243.
Vice-consul of, to United States, exequatur of, revoked, 4038.
Wines of, duties on, referred to, 2127, 2250.

Portugal, Treaty with.—A reciprocal commercial arrangement was made with Portugal in 1900. It provides for a preferential tariff on goods (chiefly wines, their products, and works of art) coming into the United States; and on certain classes of goods (chiefly food-stuffs, machinery, oils, tar, and pitch) entering Portugal, the Azores, and Madeiras from the United States. Should the United States at any time impose high duties on crude cork and coffee from Portugal, that country reserves the right to arrest the operation of this convention on three months' notice. Arbitration, extradition and naturalization conventions are also in force.

Portuguese East Africa, Guinea, India, Timor. (See Portugal.)

Post-Office. See Post-Office Department.)

Post-Offices.—First-class post-offices are those in which the postmaster receives a salary of more than $3,000 yearly; second class, those in which the postmasters' salaries are between $3,000 and $2,000 yearly; third class, those in which the postmasters' salaries are between $2,000 and $1,000 yearly; and fourth-class, those in which the postmasters' salaries are below $1,000 yearly. The salaries of postmasters in the first three classes depend upon the gross receipts of their offices, although third-class postmasters receive an additional three cents for each money order they issue. Fourth-class postmasters receive a commission on the cancellation of stamps in their offices. The scale provides that fourth-class postmasters receive the full amount of their cancellation up to $50 quarterly, with sliding scales between this amount and cancellation up to $250 quarterly, and in addition they receive rents of boxes in their offices. (See Post-Office Department.)

Post-Office Building:
Destruction of, by fire referred to, 1483.
Erection of—
Appropriation for, recommended, 1483, 1911.
Recommended, 1477, 1720.
Erection of, for joint use of Washington City post-office and Post-Office Department recommended, 5479.
Extension of, referred to, 2915, 2917.
Heating and ventilating of, referred to, 3110, 3112.
Illustration, frontispiece, Vol. IV.
Referred to, 1798.
Uniform standard in amount of gross receipts to fix right of community to, recommendations regarding, 5377.

Post-Office Department.—This department of the executive branch of the federal government was established under the Constitution Sept. 26, 1789, but the work then officially taken up by it had been in continuous operation from early colonial times. Up to 1693 the postal service was entirely carried on by the towns and villages. From that year until 1707 it was administered under the patent granted Thomas Neale by the King in 1691, Andrew Hamilton having been appointed Postmaster-General of America.

He established a weekly service from Portsmouth, N. H., to Virginia, and so successful was his administration that he has been called "The Father of American posts." He was succeeded by his son, John Hamilton, in 1703.

On Dec. 25, 1774, Postmaster-General Foxcroft announced the end of the British postal system in North America, and on July 26, 1775, nearly a year before political independence was declared, the Continental Congress appointed Benjamin Franklin Postmaster-General of the Colonies. When Franklin was sent to Europe in 1776, Richard Bache, his son-in-law, was made Postmaster-General. In the passage of the postal ordinance of Oct. 18, 1782, which unified all previous postal acts, Congress required the payment of postage in silver or its equivalent, and newspapers were admitted to transportation in the mails. The rates were fixed at 7.4 cents for single letters carried less than sixty miles; 11.1 cents for distances between sixty and a hundred miles and three cents for each additional hundred miles. It was in this year that the Post-Office Department, in distinction from the postal service, was practically created, and from this time the modern American post-office dates its origin. In the same year Ebenezer Hazard was appointed Postmaster-General. Under his administration an American Atlantic service was established and the domestic service perfected and extended, until, at the end of his term, 1789, there were eighty-five post-offices in the country and 2,399 miles of post-roads, the volume of business being about 300,000 letters a year.

Up to this time the means of transportation had been almost entirely by horseback, but an act of Congress of Sept. 6, 1785, gave the Postmaster-General power to make contracts for the transmission of mail by stage-coach. After the establishment of the Constitution, in 1789, the postal service was for a time carried on under the direction of the Treasury Department, although the postal ordinance of 1782 remained in force until 1792, when a new postal law reforming the postage tariff was passed.

The law permanently and definitely establishing the Department was passed May 8, 1799. In 1810 the office of Second Assistant Postmaster-General was created, a new postage tariff (8 to 25 cents, according to distances for single letters, and one cent each for newspapers not going beyond the State of publication) was established, and the various post-routes connected in one system. In 1811 the Department established a service between Baltimore and Philadelphia in coaches owned by the Government, and two years later the Postmaster-General was authorized to make use of steamboats in the transportation of mail.

The organic law of the Department was again changed in 1825, provision being made for the building of a General Post-Office at the seat of Government, and the Postmaster-General being given great powers in the conduct and development of the service. In 1827 the salary of the Postmaster-General was made $6,000 a year, the same as that of heads of the other Executive Departments, and two years later he was called to a seat in the Cabinet.

By the act of July 2, 1836 the accounting was transferred to the Auditor of the Treasury for the Post-Office Department, and it was required that all revenues of the Department be paid into the United States Treasury. Until the passage of this act all postmasters had been appointed by the Postmaster-General, but from this time those whose commissions amounted to $1,000 or more a year were to be appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, for a term of four years. The four assistants are appointed in the same way.

Railway mail service was authorized in 1838.

Postage rates were fixed on a weight basis in 1845, but with distance limitation (half ounce 300 miles, five cents).

Postal Savings Banks were authorized by act of June 25, 1910, and the Parcel Post began operations Jan. 1, 1913.

The money-order system was established on May 17, 1864; and the special-delivery system on Oct. 1, 1883.

The free rural-delivery system was begun in 1897, and two years later the registry system was extended in cities so that letters might be registered at the home of the sender.

Airplane postal service between New York and Washington, with stops at Philadelphia, was inaugurated May 15, 1918. The airplane service was rapidly extended.

For more detailed information as to the scope and activities of the Post-Office Department consult the Index references to the Presidents' Messages and Encyclopedic articles under the following headings:

The present extent and recent growth of the service is shown in the following table:

Fiscal Years	Number of Post-Offices	Revenue of the Department	Expenditure of the Department	Amount Paid For—	
				Compensation to Postmasters	Transportation of the Mail
1904	71,131	$143,582,624	$152,362,117	$22,273,344	$67,027,776
1905	68,131	152,826,585	167,399,169	22,743,342	69,927,689
1906	65,600	167,932,782	178,449,778	23,544,585	72,944,352
1907	62,659	183,585,005	190,238,288	24,575,696	77,471,917
1908	61,158	191,478,663	208,351,886	25,599,397	78,174,988
1909	60,144	203,562,383	221,004,102	26,569,892	80,901,899
1910	59,580	224,128,657	229,977,224	27,521,013	81,709,433
1911	59,237	237,879,823	237,648,926	28,284,964	85,130,742
1912	58,729	246,744,015	248,525,450	28,467,726	86,302,922
1913	58,020	266,619,523	262,067,541	29,162,662	88,451,168
1914	56,810	287,934,565	283,543,769	29,968,515	89,802,715
1915	56,380	287,248,165	298,546,026	30,400,145	104,972,630
1916	55,935	312,057,688	306,204,033	31,135,230	107,418,663
1917	55,418	329,726,116	319,838,718	31,945,104	111,522,255
1918	54,345	388,975:962	324,833,728	31,420,536	110,969,482
1919	53,084	436,239,126	362,497,636	33,675,754	108,107,134
1920	52,641	437,150,212	454,322,609	40,108,080	140,382,907
1921	52,168	463,491,275	620,993,674	42,681,434	242,156,810
1922	51,950	484,853,541	545,644,209	43,819,597	161,409,104
1923	51,613	532,827,925	556,850,966	44,159,843	.....

Assistant Postmasters-General.
City Delivery, Division of.
Civil Service.
Division of Dead Letters.
Division of Finance.
Division of Miscellaneous Transportation.
Division of Money Orders.
Division of Railway Adjustment.
Division of Registered Mails.
Division of Rural Mails.
Division of Stamps.
Foreign Mail Service.
Mail Matter.
Parcel Post.
Postage Stamps.
Postal Conventions.
Postal Currency.
Postal Rates.
Postal Savings.
Postal Service.
Postmaster-General.
Post-Offices.
Railway Mail Service.
Star Routes.

Following is a list of the Postmasters-General and the Presidents under whom they served:*

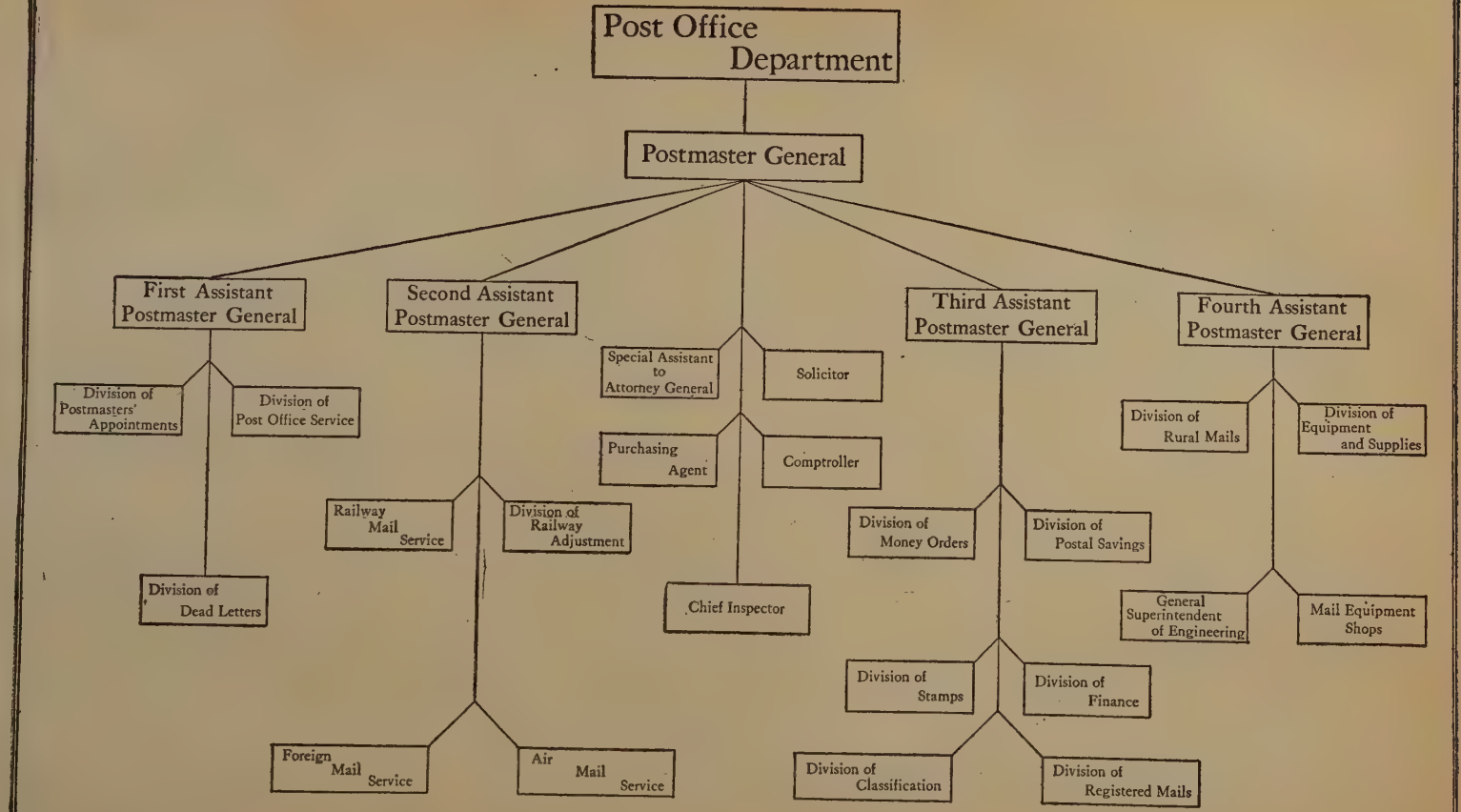
President	Postmaster-General	Appointed
Washington	Samuel Osgood, Massachusetts	1789
"	Timothy Pickering, Mass.	1791
"	Joseph Habersham, Georgia	1795
Adams	" "	1797
Jefferson	" "	1801
"	Gideon Granger, Connecticut	1801
Madison	" "	1809
"	Return J. Meigs, Jr., Ohio	1814
Monroe	" "	1817
"	John McLean, Ohio	1823
J.Q. Adams	" "	1825
Jackson	William T. Barry, Kentucky	1829
"	Amos Kendall, Kentucky	1835
Van Buren	" "	1837
"	John M. Niles, Connecticut	1840
Harrison	Francis Granger, New York	1841
Tyler	" "	1841
"	Charles A. Wickliffe, Kentucky	1841
Polk	Cave Johnson, Tennessee	1845
Taylor	Jacob Collamer, Vermont	1849
Fillmore	Nathan K. Hall, New York	1850
"	S. D. Hubbard, Connecticut	1852
Pierce	James Campbell, Pennsylvania	1853
Buchanan	Aaron V. Brown, Tennessee	1857
"	Joseph Holt, Kentucky	1859
"	Horatio King, Maine	1861
Lincoln	Montgomery Blair, Maryland	1861
"	William Dennison, Ohio	1864
Johnson	" "	1865
"	Alex. W. Randall, Wisconsin	1866
Grant	John A. J. Cresswell, Maryland	1869
"	James W. Marshall, Virginia	1874
"	Marshall Jewell, Connecticut	1874
"	James N. Tyner, Indiana	1876
Hayes	David McK. Key, Tennessee	1877
"	Horace Maynard, Tennessee	1880
Garfield	Thomas L. James, New York	1881
Arthur	Timothy O. Howe, Wisconsin	1881
"	Walter Q. Gresham, Indiana	1883
"	Frank Hatton, Iowa	1884
Cleveland	William F. Vilas, Wisconsin	1885
"	Don M. Dickinson, Michigan	1888
B. Harrison	John Wanamaker, Pennsylvania	1889
Cleveland	Wilson S. Bissell, New York	1893
"	William L. Wilson, West Virginia	1895
McKinley	James A. Gary, Maryland	1897
"	Charles Emory Smith, Penn.	1898
Roosevelt	" "	1901
"	Henry C. Payne, Wisconsin	1901
"	Robert J. Wynne, Pennsylvania	1904
"	George B. Cortelyou, New York	1905
"	George von L. Meyer, Mass.	1907
Taft	Frank H. Hitchcock, Mass.	1909
Wilson	Albert S. Burleson, Texas	1913
Harding	Will H. Hays, Indiana	1921
"	Hubert Work, Colorado	1922
"	Harry S. New, Indiana	1923
Coolidge	" "	1923

*The Postmaster-General was not considered a Cabinet officer until 1829.

Post-Office Department:
- Act regarding post-office, vetoed, 4339.
- Appropriation for, 2202, 2992, 9168.
- Assistant in, recommended, 4938, 5102.
- Building for. (See Post-Office Building.)
- Clerks in, referred to, 3585.
- Discussed. (See Postal Service discussed.)
- Funds of, deficit in, 1335, 2943, 3107.
- Issuance of commissions to officials by Postmaster-General, recommended, 4063, 4193.
- Laws of, recommendations regarding, 784.
- Reforms in, recommended, 6163.
- Revenues and expenditures of—
  - Appropriation for, 2202, 2992.
  - Bill providing for, failure of, to pass, 3102.
  - Deficit turned into surplus in two years, 7693.
  - Discussed by President—
    - Adams, J. Q., 877, 929, 956, 985.
    - Arthur, 4639, 4728, 4769.
    - Buchanan, 2992, 3054, 3056, 3107.
    - Cleveland, 4937, 6101, 5377, 5880, 5969, 6161.
    - Coolidge, 9335.
    - Fillmore, 2625, 2670.
    - Grant, 3994, 4151, 4203, 4250, 4363.
    - Harrison, Benj., 5551, 5633, 5756.
    - Hayes, 4426, 4452, 4526, 4574.
    - Jackson, 1023, 1090, 1253, 1335, 1393, 1476.
    - Johnson, 3561, 3650, 3775, 3882.
    - Lincoln, 3252, 3332, 3386, 3450.
    - McKinley, 6335.
    - Monroe, 784, 827.
    - Pierce, 2748, 2822, 2872, 2943.
    - Polk, 2264, 2355, 2502.
    - Roosevelt, 6675, 6677, 6723, 6798, 6913, 7102.
    - Taft, 7433, 7525, 7693, 7732, 7733, 7814.
    - Tyler, 1902, 2056, 2202.
    - Van Buren, 1610, 1719, 1755, 1836.
  - Second class mail matter, report of commission on, 7733.
  - Treasurer for, should be appointed, 1336.

Post-Offices:
- Classification of fourth-class, recommended, 6172.
- Clerks in, legislation regarding classification of, recommended, 5378.
- Consolidation of, 6164, 6172.
- Number of, 784, 6344.
  - Increase in, 877, 933, 956, 985, 1610, 1719, 1755, 2355, 2625, 2670, 2992, 4203, 4574, 4769, 5376, 5756, 5881, 5971.

Post Roads. (See Mail Routes.)


Post Office Department
Postmaster General
First Assistant Postmaster General
Second Assistant Postmaster General
Special Assistant to Attorney General
Solicitor
Third Assistant Postmaster General
Fourth Assistant Postmaster General
Division of Postmasters' Appointments
Division of Post Office Service
Purchasing Agent
Comptroller
Division of Rural Mails
Division of Equipment and Supplies
Railway Mail Service
Division of Railway Adjustment
Division of Money Orders
Division of Postal Savings
Division of Dead Letters
Chief Inspector
General Superintendent of Engineering
Mail Equipment Shops
Division of Stamps
Division of Finance
Foreign Mail Service
Air Mail Service
Division of Classification
Division of Registered Mails

Postage.—The price established by law to be paid for the conveyance of a letter or other mailable matter by a public post. Rates of postage were fixed by the Continental Congress in 1789 as follows: Single letters under 60 miles, 7.4 cents; between 60 and 100 miles, 11.1 cents; between 100 and 200 miles, 14.8 cents, and 3.4 cents for each additional 100 miles. As early as 1794 a delivery system was inaugurated, a fee of 2 cents being required for each letter delivered. In 1814 the rates of postage were increased by 50 per cent, but the old rate was restored in 1816. Mails were first carried on horseback, later by stage coach, and in 1834 by railway. July 7, 1838, Congress declared every railroad to be a mail route.

The free-delivery system was established in 1872 in cities of 50,000 population or over, and in 1887 the system was extended.

Rural Free Delivery.—In 1896 the experiment of free delivery in rural districts was tried and proved to be a success; since that date the principle has been adopted and is being extended all over the country. (See also Post-Office Department.)

The following table exhibits the growth of the rural free delivery service in recent years:

Year	Carriers (Number)	Daily Mileage	Annual Cost
1898	148	2,960	$50,241
1900	1,276	28,685	420,433
1901	4,301	100,299	1,750,321
1903	15,119	332,618	8,051,599
1904	24,566	552,725	12,645,275
1905	32,055	721,237	20,864,885
1906	35,318	820,318	25,011,625
1907	37,582	883,117	26,661,555
1908	39,143	891,432	34,371,939
1909	40,499	979,541	35,661,034
1910	40,997	993,068	36,914,769
1911	41,559	1,007,772	37,125,630
1912	42,199	1,021,492	41,859,422
1913	42,805	1,028,603	45,642,766
1914	43,652	1,050,266	47,377,070
1915	43,710	1,073,099	50,000,000
1916	42,766	1,063,305	51,952,326
1917	43,338	1,112,556	52,423,090
1918	43,320	1,127,110	52,552,996
1919	43,210	1,143,467	65,020,836
1920	43,445	1,151,832	75,795,110
1921	43,752	1,163,896	81,315,961
1922	44,186	1,180,448	82,722,469
1923	44,439	1,190,534	

Postage (see also Franking Privilege):
Census papers discussed, 654.
Increase in, recommended, 3056.
On census papers discussed, 654.
Reduction in—
Discussed, 2202, 2264, 2412, 2560, 2671, 2713, 2943, 4835, 4937, 5101.
Recommended, 1476, 1836, 2503, 2560, 2625, 4728, 4769, 4836.
Revenue derived from. (See Post-Office Department, revenues, etc., of.)

Postage Stamps.—An official mark or stamp affixed to or embossed on letters sent through the mails as evidence of the prepayment of postage. Adhesive stamps were made as an experiment by James Chalmers in his printing office in Dundee in 1834, but they were not made public till November, 1837. In February, 1837, Sir Rowland Hill proposed a postage stamp for prepayment of letter postage. In 1840 Mulready's envelope was introduced, bearing an allegorical design of England attracting the commerce of the world, but this was soon superseded by the adhesive stamp. Local stamps were in use in various cities in the United States as early as 1842—in New York, St. Louis, Baltimore, and Brattleboro. By act of May 3, 1847, the use of postage stamps was authorized, and issues of 5 and 10 cent stamps were made by the Government bearing, respectively, designs of the heads of Franklin and Washington. In 1851 three new values were added—1, 3, and 12 cents. From this time till 1860 a complete series was issued in values from 5 to 90 cents. In 1869 a new series was brought out in various designs, such as a horseman, a locomotive, eagle, steamship, landing of Columbus, Declaration of Independence, heads of Franklin, Washington, and Lincoln. The series of 1870-72 bore heads of Franklin, after Rupricht's bust; Jackson, after Powers; Washington, after the bust by Houdon; Lincoln, after Volk; Stanton, from a photograph; Jefferson, after Powers's statue; Clay, after the bust by Hart; Webster, after the Clevenger bust; Scott, after the bust by Coffee; Hamilton, after Cerrachi; and Perry, from Wolcott's statue.

At the International Postal Conference held at Berne, Switzerland, in 1874, the Universal Postal Union was formed, with rates of 5 cents per half ounce on all letters passing between the countries composing the union. In 1875 a 5-cent stamp was issued for this foreign service, bearing the head of Jackson, taken from a photograph, and in 1882 another of the same value with the head of Garfield. Stamped envelopes were issued in 1852 and postal cards in 1872.

Postal Congress, International, at—
Berne, 4250.
Lisbon, 4938.
Paris, 3387.
New convention adopted by, 4453.
Washington, 6164.

Postal Conventions.—At the instance of Montgomery Blair, Postmaster-General of the United States, an international conference of postal delegates was held at Paris, in May and June, 1863. Hon. John A. Kasson represented the United States. The objects of the conference were to facilitate postal intercourse between nations and to inaugurate a general system of uniform international charges at reduced rates of postage and to form the basis of future conferences. President Johnson, in his third annual message of Dec. 3, 1867 (page 3775), reported the ratification of postal conventions with Great Britain, Belgium, the Netherlands, Switzerland, the North German Union, Italy, and the colonial government of Hong Kong, largely reducing the rates of ocean and land postage to and from and within those countries.

In October, 1874, the general postal union at Berne, Switzerland, reduced international letter postage generally to five cents per half ounce. A third convention for a Universal Postal Union was signed at Paris, June 1, 1878, by John N. Tyner and Joseph H. Blackfan on behalf of the United States. The postal congress at Lisbon in April, 1886, confirmed the international rate of five cents per half ounce for prepaid letters and two cents for postal cards. The next congress was held at Vienna in 1891. President Hayes gave a good idea of the extent

of the Postal Convention in his second annual message of Dec. 2, 1878 (page 4453). The rate of postage or letters to foreign countries now is five cents for the first ounce or less (each additional ounce three cents), except Great Britain, Germany, Canada, Cuba and Mexico, where the rate is two cents.

Postal Conventions:
Discussed, 3387, 4152, 4938.
Embarrassment arising under, referred to, 4453.
With—
Bahama Islands, 5377.
Barbados, 5377.
Belgium, 3775, 3883, 4203.
Canada, 4836, 5377.
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Costa Rica, 3284.
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Great Britain, 2528, 2560, 2724, 3650, 3775, 3833, 3883.
Honduras, 5377.
Italy, 3775, 3883.
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Mexico, 3235, 3264, 5377.
Ratification of, referred to, 3274.
Netherlands, 3775, 3883.
New South Wales, 4882.
Newfoundland, 4203.
Sweden and Norway, 4203.
Switzerland, 3775, 3883, 4250.

Postal Crimes:
Act relating to, etc., returned, 5204.
In Canal Zone, order relating to, 7964.

Postal Currency.—During the Civil War, when silver became very scarce, a substitute for fractional currency was invented by Gen. Spinner, United States Treasurer under President Lincoln. It consisted of postage stamps pasted upon paper used for Government securities and representing different sums. These pieces of paper were circulated among the clerks of the Department and became for a while the medium of exchange in a small way.

Postal Deposits in Canal Zone, interest rate fixed on, 8140.

Postal Matter, abuse of classification of, 6675.

Postal Notes. (See Money-Order System.)

Postal Savings Banks. — To encourage people of small means to deposit their savings where they would be immediately available in emergency, and at the same time be secure from misappropriation while earning a small interest, postal savings banks have been established in most other progressive countries, and in the United States the question was long discussed before being put in operation.

Post-office savings banks were established in England in 1861 to meet the growing wants of the people for a secure and convenient place of deposit for savings.

Congress appropriated $100,000, June 25, 1910, to start the postal savings system, and named as trustees the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Attorney-General. On Jan. 2, 1911, a selected post-office in each of the forty-eight states was prepared to accept deposits.

An act of Congress approved June 25, 1910, authorized the establishment of postal savings depositary offices, created a board of trustees, consisting of the Postmaster-General, the Secretary of the Treasury, and the Attorney-General, with power to designate such post offices as they may select to be postal savings depositary offices.

Changes were made in the laws regulating postal savings until by 1921 the following regulations pertaining to postal savings were in effect:

The limit of an individual deposit has been increased from $1,000 to $2,500. No sum of less than $1 will be accepted for a deposit. Interest is allowed at the rate of 2 per cent. An account may be opened and deposits made by any person of the age of 10 years or over, in his or her own name, and by a married woman in her own name and free from any control or interference by her husband. Deposits will be accepted only from individuals. No account will be opened in the name of any corporation, association, society, firm, or partnership, in the name of any person as an officer of a corporation, association, or society, in the name of any person as a member of a firm or partnership, or in the name of two or more persons jointly. No account will be opened in the name of one person in trust for or on behalf of another person or persons.

A person may open a postal savings account at any depository post-office, but no person may at the same time have more than one postal savings account either at the same office or at different offices. Amounts less than $1 may be saved by purchasing 10-cent postal savings cards and 10-cent postal savings stamps. A postal savings card with 9 postal savings stamps affixed will be accepted as a deposit of $1 either in opening an account or in adding to an existing account, or it may be redeemed in cash. Postal savings cards and stamps are not valid for postage, and postmasters will not give them in exchange for postage stamps, nor give postage stamps in exchange for postal savings cards and stamps. Deposits are evidenced by postal savings certificates issued in fixed denominations of $1, $2, $5, $10, $20, $50, $100, $200, and $500, each bearing the name of the depositor, the number of his account, the date of issue, the name of the depository office, and the date on which interest begins.

The following table shows the growth of the postal savings system of the United States, since its beginning in 1911, the figures being for June of the several years indicated.

Year	*Depositors*	*On Deposit*	*Average Principal*
1911	11,918	$ 677,145	$ 56.82
1912	243,801	20,237,084	83.01
1913	331,006	33,818,870	102.00
1914	388,511	43,444,271	111.82
1915	525,414	65,684,708	125.02
1916	602,937	86,019,885	142.67
1917	674,728	131,954,696	195.57
1918	612,188	148,471,499	242.53
1919	565,509	167,323,260	295.88
1920	508,508	157,276,322	309.29
1921	466,109	152,389,903	326.94
1922	420,242	137,736,439	327.76
1923	417,902	131,671,300	315.08

The number of depositories in 1923 was 6,802.

Postal savings certificates are not transferable nor negotiable. A depositor may exchange the whole or any part of his deposits for registered or coupon United States postal savings bonds, issued in denominations of $20, $100, and $500, bearing interest at the rate of 2½ per cent. per annum, payable semi-annually, redeemable at

the pleasure of the United States after one year from date of issue, and payable 20 years from such date. Both principal and interest is payable in United States gold coin. The bonds are tax-free. The exchange may be made as of January 1 and July 1 of each year.

Postal Savings Banks:

Recommended by President—
Arthur, 4639.
Grant, 4152, 4204.
Hayes, 4574.
Roosevelt, 7102, 7226, 7346.
Taft, 7373, 7434, 7525.
Statistics of, 7814.
Three months of experiment, 7693.

Postal Service.—The first mention of a postal service in the United States is that of the General Court of Massachusetts in 1639; "It is ordered that notice be given that Richard Fairbanks, his house in Boston is the place appointed for all letters which are brought from beyond the seas, or are to be sent thither to be left with him, and he is to take care that they are to be delivered or sent according to the direction. And he is allowed for every letter a penny, and must answer all miscarriages through his own neglect in this kind." Out of this humble beginning grew the present Post-Office Department whose operations for a recent fiscal year may be thus summarized in tabular form:

Total Revenues	$ 436,239,126
Money-Order Revenue	8,530,512
Postal Savings Revenue	1,939,413
Total Expenditures	362,497,636
Excess of Revenue over Expenditure	73,741,490
Excess due to War Revenue Rates	71,392,000
Actual Postal Surplus	2,349,490
Sales of stamps, postals, etc.	392,991,168
Second-Class Postage	16,059,248
Third and Fourth Class Postage	10,458,300
Cost of services in Post-Offices	185,837,306
Cost of Railway Mail Service	32,899,147
Cost of Rural Free Delivery	65,145,437
Cost of transporting mail	78,441,541
Postal Savings Depositors, No.	565,509
Postal Savings Deposits	$ 135,942,981
Domestic Money Orders:—	
No. Issued	131,896,880
Amount Issued	$ 1,109,612,850
Fees Received	8,637,064
International Money Orders:—	
No. Issued	2,477,899
Amount Issued	$ 39,766,077
Fees Received	345,860
Lbs. Second Class Matter Mailed	1,182,297,966
No. Pieces Registered Mail.	65,373,394
Amount Collected for Registering	$ 5,453,978
Insured Parcel Post Pieces No.	69,997,889
Fees Collected for Insurance	$ 4,453,886
Collect on Delivery Pieces, No.	14,383,668
Fees Collected for C. O. D.	$ 1,473,960
Special Delivery Pieces Sent	58,544,387
Extent of Post Routes, Miles	455,498
Miles of Mail Service Performed	624,731,638
Postage Stamps Issued	15,020,470,168
Stamped Envelopes and Wrappers Issued	1,844,884,905
Postal Cards Issued	456,924,490
Dead Letters Received	22,982,605
No. Pieces all Kinds Mail Handled (Estimated for 1913)	18,567,445,160
City Delivery Offices	2,018
City Delivery Carriers	35,024
Cost City Delivery Service	$ 59,527,296
Rural Delivery Carriers	43,210
Rural Delivery Mileage	1,143,467
Cost Rural Delivery	$ 65,448,230
Motor Trucks in Service	1,518
Post-Offices, Presidential	10,825
First Class 665	
Second Class 2,539	
Third Class 7,621	
Post-Offices, Fourth Class	42,259

Postal Service:

Abuses of, discussed, 4640, 4730, 5970, 6162.

Civil Service in (see also Railway Mail Service)—
Discussed, 5972, 6172.
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Exception in, 8875.
Extension of, urged, 7526, 7732, 7739.
Local postoffices should be included under, 7739.
Postmasters should all be under, 7814.

Communication with Santiago, Cuba, order regarding, 6577.

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Correspondence with foreign countries, security required in, 1477.

Deficit in, should be reduced by increasing second-class mail rates, 7433, 7528.

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Buchanan, 2992, 3056, 3101, 3107, 3184.
Cleveland, 4937, 5100, 5376, 5880, 5970, 6161.
Fillmore, 2625, 2670, 2713.
Grant, 3994, 4063, 4103, 4151, 4203, 4250, 4305, 4363.
Harrison, Benj., 5478, 5551, 5559, 5633, 5756.
Hayes, 4426, 4452, 4526, 4573.
Jackson, 1023, 1089, 1168, 1252, 1335, 1393, 1476.
Johnson, 3561, 3650, 3775, 3882.
Lincoln, 3252, 3332, 3386, 3450.
McKinley, 6344, 6386.
Monroe, 784, 824.
Pierce, 2748, 2822, 2872, 2943.
Polk, 2264, 2355, 2412, 2502.
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Continuity of service for efficient, urged, 7526.
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Inadequate facilities extended rural communities discussed and recommendations regarding, 5633.
Inspector service, recommendations regarding, 6163.
Interference with, by Entente Allies, 8165.
Mail—
Communication with Australia, recommendations regarding, 5559.
Depredations on, allowance to witnesses in cases of prosecution referred to, 1756.
Import duty on foreign, recommended, 4527.
Modification of law regulating rates upon second-class matter recommended, 5970, 6162.
Publications for instigating slaves to insurrection sent through, discussed, 1394.
Mail routes. (See Mail Routes.)
Mail transportation—
Act making appropriations for transportation by steamers and otherwise vetoed, 2855.
Annual cost of, 2670, 2823, 2872, 3056, 4151, 4250.
Between Atlantic and Pacific discussed, 2901, 3127, 3184.
Between Washington and New Orleans, irregularity of, referred to, 2883.
Cost of, to Pacific coast, etc., referred to, 4077.
Fraudulent bonds accompanying bids and contracts for, 4655.
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Laws to prevent transmission of lottery advertisements discussed and recommendations regarding, 5479, 5515, 5551.
Legislation to protect, recommended, 4081.
Money-order system discussed, 985, 4639, 4937, 5377, 5756, 5881, 5971.
Money orders, international, discussed, 5881, 5971.
Ocean mail post-office, establishment of, discussed, 5633.
Penalties extended to Canal Zone, 7964.
Penn Yan, N. Y., agent to take charge of post-office at, referred to, 3799.
Post routes. (See Mail Routes.)
Postal notes. (See Money-Order-System, *ante*.)
Postal treaties. (See Postal Conventions.)
Railway—
Authority to compel railroads to carry mail recommended, 5378.
Compensation for—
Change in, recommended, 3994.
Discussed by President —
Cleveland, 5100.
Taft, 7815.
Exorbitant, 1393, 1941, 2748.
Reduction of, 4527.
Should be regulated by Congress, 1394, 1941.
Contracts demand attention of Congress, 1476, 1720, 1756, 2943.
Contracts for, should be made by Postmaster-General on equitable basis, 1476.
Discussed. (See Postal Service discussed.)
Railway Mail Service. (See Railway Mail Service.)
Reforms in, accomplished, 7526.
Registry system discussed, 4639.
Report on, 7693.
Rural service of, 6677, 6724, 6798.
Second-class mail matter—
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Rates of, should be increased, 7433, 7528.
Report of commission on, 7733.
Special delivery stamps—
Discussed, 5881, 5971.
Recommended, 4836.
Star routes—
Decrease in, referred to, 4639.
Fraudulent bids referred to, 4655.
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Expenses of, referred to, 2611, 2748, 4151, 4640.
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Lines, establishment of, 7231.
Post-offices established on, 5633.
Service, discussed, 6788.
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Union of telegraph system and, discussed. (See Telegraph Lines, Government control of.)
Unit of weight in rating first-class matter discussed, 4836.
Unlawful publications, prohibited from using, 1394.
Postal Treaties. (See Postal Conventions.)
Postal Union, International (see also Postal Congress, International):
Convention for establishment of, 4250.
Postal Union, Universal, discussed, 4574, 4640, 5971, 6164.

Postmaster-General.—The head of the Post-Office Department, and as such the director of the entire postal service of the country. The postmaster-general has been a member of the Cabinet since 1829, and his salary is $12,000 a year. By act of June 8, 1872, his tenure of office is during the term of the President by whom he is appointed and for one month thereafter, unless removed with the advice and consent of the Senate. His powers over his department are particularly untramelled and broad. He appoints all the important officers in his department, except the assistant postmasters-general (q. v.) and the purchasing agent, who are appointed by the President. He makes the contracts with railroad lines, steamship companies and other agents of transportation for the conveyance of the mails; and concludes postal contracts with other countries, although these latter must receive the approval of the President. He adds new post-offices to the list and abandons old ones, according to his judgment; and his discretion is the sole factor in enlarging or contracting the postal system in its various details. (See Post-Office Department.)

Postmaster-General:
Censorship administration during World War assigned to, 8371.
Disclaims any intended disrespect in communication to Senate, 1745.
Post-office building report of, recommending erection of, 1483.
Postmasters appointed by, referred to, 2571.
Report of, recommending erection of new post-office building, 1483.
Report for year ended June 30, 1911, 7731.
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Amount due from, 784.
Appointment of, by Postmaster-General, referred to, 2571.
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Classification of fourth-class, discussed and recommendations regarding, 6172, 7102.
Classification of first, second and third class, 8225, 8964.
Exception in, 8875.
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Compensation to, discussed, 784, 2943, 4363, 5377.
Interference with, discussed, 4363, 5550.
Number and classification of, 8965.
Relative merit of, plan to indicate, recommended, 5479, 5489.

Potato.—The so-called Irish potato is native to the west coast of South America, and is said to have been introduced into Ireland by Sir Walter Raleigh, who grew the roots on his large estate in County Cork. Though now so universal an article of food it was scarcely known prior to the 17th century, and was not generally cultivated until the middle of the 18th.

The estimated acreage, production in bushels and farm value on December 1 of the potato crop in the United States, exclusive of sweet potatoes, for recent years are as follows, *in thousands,* the figures being those of the Department of Agriculture Year Book:—

Year	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Farm Value*
1900	2,987	247,759	$104,764
1905	3,195	278,885	170,340
1910	3,720	349,032	194,566
1912	3,711	420,647	212,550
1914	3,711	409,921	199,460
1916	3,565	286,953	419,333
1918	4,295	411,860	491,527
1920	3,657	403,296	461,778
1921	3,941	361,659	398,362
1922	4,331	451,185	262,608
1923 (Preliminary)		412,392	339,322

The production in bushels and value of the potato crop in our leading potato-producing states in 1922 are shown in the table following. The figures for the potato

crop of the other states are given separately under the headings of the states.

State	*Bushels*	*Value*
Alabama	3,840,000	$5,760,000
California	10,260,000	7,387,000
Colorado	18,460,000	6,830,000
Illinois	7,497,000	6,747,000
Iowa	8,460,000	5,668,000
Maine	21,600,000	9,720,000
Michigan	37,842,000	12,866,000
Minnesota	43,740,000	15,309,000
Nebraska	11,676,000	5,488,000
New Jersey	16,435,000	11,833,000
New York	37,400,000	22,440,000
North Dakota	17,820,000	5,524,000
Ohio	11,214,000	10,093,000
Pennsylvania	28,512,000	21,384,000
Virginia	16,585,000	10,780,000
Wisconsin	40,672,000	13,422,000

The acreage, bushels produced and yield per acre of the great potato-producing countries of the world in a recent year are given by the Department of Agriculture as follows, figures for acreage and bushels annual production in thousands:—

Country	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Acre*
United States	4,331	451,185	104.2
Canada	694	102,686	148.0
Germany[1]	6,723	1,442,180	214.5
France	3,595	305,324	84.9
Austria	313	26,207	83.7
Russia in Europe[2]	8,499	878,461	103.4
Hungary	466	33,951	72.9
Czechoslovakia	1,607	290,469	180.8
Poland	5,303	1,034,557	195.1
United Kingdom—			
England, Wales	561	144,110	256.9
Scotland	154	38,827	252.1
Ireland	568	95,427	168.0
Netherlands	454	124,523	276.5
Belgium	442	79,367	179.6
Japan proper	296	39,736	269.4
Chile	73	13,877	190.0

[1]Much of the crop is used for purposes other than food. [2]Average, 1909-1913.

Potomac, The, instructions given commander of, at Sumatra, 1138.

Potomac River:
- Bridges over, in District of Columbia. (See District of Columbia.)
- Improvement of, recommended, 4430, 4458, 4532, 4579, 4651.
  - Bill for, submitted, 4533.
- Lands lying on, referred to, 128.

Pottawatomie Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Pottery Industry.—The growth of this ancient industry in the United States was due to the immigration hither of skilled potters and workmen from England. In 1685, Governor Coxe of New Jersey established the first pottery in this country, at Burlington, New Jersey, and others were established from time to time. In 1850, 484 potteries were reported in the United States. Until the twentieth century, however, it was necessary to import for the industry here skilled potters from abroad, mostly from England, and even up to the outbreak of the World War it was often necessary to get managers from England.

The industry for the manufacture of tableware, etc., got its start in Trenton, which until recently remained the centre for this branch of the pottery industry.

The industry was surveyed in the federal census of manufactures taken as of 1921 and the report upon it was published in 1923. A summary is as follows:—

Number of establishments	271
Persons engaged	30,997
Capital (1919 figures)	$66,757,970
Salaries and wages	41,255,607
Cost of materials	25,227,227
Value of products	84,217,427

About one-fourth of the wage-earners are women. The leading state is Ohio, which employs 40% of the wage-earners and produces 40% of the total value of products. Similar figures for New Jersey were 19% and 19% and for West Virginia, 12% and 13%.

In 1919, 1 establishment in West Virginia employed 1,012 wage-earners and 2 in Ohio employed between 500 and 1,000 each. One in New York employed 785 and one in New Jersey, 551. There were 16 others which employed between 250 and 500 each. There were 14 establishments in 1921 with annual products valued at over $1,000,000 each.

Poultry Dealers licensed, 8498.

Poverty, lessening of, urged, 8929.

Powder, Smokeless:
- Adoption of, recommended, 6128.
- Development of, 5759.

Powell National Forest referred to, 9217.

Power Commission, Federal. (See Federal Power Commission.)

Power Survey made of eastern industrial region, 9185.

Powers, Foreign (see also the several powers):
- Claims against, referred to, 3066, 3067.
- Claims of, arising out of War between the States discussed, 3328, 4086.
- Collection of commercial relations of, referred to, 632, 775.
- Commerce of. (See Commerce of Foreign Powers.)
- Commerce with. (See Commerce.)
- Duties levied by, export, referred to and recommendation, 4744.
- Expeditions against—
  - Discussed by President—
    - Arthur, 4640.
    - Buchanan, 2978, 2997, 3180.
    - Fillmore, 2643, 2649, 2697.
    - Jefferson, 394, 395, 400, 417.
    - Johnson, 3655, 3658.
    - Monroe, 582, 583, 590, 592, 601, 609, 620, 769.
    - Pierce, 2741, 2779.
    - Polk, 2455.
    - Taylor, 2549, 2585.
    - Van Buren, 1616.
    - Washington, 146.
  - Proclamations against, by President—
    - Buchanan, 3027.
    - Cleveland, 6023, 6126.
    - Fillmore, 2647, 2648.
    - Grant, 4039, 4045.
    - Jefferson, 392.
    - Johnson, 3631.
    - Madison, 546.

Pierce, 2804, 2805, 2921.
Taylor, 2555.
Tyler, 1910.
Washington, 149.

Explosives, order to prevent shipment of, abroad, 4815.

Export duties levied by, referred to, 4744.

Imprisonment of American citizens by. (See Imprisonment.)

Imprisonment of citizens of, by United States. (See the several powers.)

Intermeddling of, with Indians referred to, 1728.

Ministers of, to United States. (See the several powers.)

Ministers of the United States to. (See Ministers of United States.)

Neutral rights of. (See Neutral Rights.)

Peace with, should not be interfered with by American citizens, 120.

Relations with, referred to, 3285.

Revenues and finances of, referred to, 3272.

Subjects of, in United States. (See Aliens; Naturalized Citizens.)

Treaties with, referred to, 2538, 3888, 4851. (See also the several powers.)

Vessels of United States seized by authorities of. (See Vessels, United States.)

Powers of Federal and State Governments discussed by President—
Arthur, 4707, 4771, 4808.
Buchanan, 2962, 2981, 3028, 3074, 3084, 3130, 3139, 3145, 3150, 3157, 3168, 3186.
Cleveland, 4960, 4992, 4996, 5142, 5363, 5412, 5422, 5924, 6070, 6109.
Fillmore, 2626.
Grant, 3992, 4126, 4170, 4196, 4259.
Harrison, Benj., 5489, 5562, 5766.
Hayes, 4445, 4466, 4475, 4484, 4488, 4493, 4497, 4512, 4543, 4544, 4553.
Jackson, 1014, 1024, 1046, 1071, 1077, 1082, 1120, 1141, 1201, 1224, 1275, 1288, 1337, 1351, 1395, 1450.
Jefferson, 397, 444.
Johnson, 3551, 3570, 3593, 3596, 3603, 3611, 3620, 3643, 3670, 3681, 3687, 3690, 3696, 3729, 3734, 3756, 3766, 3781, 3820, 3837, 3844, 3846, 3848, 3849, 3870, 3889.
Lincoln, 3206, 3221, 3269, 3274, 3286, 3335.
Madison, 474, 475, 540, 569.
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Polk, 2310, 2456, 2460, 2490, 2506.
Tyler, 1916, 1921, 1941, 2036, 2043, 2183.
Washington, 186.
Wilson, 7875.

Prairie Grove (Ark.), Battle of.—Sept. 19, 1862, President Lincoln directed that Missouri, Arkansas, Kansas, and the eastern portion of Indian Territory should constitute the Department of the Missouri, to be commanded by Brig.-Gen. Samuel R. Curtis. The only important engagement that occurred in this department while Curtis was in command was at Prairie Grove, Ark. The Confederate General Thomas C. Hindman was on his way north into Missouri with a large force when, on Dec. 7, 1862, he encountered the united forces of Generals James G. Blunt and Francis J. Herron. During the engagement which ensued the Federals lost 1,148 and the Confederates, 1,317. The latter retired during the night.

Prayer, Days of. (See Fasting and Prayer, and Thanksgiving Proclamations.)

Predatory Wealth, acts of representatives of, 7135.

Preemption Laws.—The first law regulating the preemption of and payment for public lands was passed March 3, 1801. It was a special act affecting the Symmes colonization scheme on the Miami River. A number of preemption laws were passed, most of them of a more or less special nature. The first general law was passed in 1830. The law of 1841 granted, in consideration of residence and improvement, freedom of entry upon 160 acres of public lands to any person over twenty-one years of age; twelve to thirty-three months were allowed for payment, and the amount to be paid varied with the situation and value of the tract preempted. (See Lands, Public.)

Preemption Laws:
Discussed, 1713, 1753, 3651, 4064, 5484.
Recommended, 1606, 2259.
Amendments to law recommended, 2408, 2500.
Repeal of preemption act recommended, 4770, 4837, 5107.

Preparedness.—The movement for adequate protection on land and sea against war which arose as a result of the World War. For years, there had been certain elements in American life urging the need for a larger navy and a larger army, and also universal military training; but these received little popular support until the danger of America's entrance into the war in Europe became pressing.

The traditional first line of defence of the United States lay in its Navy, so that it was natural that Preparedness looked toward an extensive increase in our land forces. The unwieldiness and the lack of centralized authority in the National Guard, so far as availability for Federal purposes was concerned, were well revealed by the mobilization of troops on the Mexican border in 1916. (See Mexico.) The smashing victories of the Teutonic armies early in the European War could be explained only by the attention long paid military preparedness by Germany, while the same explanation arose for the sturdy resistance of the French and the immediate and complete domination of the English Navy over all the seas. On the other hand, the length of time

taken by England to get her land fighting-machine under way, despite the most earnest efforts, proved the weakness of a country which waited until the declaration of war in order to prepare.

As the danger of America being plunged into the European vortex daily became more acute, the Preparedness movement also devoted itself largely to the question of making our Navy better available for service. The prominent part played by submarines and aeroplanes in the European War had almost revolutionized naval tactics, and grave doubts arose whether our navy, despite its strength, was sufficiently prepared in the newer fields of naval activities.

Preparedness became almost the leading subject of discussion in private so well as in public gatherings all over the United States. The resignation of Secretary of War Garrison on Feb. 10, 1916, because of a difference of opinion with President Wilson concerning the federalization of the National Guard, created intense excitement; and the country was virtually divided into two camps on the issue involved. Many new organizations such as the National Security League and National Defense Society were created in order to assist the preparedness movement, while organizations like the Navy League redoubled their efforts for naval Preparedness. Mass-meetings and parades were held all over the United States in support of Preparedness, and there were few meetings of public or semi-public bodies in which the subject was not discussed. An idea of the amount of interest involved may be gathered from the fact that the great Preparedness Parade held in New York on May 13, 1916 took 12 hours to pass a given point, and consisted of no less than 125,683 men and women marching in support of the cause. Preparedness became a political event of the first magnitude, not only in the national election of 1916, but also in state and municipal elections.

On the other hand, the opponents of Preparedness were by no means few or inactive. To some extent, the opposition came from citizens and non-citizens of Teutonic descent, called in this crisis, fairly or unfairly, German-Americans (q. v.); but the majority of the opponents, although not necessarily those most active in the propaganda against Preparedness, were Americans sincerely convinced that Perparedness was the first step towards a war which they wished to avoid. The Women's Peace Party, the Emergency Peace Federation, and the Union Against Militarism were particularly active. The position taken by them and by their supporters was that the European conflict arose from the fact the countries of Europe had been prepared for it. They asserted furthermore that by resorting to Preparedness America was betraying the interests of peace, and was abandoning the position which would logically accrue to her after the war was over as the nation which had shown by her record that she, and she alone, could be entrusted to lead the warring nations to a new and perpetual peace. It was claimed, in addition, that America was geographically not involved in a European quarrel, and that her geographical position made aggression against her an impossibility.

On October 6, 1915, in a speech in New York, President Wilson definitely committed himself to the Preparedness program; and his administration devoted itself to having enacted many measures carrying out the Preparedness idea. The army re-organization act, approved on June 3, 1916, made new and elaborate increases in the army of the United States, and attention was paid also to strengthening the Navy. Numerous administrative changes in behalf of preparedness, such as the organization of new boards for industrial and scientific integration and preparedness, were made; but even with all this preparation, when the United States finally entered the conflict on April 6, 1917, she was still only partially prepared to assume her burden of the conflict; and many months elapsed in the formation and completion of the plans necessary to place a strong American army on the battlefields of Europe. There was strong criticism of the Wilson administration for not having prepared more adequately for American participation in the World War, after the participation was an actual fact; and that criticism was used with great effect by the Republican Party in the national elections of 1918 and more particularly in the Presidential election of 1920. After the consummation of peace with Germany, the movement for universal military training persisted, but lost some of its strength; so that bills introduced to that end failed to pass the Sixty-Sixth Congress.

An illustration of President Wilson addressing Congress in behalf of Preparedness will be found opposite page 8028.

Preparedness:

America not to be turned into an armed camp, 8021.
Armed neutrality, powers for, asked, 8021.
Army (see also Army)—
  Increase in—
    Ordered, 8172.
    Recommended, 8106.
Citizen army, outlines of, 8084.
  Adequacy of, 8105, 8022.
  Statistics of, 8106.
Diplomacy ineffective without, 7372.
Navy the natural means for defence, 8022. (See also Navy.)
Policy of President—
  Roosevelt, 6666, 6669, 6721, 6805, 6992, 6999, 7066, 7109, 7117.
  Taft, 7371, 7514.
  Washington, 57, 132, 193, 210.
  Wilson, 8021.
Principles of, 8020, 8302.

Preparedness Societies. — (See Preparedness.) Among the many societies called into existence by or aiding in the Preparedness movement in this country may be mentioned the following: The Navy League, the first preparedness society, with 330,000 members in 1917, which was organized in 1902, to assist in the enactment of laws constantly making for the increased efficiency of the Navy, until it becomes the greatest navy in the world; The Army League, which is organized to promote interest in and legislation for the increased efficiency of the Army; The Universal Military Training League, organized for the establishment of Compulsory Military Service (q. v.) and of a National Defense Commission; the National Security League, which was organized on Dec. 1, 1917, and had an enrollment of 100,000 members in its program for increased military preparation for the United States; the American Rights Committee, organized to end the violation of American rights on the high seas. All these bodies were represented on the National Committee of Patriotic and Defense Societies. (See Preparedness.)

President, The.—Previous to the War of 1812 American commerce had suffered considerably at the hands of British cruisers, which hovered about our coasts and captured many United States vessels bound for France. These cruisers also made many impressments of sailors. In May, 1811, Commodore John Rodgers, commanding the American frigate *President* was ordered to put to sea from Chesapeake Bay and protect our commerce. When thirty miles off Cape Charles, May 16, Rodgers gave chase to the *Little Belt*, a British frigate. The latter fired upon the *President*, attempted flight, and failed to show her colors. The fire was returned by the *President*, and in eighteen minutes the *Little Belt* was disabled. A dispute arose as to which of the commanders was at fault, but it was never decided, as the discussion was dropped by mutual agreement. In September, 1814, the *President*, under Decatur, was captured by the *Endymion*, and other British vessels.

President of a State.—Some of the earlier organized states provided for a president as the executive head. To avoid misunderstanding and confusion, this was afterwards changed to governor. The first constitutions of Pennsylvania and New Hampshire, adopted in 1776, provided for an executive council of which one member was president. Delaware, South Carolina and the New Hampshire constitution of 1784 provided for a single head, but called him president. South Carolina in 1778, Pennsylvania in 1790, and Delaware and New Hampshire in 1792 altered the title to governor.

President of United States.—The title of the Chief Executive of the United States. In 1696 William Penn proposed a plan for a general government for the Colonies in America. The plan comprehended a chief executive with the title of president. The Albany Convention proposed that of president-general. The Continental Congress had its president. In the Convention of 1787 it was decided that there should be a single executive to whom the title of president was given. In order to be eligible, the president must be thirty-five years of age, a native-born citizen of the United States, and a resident within the United States for fourteen years. He is elected for a term of four years by electors chosen by the different states. These electors are chosen by direct vote of the people, on ballot tickets usually headed by the names of the candidates voted for as president and vice-president, followed by the names of the electors, who are pledged to vote for these candidates only. (See Electoral Colleges.)

The president's duties and powers under the Constitution are to approve or veto bills; to grant reprieves and pardons for offenses against the United States, except in case of impeachment; to make treaties; to nominate ambassadors and other public ministers, consuls, judges of the Federal courts, etc., and, by and with the consent of the Senate appoint such officers; to fill vacancies that may occur during the recess of the Senate by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of the next session; to convene one or both Houses of Congress, and to adjourn Congress to such a time as he may deem proper in case it can not agree upon an adjournment. He is also commander-in-chief of the army and navy and of the militia of the several states when called into the service of the United States. He is required to give information to Congress from time to time regarding the state of the Union and recommend to its consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient; receive ambassadors and other public ministers; see that the laws are faithfully executed, etc. He receives a salary of $75,000 per annum. Up to the time of the ratification of the twelfth amendment (1804) the president and vice-president were not separately voted for, but the candidate for president who received next to the highest number of votes was made vice-president. Jefferson and J. Q. Adams were elected by the House of Representatives, as provided by the Constitution, neither presidential candidate having a majority of the electoral vote.

The strong will and determined character of Jackson soon restored the presidency to a position equal to if not superior in power to the legislative and judicial branches of the government. It was during his administration that the congressional caucus declined before the growing power of the national convention, and the development of party machinery based upon executive patronage. This national party machinery later became a source of weakness by securing the election of second-rate party men over first-rate statesmen of unavowed party loyalty.

The arbitrary military powers of the President reached their highest development under Lincoln. As commander in chief of the land and naval forces he declared the existence of insurrection, suspended the civil law and denied the writ of habeas corpus to prisoners hundreds of miles from the scene of the disorder.

The Constitution requires the President to execute the laws and vests in him the power of appointment of executive officers and consequently the power of removal. These, with the veto power, in the hands of a judicious leader give him more power than is wielded by most constitutional monarchs of Europe.

Although the Constitution requires all treaties with foreign powers to be concluded "with the advice and consent of the senate," the President may direct the writing of treaties, and if amended by the Senate against his wishes he need not submit them to the diplomats of other nations. He has the power to recognize the independence of a revolutionary faction in a foreign country and thus establish or destroy a nation.

The Constitution declares that the President shall be compensated for his services, but Washington desired to receive no salary (see page 45). The salary was finally fixed at $25,000 annually until the second term of President Grant, when it was increased to $50,000. An act approved on March 4, 1907, appropriated thereafter for the travelling expenses of the President, to be expended at his discretion and accounted for solely by his certificate, the sum of $25,000 annually. Since 1909, the salary has been $75,000, in addition to the travelling allowance.

Title and Term of the President.—The address of the president is simply "The President of the United States." In the First Congress, there was debate over a title and it was proposed by some members that he be addressed as "His Excellency" and by others as "His Highness," but a committee reported that "it is not proper to annex any style or title other than that expressed in the Constitution." In the Constitutional Convention the first report fixed the term of office at seven years without eligibility to re-election. In debate various periods from "during good behavior" to twenty years were favored. The limit to

four years was finally adopted in grand committee and ratified by the convention.

Presidential Flag.—It is usual in other countries to have a special design to designate the presence on a vessel of the ruler of the nation. It was not until lately that the United States had such a flag. President Arthur suggested it in the early part of 1882, and, as his Cabinet concurred in his suggestion, decided on the design of a blue ground bearing the arms of the President in the centre. The Navy Department ordered that this flag should be displayed at the mainmast of any vessel that bore the president. Arthur first used it in 1883.

The theoretical model for the President of the United States was the King of England, but the practical model used by the framers of the Constitution was a composite of the colonial governors and the executive heads of states already formed. Popular confidence in Washington was all that prevented further limitation of the powers of the Chief Executive. The ultimate position of the American President was not determined until the end of Jackson's administration. Washington established and maintained the office upon a broad national basis, but even he could not render it strictly nonpartisan. Jefferson first exemplified the methods of a brilliant statesman and a successful party leader. Under the weaker partisanship of his immediate successors the congressional caucus usurped many of the prerogatives of the Executive.

President of United States (see also the several Presidents):
Act—
Fixing salary of, vetoed, 4334.
Of Congress approved but not signed, whether in force discussed, 856.
Of Congress duly certified and approved which had not passed discussed, 1353.
Providing for performance of duties of, in case of death, etc., of Vice-President and, returned, 5674.
Appointees of, removal of, should be vested only in, 8852.
Appointing power of. (See Executive Nominations.)
Appointment of members of House by, in whose election they have been officially concerned discussed, 1011, 1120.
Appointments of, referred to, 1965.
Arbitration of boundary dispute between Brazil and Argentine Republic submitted to. (See Cleveland, Grover.)
Arbitrator of claim of Italy against Colombia. (See Cleveland, Grover.)
Armenian-Turkish differences to be arbitrated by, 8854, 8881.
Bills considered by, time allowed for, discussed, 2993, 3060.
Cabinet of. (See Cabinet.)
Civil service extended over employees in office of, 6232.
Communications of, to Congress not to be questioned by foreign power, 1397.
Compensation due, referred to, 889.
Conduct of public officers, request of House for documents concerning, declined, 847.
Congressional encroachment on powers of, 8845, 8852.
Constitutional amendment—
Designating officer to succeed, in event of vacancy in Presidency and Vice-Presidency recommended, 3837, 3889. (See also Successor to, *post.*)
Regarding election of, recommended, 1010, 1081, 1120, 1168, 1253, 1336, 1395, 1478, 3838, 3889, 4196, 4397.
Regarding selection of electors recommended, 5644.
Relative to approval of separate items of bill and veto of others recommended, 4196, 4725, 4774, 4840.
Constitutional function as commander of Army, act interfering with, discussed, 3670.
Repeal of, recommended, 3871.
Constitutional meaning of "inability to discharge powers and duties of office of," discussed and recommendations regarding, 4652, 4734, 4774, 4840.
Death of. (See Garfield; Harrison, W. H.; Lincoln; McKinley; Taylor.)
Discretionary authority of, to—
Invite nations to conference on subject of coinage recommended, 5877.
Retaliate in cases of discriminating duties levied on American vessels recommended, 4763, 5205.
Send delegates to foreign conventions, recommendations regarding, 4714, 4763, 4827, 5546, 6325.
Discretionary authority which can be regulated by Congress should not be exercised by, 1387.
Discretionary power of, over nominations, removals, and other acts discussed by President—
Cleveland, 4960.
Jackson, 1255, 1261, 1272, 1346, 1351.
Monroe, 847.
Polk, 2232, 2281, 2416, 2452, 2529.
Tyler, 1903, 1941, 1958, 2073, 2080.
Washington, 186.
Efficiency, Bureau of, proposal to transfer from jurisdiction of, 8848.
Election of—
Act providing for, and regulating counting of votes in, approved and reasons therefor, 4376.

Constitutional amendment regarding, recommended, 1010, 1081, 1120, 1168, 1253, 1336, 1395, 1478, 3838, 3889, 4196, 4397.
Legislation respecting ascertainment and declaration of vote recommended, 4365, 4651, 4734, 4822.
Elections discussed—
1864, 3453.
Table showing number of votes cast in, as compared with election of 1860, 3456.
1876, 4398.
1880, 4553.
1884, 4822.
1896, 6146.
Electors, method of appointment of, and effect of gerrymander discussed, 5643.
Constitutional amendment regarding, recommended, 5644.
Executive acts performed during absence of, from seat of Government discussed, 4315.
Memorandum accompanying message, 4318.
Fines remitted by. (See Fines.)
Foreign intercourse, request of Senate and House for information regarding, refused, 186, 2281, 2416, 2452, 2690, 2691, 2695, 6101.
Referred to, 2529.
Free confidential communication with Senate should be preserved, 893.
Home of. (See Executive Mansion.)
Impeachment of. (See Impeachment.)
Information regarding annexation of Texas refused by, 2232.
Law conferring power upon—
To employ forces for protection of American citizens abroad recommended, 2978, 3070, 3100.
To employ naval forces for protection of American vessels recommended, 3100.
Meets and advises with Senate respecting treaty with Southern Indians, 53.
Militia can not be called into service by, except by authority of Congress, 2640.
Modification in laws regarding, recommended, 2641.
Nominations of. (See Executive Nominations.)
Oath of, and ceremonies attending administration of. (See the several Presidents.)
Personal interviews with, respecting—
Appointments to office, rules regulating, discussed, 5831.
Business transactions unnecessary, order regarding, 3546.
Pocket vetoes of. (See the several Presidents; the several messages.)
Power should be given, to prevent injuries to citizens of neighboring nations, 1616.
Presents offered, by Imaum of Muscat, recommendations regarding, 1809, 2169.
Printing, executive, powers of, over, 8845.
Provisions and laws respecting election of, etc., 3866.
Public money, authority of, over, discussed, 1541.
Removals from office discussed. (See Removals from Office.)
Right of, to make public confidential information of predecessors discussed, 2283.
Successor to, in event of vacancy in Presidency and Vice-Presidency discussed, 3837, 3889, 4950.
Act regarding, returned, 5674.
Term of, recommendations regarding limitation of, 1011, 1336, 4397.
Thanks of, tendered. (See Thanks of President.)
Treaties—
Power to make, vested in President with consent of Senate, 187.
Request of House in correspondence regarding, declined, 186.
Vacancies, power of, to make provisional appointments to fill, discussed, 3190.
Veto messages of. (See the several Presidents; the several messages.)
Veto power of, discussed, 2512, 2561.
War, power to declare, discussed, 3100.
Executive authority to furnish instant redress recommended, 3100.

Presidential Elections.—The record of any popular vote for electors prior to 1828 is so meagre and imperfect that a compilation would be useless. In most of the states, for more than a quarter century following the establishment of the Government, the State Legislatures "appointed" the Presidential electors, and the people therefore voted only indirectly for them, their choice being expressed by their votes for members of the Legislature.

1789.—Previous to 1804, each elector voted for two candidates for President. The one who received the largest number of votes was declared President, and the one who received the next largest number of votes was declared Vice-President. The electoral votes for the first President of the United States were: George Washington, 69; John Adams, of Massachusetts, 34; John Jay, of New York, 9; R. H. Harrison, of Maryland, 6; John Rutledge, of South Carolina, 6; John Hancock, of Massachusetts, 4; George Clinton, of New York, 3; Samuel Huntingdon, of Connecticut, 2; John Milton, of Georgia, 2; James Armstrong, of Georgia; Benjamin Lincoln,

ELECTORAL AND POPULAR VOTES FOR PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT

Year of Election	Candidates for President	Popular Vote	Plurality	Electoral Vote	Candidates for Vice-President	Electoral Vote
1828	Andrew Jackson,* Tenn. (Dem.)	647,231	138,134	178	John C. Calhoun,* S. C. (Dem.)	171
	John Q. Adams, Mass. (Nat. R.)	509,097		83	Richard Rush, Pa. (Nat. R.)	83
					William Smith, S. C. (Dem.)	7
1832	Andrew Jackson,* Tenn. (Dem.)	687,502	157,313	219	M. Van Buren,* N. Y. (Dem.)	189
	Henry Clay, Ky. (Nat. R.)	530,189		49	John Sergeant, Pa. (Nat. R.)	49
	John Floyd, Ga. (Ind.)	33,108		11	Henry Lee, Mass. (Ind.)	11
	William Wirt (c), Md. (Anti-M.)			7	Amos Ellmaker (c), Pa. (Anti-M.)	7
					Wm. Wilkins, Pa. (Dem.)	30
1836	Martin Van Buren,* N. Y. (Dem.)	761,549	24,893	170	R. M. Johnson (d)* Ky. (Dem.)	147
	W. H. Harrison, Ohio (Whig)	736,656		73	Francis Granger, N. Y. (Whig)	77
	Hugh L. White, Tenn. (Whig)			26	John Tyler, Va. (Whig)	47
	Daniel Webster, Mass. (Whig)			14	William Smith, Ala. (Dem.)	23
	Willie P. Mangum, N. C. (Whig)			11		
1840	W. H. Harrison,* Ohio (Whig)	1,275,017	146,315	234	John Tyler,* Va. (Whig)	234
	Martin Van Buren, N. Y. (Dem.)	1,128,702		60	R. M. Johnson, Ky. (Dem.)	48
	James G. Birney, N. Y. (Lib.)	7,059			L. W. Tazewell, Va. (Dem.)	11
					James K. Polk, Tenn. (Dem.)	1
					Thomas Earle, Pa. (Lib.)	
1844	James K. Polk,* Tenn. (Dem.)	1,337,243	38,175	170	George M. Dallas,* Pa. (Dem.)	170
	Henry Clay, Ky. (Whig)	1,299,068		105	T. Frelinghuysen, N. J. (Whig)	105
	James G. Birney, N. Y. (Lib.)	62,300			Thomas Morris, Ohio (Lib.)	
1848	Zachary Taylor,* La. (Whig)	1,360,101	139,557	163	Millard Fillmore,* N. Y. (Whig)	163
	Lewis Cass, Mich. (Dem.)	1,220,544		127	William O. Butler, Ky. (Dem.)	127
	Martin Van Buren, N. Y. (F. Soil)	291,263			Charles F. Adams, Mass. (F. Soil)	
1852	Franklin Pierce,* N. H. (Dem)	1,601,474	220,896	254	William R. King,* Ala. (Dem.)	254
	Winfield Scott, N. J. (Whig)	1,380,576		42	William A. Graham, N. C. (Whig)	42
	John P. Hale, N. H. (F. Soil) (i)	156,149			George W. Julian, Ind. (F. Soil)	
	Daniel Webster (k), Mass. (Whig)	1,670				
1856	James Buchanan,* Pa. (Dem.)	1,838,169	496,905	174	J. C. Breckinridge,* Ky. (Dem.)	174
	John C. Fremont, Cal. (Rep.)	1,341,264		114	William L. Dayton, N. J. (Rep.)	114
	Millard Fillmore, N. Y. (Amer.)	874,538		8	A. J. Donelson, Tenn. (Amer.)	8
1860	Abraham Lincoln,* Ill. (Rep.)	1,866,352	491,195	180	Hannibal Hamlin,* Me. (Rep.)	180
	Stephen A. Douglas, Ill. (Dem.)	1,375,157		12	H. V. Johnson, Ga. (Dem.)	12
	J. C. Breckinridge, Ky. (Dem.)	845,763		72	Joseph Lane, Ore. (Dem.)	72
	John Bell, Tenn. (Union)	589,581		39	Edward Everett, Mass. (Union)	39
1864	Abraham Lincoln,* Ill. (Rep.)	2,216,067	407,342	e 212	Andrew Johnson,* Tenn. (Rep.)	212
	George B. McClellan, N. J. (Dem.)	1,808,725		21	George H. Pendleton, Ohio (Dem.)	21
1868	Ulysses S. Grant,* Ill. (Rep.)	3,015,071	305,456	f 214	Schuyler Colfax,* Ind. (Rep.)	214
	Horatio Seymour, N. Y. (Dem.)	2,709,615		80	F. P. Blair, Jr., Mo. (Dem.)	80
1872	Ulysses S. Grant,* Ill. (Rep.)	3,597,070	762,991	286	Henry Wilson,* Mass. (Rep.)	286
	Horace Greeley, N. Y. (D. & L.)	2,834,079		g ...	B. Gratz Brown, Mo. (D. & L.)	47
	Charles O'Conor, N. Y. (Dem.)	29,408			John Q. Adams, Mass. (Dem.)	
	James Black, Pa. (Temp.)	5,608			John Russell, Mich. (Temp.)	
	Thomas A. Hendricks, Ind. (Dem.)			42	George W. Julian, Ind. (Lib.)	5
	B. Gratz Brown, Mo. (Dem.)			18	A. H. Colquitt, Ga. (Dem.)	5
	Charles J. Jenkins, Ga. (Dem.)			2	John M. Palmer, Ill. (Dem.)	3
	David Davis, Ill. (Ind.)			1	T. E. Bramlette, Ky. (Dem.)	3
					W. S. Groesbeck, Ohio (Dem.)	1
					Willis B. Machen, Ky. (Dem.)	1
					N. P. Banks, Mass. (Lib.)	1
1876	Samuel J. Tilden, N. Y. (Dem.)	4,284,885	250,935	184	T. A. Hendricks, Ind. (Dem.)	184
	Rutherford B. Hayes,* Ohio (Rep.)	4,033,950		h 185	William A. Wheeler,* N. Y. (Rep.)	185
	Peter Cooper, N. Y. (Gre'nb)	81,740			Samuel F. Cary, Ohio (Gre'nb)	
	Green Clay Smith, Ky. (Proh.)	9,522			Gideon T. Stewart, Ohio (Proh)	
	James B. Walker, Ill. (Amer.)	2,636			D. Kirkpatrick, N. Y. (Amer.)	
1880	James A. Garfield,* Ohio (Rep.)	4,449,053	7,018	214	Chester A. Arthur,* N. Y. (Rep.)	214
	W. S. Hancock, Pa. (Dem.)	4,442,035		155	William H. English, Ind. (Dem.)	155
	James B. Weaver, Iowa (Gre'nb)	307,306			B. J. Chambers, Tex. (Gre'nb)	
	Neal Dow, Me. (Proh.)	10,305			H. A. Thompson, Ohio (Proh.)	
	John W. Phelps, Vt. (Amer.)	707			S. C. Pomeroy, Kan. (Amer.)	

* Elected. (a) The first Republican Party is claimed by the present Democratic Party as its progenitor. (b) No candidate having a majority of the electoral vote, the House of Representatives elected Adams. (c) Candidate of the Anti-Masonic Party. (d) There being no choice, the Senate elected Johnson. (e) Eleven Southern States, being within the belligerent territory, did not vote. (f) Three Southern States disfranchised. (g) Horace Greeley died after election, and Democratic electors scattered their votes. (h) There being a dispute over the electoral vote of Florida, Louisiana, Oregon, and South Carolina, they were referred by Congress to an electoral commission composed of eight Republicans and seven Democrats, which, by a strict party vote, awarded 185 electoral votes to Hayes and 184 to Tilden. (i) Free Soil.

ELECTORAL AND POPULAR VOTES FOR PRESIDENT AND VICE-PRESIDENT—*Continued.*

Year of Election	Candidates for President	Popular Vote	Plurality	Electoral Vote	Candidates for Vice-President	Electoral Vote
1884	Grover Cleveland,* N. Y. (Dem.)	4,911,017	62,683	219	T. A. Hendricks,* Ind. (Dem.)	219
	James G. Blaine, Me. (Rep.)	4,848,334		182	John A. Logan, Ill. (Rep.)	182
	John P. St. John, Kan. (Proh.)	151,809			William Daniel, Md. (Proh.)	
	Benjamin F. Butler, Mass. (Gre'nb)	133,825			A. M. West, Miss. (Gre'nb)	
	P. D. Wigginton, Cal. (Amer.)					
1888	Grover Cleveland, N. Y. (Dem.)	5,540,050	95,713	168	Allen G. Thurman, Ohio (Dem.)	168
	Benjamin Harrison,* Ind. (Rep.)	5,444,437		233	Levi P. Morton,* N. Y. (Rep.)	233
	Clinton B. Fisk, N. J. (Proh.)	250,125			John A Brooks, Mo. (Proh.)	
	Alson J. Streeter, Ill. (U. L.)	146,897			C. E. Cunningham, Ark. (U. L.)	
	R. H. Cowdry, Ill. (U'd L.)	2,808			W. H. T. Wakefield, Kan. (U'd L.)	
	James L. Curtis, N. Y. (Amer.)	1,591			James B. Greer, Tenn. (Amer.)	
1892	Grover Cleveland,* N. Y. (Dem.)	5,554,414	363,612	277	Adlai E. Stevenson,* Ill. (Dem.)	277
	Benjamin Harrison, Ind. (Rep.)	5,190,802		145	Whitelaw Reid, N. Y. (Rep.)	145
	James B. Weaver, Iowa (Peop.)	1,027,329		22	James G. Field, Va. (Peop.)	22
	John Bidwell, Cal. (Proh.)	271,058			James B. Cranfill, Tex. (Proh.)	
	Simon Wing, Mass. (Soc. L.)	21,164			Charles H. Matchett, N. Y. (Soc. L.)	
1896	William McKinley,* Ohio (Rep.)	7,035,638	567,692	271	Garret A. Hobart,* N. J. (Rep.)	271
	William J. Bryan, Neb. (Dem.)	6,467,946		176	Arthur Sewall, Me. (Dem.)	149
	William J. Bryan, Neb. (Peop.)				Thomas E. Watson, Ga. (Peop.)	27
	Joshua Levering, Md. (Proh.)	141,676			Hale Johnson, Ill. (Proh.)	
	John M. Palmer, Ill. (N. Dem.)	131,529			Simon B. Buckner, Ky. (N. Dem.)	
	Charles H. Matchett, N. Y. (Soc. L.)	36,454			Matthew Maguire, N. J. (Soc. L.)	
	Charley E. Bentley, Neb. (Nat. (j)	13,969			James H. Southgate, N. C. (Nat. (j)	
1900	William McKinley,* Ohio (Rep.)	7,219,530	861,459	292	Theodore Roosevelt,* N. Y. (Rep.)	292
	William J. Bryan, Neb. (Dem. P.)	6,358,071		155	Adlai E. Stevenson, Ill. (Dem. P.)	155
	John G. Woolley, Ill. (Proh.)	209,166			Henry B. Metcalf, Ohio (Proh.)	
	Wharton Barker, Pa. (MP(m)	50,373			Ignatius Donnelly, Minn. (MP(m)	
	Eugene V. Debs, Ind. (Soc. D.)	94,768			Job Harriman, Cal. (Soc. D.)	
	Jos. F. Malloney, Mass. (Soc. L.(k)	32,751			Velentine Remmel, Pa. (Soc. L.)	
	J. F. R. Leonard, Ia. (U. C (n)	1,059			John G. Woolley, Ill. (U. C. (n)	
	Seth H. Ellis, Ohio (U. R. (o)	5,698			Samuel T. Nicholson, Pa. U. R. (o)	
1904	Theodore Roosevelt,* N. Y. (Rep.)	7,628,834	2,544,343	336	Charles W. Fairbanks,* Ind. (Rep.)	316
	Alton B. Parker, N. Y. (Dem.)	5,084,491		140	Henry G. Davis, W. Va. (Dem.)	403
	Eugene V. Debs, Ind. (Soc.)	402,460			Benjamin Hanford, N. Y. (Soc.)	
	Silas C. Swallow, Pa. (Proh.)	259,257			George W. Carroll, Tex. (Proh.)	
	Thomas E. Watson, Ga. (Peop.)	114,753			Thomas H. Tibbles, Neb. (Peop.)	
	Charles H. Corrigan, N. Y. (Soc. L.)	33,724			William W. Cox, Ill. (Soc. L.)	
1908	William H. Taft,* Ohio (Rep.)	7,679,006	1,269,900	321	James S. Sherman,* N. Y. (Rep.)	321
	William J. Bryan, Neb. (Dem.)	6,409,106		162	John W. Kern, Ind. (Dem.)	162
	Eugene V. Debs, Ind. (Soc.)	420,820			Benjamin Hanford, N. Y. (Soc.)	
	Eugene W. Chafin, Ariz. (Proh.)	252,683			Aaron S. Watkins, Ohio (Proh.)	
	Thomas E. Watson, Ga. (Peop.)	28,131			Samuel Williams, Ind. (Peop.)	
	August Gillhaus, N. Y. (Soc. L.)	13,825			Donald L. Munroe, Va. (Soc. L.)	
	Thos. L. Hisgen, Mass. (Ind.)	83,562			John Temple Graves, Ga. (Ind)	
1912	Woodrow Wilson,* N. J. (Dem.)	6,286,214	2,160,194	435	Thomas R. Marshall,* Ind. (Dem.)	435
	William H. Taft, Ohio (Rep.)	3,483,922		8	Nicholas M. Butler, N. Y. (Rep.) (p)	8
	Theodore Roosevelt, N. Y. (Prog.)	4,126,020		88	Hiram W. Johnson, Cal. (Prog.)	88
	Eugene V. Debs, Ind. (Soc.)	897,011			Emil Seidel, Wis. (Soc.)	
	Eugene W. Chafin, Ariz. (Proh.)	208,923			Aaron S. Watkins, Ohio (Proh.)	
	Arthur E. Reimer, Mass. (Soc. L.)	29,079			August Gilhaus, N. Y. (Soc. L.)	
1916	Woodrow Wilson,* N. J. (Dem.)	9,129,606	591,385	277	Thomas R. Marshall,* Ind. (Dem.)	277
	Charles E. Hughes, N. Y. (Rep.)	8,538,221		254	Charles W. Fairbanks, Ind. (Rep.)	254
	J. Frank Hanly, Ind. (Proh.)	220,506			Ira Lambrith, (Proh.)	
	Allan L. Benson, (Soc.)	585,113			George R. Kirkpatrick, (Soc.)	
	Arthur E. Reimer, Mass. (Soc. L.)	13,403			Caleb Harrison, (Soc. L.)	
1920	Warren G. Harding,* Ohio (Rep.)	16,152,200	7,004,847	404	Calvin Coolidge,* Mass. (Rep.)	404
	James M. Cox, Ohio (Dem.)	9,147,353		127	Franklin D. Roosevelt, N. Y. (Dem)	127
	Eugene V. Debs, Indiana (Soc.)	919,799			Seymour Stedman, Ill. (Soc.)	
	Parley P. Christensen, Utah. (Far.-Lab.)	265,411			Max S. Hayes, Ohio (Farmer-Labor)	
	Aaron S. Watkins, Ohio (Proh.)	189,408			D. Leigh Colvin, N. Y. (Proh.)	
	William M. Cox, Mo. (Soc. L.)	31,175			August Gillhaus, N. Y. (Soc. L.)	
	Robert C. Macauley, Pa. (S. Tax)	5,837			Richard C. Barnum, Ohio (S. Tax)	

In Texas, 47,968 votes were also cast for the American Party and 27,247 for the Black and Tan Party. In Oregon, the Industrial Labor ticket polled 1,515 votes and in Maryland, the "Third Party" ticket polled 1,645 votes.

* Elected. (j) Free Silver Prohibition Party. (k) In Massachusetts. There was also a Native American ticket in that State, which received 184 votes. (m) Middle of the Road or Anti-Fusion Party. (n) United Christian Party. (o) Union Reform Party. (p) The Convention nominee, James S. Sherman, died several days before election.

ELECTORAL VOTE FOR PRESIDENT, BY PRINCIPAL POLITICAL PARTIES AND BY STATES, 1900 TO 1916

State	1900			1904			1908			1912				1916		
	Republican	Democratic	Total	Republican	Democratic	Total	Republican	Democratic	Total	Republican	Democratic	Progressive	Total	Republican	Democratic	Total
Alabama	.....	11	11	.....	11	11	.....	11	11	.....	12	.....	12	.....	12	12
Arizona	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	3	.....	3	3
Arkansas	.....	8	8	.....	9	9	.....	9	9	.....	9	.....	9	.....	9	9
California	9	.....	9	10	.....	10	10	.....	10	.....	2	11	13	.....	13	13
Colorado	.....	4	4	5	.....	5	.....	5	5	.....	6	.....	6	.....	6	6
Connecticut	6	.....	6	7	.....	7	7	.....	7	.....	7	.....	7	7	.....	7
Delaware	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	.....	3	.....	3	3	.....	3
Florida	.....	4	4	.....	5	5	.....	5	5	.....	6	.....	6	.....	6	6
Georgia	.....	13	13	.....	13	13	.....	13	13	.....	14	.....	14	.....	14	14
Idaho	.....	3	3	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	.....	4	.....	4	.....	4	4
Illinois	24	.....	24	27	.....	27	27	.....	27	.....	29	.....	29	29	.....	29
Indiana	15	.....	15	15	.....	15	15	.....	15	.....	15	.....	15	15	.....	15
Iowa	13	.....	13	13	.....	13	13	.....	13	.....	13	.....	13	13	.....	13
Kansas	10	.....	10	10	.....	10	10	.....	10	.....	10	.....	10	.....	10	10
Kentucky	.....	13	13	.....	13	13	.....	13	13	.....	13	.....	13	.....	13	13
Louisiana	.....	8	8	.....	9	9	.....	9	9	.....	10	.....	10	.....	10	10
Maine	6	.....	6	6	.....	6	6	.....	6	.....	6	.....	6	6	.....	6
Maryland	8	.....	8	1	7	8	2	6	8	.....	8	.....	8	.....	8	8
Massachusetts	15	.....	15	16	.....	16	16	.....	16	.....	18	.....	18	18	.....	18
Michigan	14	.....	14	14	.....	14	14	.....	14	.....	.....	15	15	15	.....	15
Minnesota	9	.....	9	11	.....	11	11	.....	11	.....	.....	12	12	12	.....	12
Mississippi	.....	9	9	.....	10	10	.....	10	10	.....	10	.....	10	.....	10	10
Missouri	.....	17	17	18	.....	18	18	.....	18	.....	18	.....	18	.....	18	18
Montana	.....	3	3	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	.....	4	.....	4	.....	4	4
Nebraska	8	.....	8	8	.....	8	.....	8	8	.....	8	.....	8	.....	8	8
Nevada	.....	3	3	3	.....	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	.....	3	.....	3	3
New Hampshire	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	.....	4	.....	4	.....	4	4
New Jersey	10	.....	10	12	.....	12	12	.....	12	.....	14	.....	14	14	.....	14
New Mexico	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	3	.....	3	3
New York	36	.....	36	39	.....	39	39	.....	39	.....	45	.....	45	45	.....	45
North Carolina	.....	11	11	.....	12	12	.....	12	12	.....	12	.....	12	.....	12	12
North Dakota	3	.....	3	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	.....	5	.....	5	.....	5	5
Ohio	23	.....	23	23	.....	23	23	.....	23	.....	24	.....	24	.....	24	24
Oklahoma	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	7	.....	10	.....	10	.....	10	10
Oregon	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	.....	5	.....	5	5	.....	5
Pennsylvania	32	.....	32	34	.....	34	34	.....	34	.....	.....	38	38	38	.....	38
Rhode Island	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	.....	5	.....	5	5	.....	5
South Carolina	.....	9	9	.....	9	9	.....	9	9	.....	9	.....	9	.....	9	9
South Dakota	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	.....	.....	5	5	5	.....	5
Tennessee	.....	12	12	.....	12	12	.....	12	12	.....	12	.....	12	.....	12	12
Texas	.....	15	15	.....	18	18	.....	18	18	.....	20	.....	20	.....	20	20
Utah	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	4	.....	.....	4	.....	4	4
Vermont	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	4	.....	4	4	.....	.....	4	4	.....	4
Virginia	.....	12	12	.....	12	12	.....	12	12	.....	12	.....	12	.....	12	12
Washington	4	.....	4	5	.....	5	5	.....	5	.....	.....	7	7	.....	7	7
West Virginia	6	.....	6	7	.....	7	7	.....	7	.....	8	.....	8	7	1	8
Wisconsin	12	.....	12	13	.....	13	13	.....	13	.....	13	.....	13	13	.....	13
Wyoming	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	3	.....	3	.....	3	.....	3	.....	3	3
Total	292	155	447	336	140	476	321	162	483	8	435	88	531	254	277	531
Plurality	137	.....	.....	196	.....	.....	159	.....	.....	.....	347	.....	.....	.....	21	.....

of Massachusetts, and Edward Telfair, of Georgia, 1 vote each. Vacancies (votes not cast), 4. George Washington was chosen President and John Adams Vice-President.

1792.—George Washington, Federalist, received 132 votes; John Adams, Federalist, 77; George Clinton, of New York, Republican (a), 50; Thomas Jefferson, of Virginia, Republican, 4; Aaron Burr, of New York, Republican, 1 vote. Vacancies, 3. George Washington was chosen President and John Adams Vice-President.

1796.—John Adams, Federalist, 71; Thomas Jefferson, Republican, 68; Thomas Pinckney, of South Carolina, Federalist, 59; Aaron Burr, of New York, Republican, 30; Samuel Adams, of Massachusetts, Republican, 15; Oliver Ellsworth, of Connecticut, Independent, 11; George Clinton, of New York, Republican, 7; John Jay, of New York, Federalist, 5; James Iredell, of North Carolina, Federalist, 3; George Washington, of Virginia; John Henry, of Maryland, and S. Johnson, of North Carolina, all Federalists, 2 votes each; Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, of South Carolina, Federalist, 1 vote. John Adams was chosen President and Thomas Jefferson Vice-President.

1800.—Thomas Jefferson, Republican, 73; Aaron Burr, Republican, 73; John Adams, Federalist, 65; Charles C. Pinckney, Federalist, 64; John Jay, Federalist, 1 vote. There being a tie vote for Jefferson and Burr, the choice devolved upon the House of Representatives. Jefferson received the votes of ten states, which being the largest vote cast for a candidate, elected him President. Burr received the votes of four States, which being the next largest vote, elected him Vice-President. There were 2 blank votes.

1804—The Constitution having been amended, the electors at this election voted for a President and a Vice-President, instead of for two candidates for President. The result was as follows: For President, Thomas Jefferson, Republican, 162;

The following table shows the popular and electoral vote for president by states in 1920:

States	Popular Harding, R.,	Cox, D.,	Electoral R.	D.
Alabama	74,690	163,254		12
Arizona	37,016	29,546	3	
Arkansas	71,117	107,409		9
California	624,992	229,191	13	
Colorado	173,248	104,936	6	
Connecticut	229,238	120,721	7	
Delaware	52,858	39,911	3	
Florida	44,853	90,515		6
Georgia	43,720	109,856		14
Idaho	91,351	46,930	4	
Illinois	1,420,480	534,395	29	
Indiana	696,370	511,364	15	
Iowa	634,674	227,921	13	
Kansas	369,268	185,464	10	
Kentucky	452,480	456,497		13
Louisiana	38,538	87,519		10
Maine	136,355	58,961	6	
Maryland	236,117	180,626	8	
Massachusetts	681,153	276,691	18	
Michigan	762,865	233,450	15	
Minnesota	519,421	142,994	12	
Mississippi	11,576	69,277		10
Missouri	727,521	574,924	18	
Montana	109,430	57,372	4	
Nebraska	247,498	119,608	8	
Nevada	15,479	9,851	3	
New Hampshire	95,196	62,662	4	
New Jersey	615,333	256,761	14	
New Mexico	57,634	46,668	3	
New York	1,871,167	781,238	45	
North Carolina	232,848	305,447		12
North Dakota	160,072	37,422	5	
Ohio	1,182,022	780,037	24	
Oklahoma	243,831	217,053	10	
Oregon	143,592	80,019	5	
Pennsylvania	1,218,215	503,202	38	
Rhode Island	107,463	55,062	5	
South Carolina	2,244	64,170		9
South Dakota	109,874	35,938	5	
Tennessee	219,829	206,558	12	
Texas	114,538	288,767		20
Utah	81,555	56,639	4	
Vermont	68,212	20,919	4	
Virginia	87,456	141,670		12
Washington	223,137	84,298	7	
West Virginia	282,007	220,789	8	
Wisconsin	498,576	113,422	13	
Wyoming	35,091	17,429	3	
Total	16,152,200	9,147,353	404	127

Charles C. Pinckney, Federalist, 14. For Vice-President, George Clinton, Republican, 162; Rufus King, of New York, Federalist, 14. Jefferson was chosen President and Clinton Vice-President.

1808—For President, James Madison, of Virginia, Republican, 122; Charles C. Pinckney, of South Carolina, Federalist, 47; George Clinton, of New York; Republican, 6. For Vice-President, George Clinton, Republican, 113; Rufus King, of New York, Federalist, 47; John Langdon, of New Hampshire, 9; James Madison, 3; James Monroe, 3. Vacancy, 1. Madison was chosen President and Clinton Vice-President.

1812.—For President, James Madison, Republican, 128; De Witt Clinton, of New York, Federalist, 89. For Vice-President, Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, 131; Jared Ingersoll, of Pennsylvania, Federalist, 86. Vacancy, 1. Madison was chosen President and Gerry Vice-President.

1816.—For President, James Monroe, of Virginia, Republican, 183; Rufus King, of New York, Federalist, 34. For Vice-President, Daniel D. Tompkins, of New York, Republican, 183; John Eager Howard, of Maryland, Federalist, 22; James Ross, of Pennsylvania, 5; John Marshall, of Virginia, 4; Robert G. Harper, of Maryland, 3. Vacancies, 4. Monroe was chosen President and Tompkins Vice-President.

1820.—For President James Monroe, of Virginia, Republican, 231; John Q. Adams, of Massachusetts, Republican, 1. For Vice-President, Daniel D. Tompkins, Republican, 218; Richard Stockton, of New Jersey, 8; Daniel Rodney, of Delaware, 4; Robert G. Harper, of Maryland, and Richard Rush, of Pennsylvania, 1 vote each. Vacancies, 3. James Monroe was chosen President and Daniel D. Tompkins Vice-President.

1824.—For President, Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, Republican, 99; John Quincy Adams, of Massachusetts, Republican, 84; Henry Clay, of Kentucky, Republican, 37; William H. Crawford, of Georgia, Republican, 41. No candidate having a majority of the electoral vote, John Quincy Adams was elected by the House of Representatives. For Vice-President, John C. Calhoun, of South Carolina, Republican, 182; Nathan Sanford, of New York, Republican, 30; Nathaniel Macon, of North Carolina, Republican, 24: Andrew Jackson, of Tennessee, Republican, 13: Martin Van Buren, of New York, Republican, 9; Henry Clay, of Kentucky, Republican, 2; Calhoun was chosen Vice-President.

Presidential Electors.—Persons chosen by the people of the several states to elect the President and Vice President. As a matter of custom, though not of legal requirement, the electors exercise the choice in accordance with the expressed wish of the voters at the polls.

Presidential Electors:

Constitutional amendment regarding selection of, recommended, 5644.

Method of appointment of, and effect of gerrymander discussed, 5643.

(See Electors; Electoral Colleges).

Presidential Primaries.—The presidential primary is a device to enable the voters at large to record their choice for candidates for the presidency. It was little heard of previous to 1911, but in that year it became a leading topic of political discussion. Provisions for the presidential primary exist as statutes in six States—New Jersey, Wisconsin, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oregon, and California. The California law, which is typical of the others, provides that the name of any person may be put upon the ballot at the presidential primary election to be held in May, preceding an election for president, through the filing of a petition signed by one per cent of any party in each Congress district. The chief merit of such a primary, in the opinion of those who support it, would be the practical elimination of the national nominating conventions and the opportunity given the people at large of recording their choice for the presidency. The main objections urged by the opponents of the presidential primary are that it would intensify factional bitterness and add to the expense of elections. The presidential primary had its chief supporters in 1911 among the members of the progressive wings of both Democratic and Republican parties. An attempt was made to indorse the idea at the meeting of the National Republican Committee held in Washington in December, 1911, but it failed. In addition to the states which have provided for presidential primaries by statute South Carolina and Louisiana observe them as party rules, and some other states have what is equivalent. Pennsylvania delegates to the

National Conventions are elected by direct primaries and candidates for delegate are permitted to print on the ballot the name of the candidate for the presidency they wish to support.

The 1924 national election saw preferential presidential primaries in California, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Montana, Nebraska, New Jersey, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, South Dakota, West Virginia and Wisconsin. In addition, convention delegates were elected in Alabama, New Hampshire and New York.

Presidential Primaries, discussed by President Wilson, 7910.

Presidential Succession.—The Constitution provides for the succession of the vice-president in case of the death, removal, resignation, or disability of the president, and gives Congress power to provide what officer shall succeed in case of the death, removal, etc., of the vice-president. In 1793 Congress enacted that in such case the president of the Senate should succeed, and then the speaker of the House of Representatives. This was attended with some inconvenience and danger and there was some doubt of its constitutionality. An act of Congress, approved Jan. 19, 1886, provided that the succession should pass to the members of the Cabinet in the following order: Secretary of State, Secretary of the Treasury, Secretary of War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Secretary of the Navy, and Secretary of the Interior. The Secretaries of the Department of Agriculture, and of the Department of Commerce and Labor, whose offices have been created since the passage of the Succession Act, are not eligible for presidential succession. For Vice-Presidents succeeding to the Presidency, see Vice-President. See also Cabinet, Atchison's Presidency, Ferry's Presidency.

President's Flag, proportions of, 8173.

Presidents of United States, Portraits of. (See Paintings of Presidents.)

Presiding Ladies of the White House. (See biographies and portraits in text volumes at the beginning of the administrations of the respective Presidents.)

Presque Isle, Pa.:
- Obstructions to entrance of harbor of port of, 786.
- Title to, proffered by marine hospital of Pennsylvania, 4735.

Press, Freedom of.—The first amendment to the Constitution, introduced in the First Congress, established freedom of speech, religion, and the press. Though the Federal Constitution was originally silent upon the subject, nearly all of the states inserted in their constitutions clauses permitting freedom of speech and publication to every citizen. Abuses of this liberty were punishable under the common law. New York and New Jersey made no provision in their first constitutions, but clauses were later embodied insuring the widest liberty of expression. During British rule of the Colonies this freedom was much restricted by the star chamber press censorship regulation of 1637, which was confirmed by Parliament in 1643.

Press, Functions of the, discussed by President Wilson, 8051.

Pretoria, Republic of, joint resolution relating to congratulations from, vetoed, 4384.

Prices:
- Fixing of—
  - Authority needed for further, 8404.
  - Coal, for, 8327, 8398.
  - Farmers discriminated against by, 8405.
  - Food Administrator to determine, 8398.
  - Principles to be followed in, 8311-3, 8346.
  - Trade Commission cannot obtain, 7819.
  - Wheat, for, 8346.
- Lowering of (see also **Cost of Living**)—
  - Predicted, 8927.
  - Stimulation of, urged, 8940.
- Marking of, on interstate foodstuffs, urged, 8816, 8886.

Primaries. (See Presidental Primaries.)

Prince of Wales Island, Alaska, referred to, 6697.

Princeton (N. J.), Battle of.—The beginning of the year 1777 found the British army of 7,000 or 8,000 men encamped at Princeton, N. J. On Christmas night, 1776, Washington had turned back his retreating army, recrossed the Delaware, overcome the Hessians at Trenton, and again crossed the Delaware into Pennsylvania. To relieve Cadwalader he again crossed the river and was ready to march upon Princeton. Cornwallis, who had been sent by Howe from New York, advanced to meet him with most of his army. Washington skilfully passed around the left wing of Cornwallis's army, and on Jan. 3, 1777, encountered the British rear guard, consisting of three regiments and three troops. These were scattered, with the loss of about 500. The American loss was 25 or 30, besides officers. Cornwallis retreated to New Brunswick and Washington occupied a strong position at Morristown, remaining there until the latter part of May.

Princeton University mentioned, 9363.

Princeton, The, construction of, referred to, 2130.

Principé. (See Portugal.)

Printer, Public. (See Public Printer.)

Printing and Engraving. (See Engraving and Printing, Bureau of.)

Printing and Publishing.—At the close of the Revolutionary war the printing trade was carried on almost exclusively in the Atlantic coast cities. The earliest establishments set up in inland cities were at Lexington, Ky., Pittsburg, Pa., and Cincinnati, Ohio. The main printing centers for a long time were New York, Philadelphia, Chicago and Boston.

The growth of the business has been accelerated by the invention of electrotyping, stereotyping, type-setting machines, the cylinder press and the web press (printing from a continuous roll of paper, instead of separate sheets.) The manufacture of wood-pulp paper cheaply in large quantities has also been an important factor. Governmental encouragement, in the form of special rates of transportation by the

Postoffice, has always been a large asset of the publishing business.

The construction of the ten-cylinder press by Robert Hoe in 1853 was one of the greatest steps forward recently made in printing. The first practical improvement upon typesetting was made by Mergenthaler with his linotype machine, by which a row of brass matrices assembled in a line of desired length by means of a keyboard became the mould in which the writer's words were cast in softer metal ready for the ink and press. Other type-composing machines were invented, and new methods of cutting and casting ornamental styles and sizes of display type gave artistic tone to the printed page.

The greatest advances in press building since 1880 have been made in perfecting presses. These machines are now constructed of such enormous size and with such great capacity that it is possible to obtain at short notice a newspaper press which will produce 100,000 impressions per hour printed in twelve colors.

In 1862 the kind of news paper ordinarily used was made of cotton rags. It was imperfect, poor in color and made in the crudest manner. The price was 24 cents a pound. At present wood pulp paper of uniform quality can be bought for two cents per pound.

The volume of advertising circulars, booklets and pamphlet literature was never before so large or of such mechanical excellence as during the last decade.

Machinery for folding printed sheets, gathering, stitching and building them into book form has been so perfected that the costliest literary treasures of the past generation may be reproduced and placed in the reader's hands today at trifling cost.

A notable feature of the printing industry of the past decade has been the growth of monthly magazines. By sensational articles on timely subjects, wide circulation and enormous sales have been secured. This brought increased advertising, and the transportation of this class of merchandise through the mails at reduced rates granted for the purpose of disseminating learning caused President Taft to call attention to the propriety of increasing the rates to offset a deficit in the Postoffice Department. (See pages 7433, 7528, 7733.)

The industry was covered in the last federal census of manufactures. The report, taken as of 1919, was published in 1922, and summarized the industry as follows:—

Number of establishments	32,476
Persons engaged	455,822
Wage-earners, average	287,278
Capital	$1,150,505,247
Salaries	232,064,588
Wages	331,519,423
Cost of materials	571,510,277
Value of products	1,699,789,229

Book and Job Printing and Publishing.—The separate statistics of this branch of the industry were as follows:—

Number of establishments	13,089
Persons engaged	171,199
Capital	$405,554,984
Salaries and wages	207,196,883
Cost of materials	211,067,174
Value of products	597,663,228

There were 2 establishments employing more than 1,000 wage-earners each, 9 from 500 to 1,000 and 32, from 250 to 500. There were 53 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 annually each.

Newspapers and Periodicals.—A summary of this branch of the industry is as follows:—

Number of establishments	17,362
Persons engaged	228,630
Capital	$614,045,344
Salaries and wages	288,198,701
Cost of materials	300,385,187
Value of products	924,152,878

There were 4 establishments employing over 1,000 wage-earners each; 13, from 500 to 1,000; 39, from 250 to 500. There were 155 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each and 137, at from $500,000 to $1,000,000.

The number of copies of books and pamphlets produced was 252,000,000, of which 75,000,000 were under Education; 24,000,000, Fiction; 24,000,000, Juvenile; 36,500,000, Theology (including Bibles); 16,000,000, Reference Works; 13,500,000, Medicine and Hygiene.

The number of periodicals and newspapers published was 20,489. The aggregate circulation per issue was 222,481,983. The nature of the periodicals was as follows:—

Aeronautics, 4; Agriculture, etc., 334; Architecture and Building, 47; Art, Music, Drama, 63; Automobiles, etc., 57; For the Blind, 5; Book Review, 6; Business Theory, 16; College and School, 415; Commerce, Finance, Insurance, etc., 178; Domestic Economy, 13; Education and Literary Technique, 119; Engineering, 62.

Fiction (wholly), 46; Fraternal, 314; Health and Hygiene, 35; History and Genealogy, 27; Juvenile, 35; Labor, 182; Law, 59; Medicine and Dentistry, 150; Military and Naval Affairs, 20; Motion Pictures, 20; News and General Literature, 154.

Race papers, 32; Religion, 1,162; Science and Philosophy, 73; Society and Fashions, 71; Sociology, Economics, Political Science, 85; Sports and Games, 73; Trade Journals, 767; Transportation, 70; Technology, 3; Travel, 30; Miscellaneous, 69.

There are 2,441 daily newspapers in the United States, of which 720 are morning and 1,721 are evening papers. The average circulation of the morning papers per issue is 12,582,841 and of the evening papers, 20,445,789. The twelve largest cities of the country account for more than half of the morning and more than one-third of the evening circulation.

There are 154 daily newspapers in foreign languages, with an average combined circulation of 2,710,265; and 659 weekly, with 3,303,230.

There are 1,230 weekly periodicals, with an average combined circulation per issue of 31,161,570; and 12,145 weekly newspapers with an average combined circulation per issue of 20,740,551. There are 2,647 monthly publications, with an average circulation per issue of 91,681,807.

Bookbinding and Blank-Book Making.—Establishments, 1,113; persons engaged, 25,287; capital, $43,041,207; salaries and wages, $26,112,733; cost of materials, $23,235,171; value of products, $66,020,677.

Engraving.—Establishments, 421; persons engaged, 8,779; capital, $19,040,260; salaries and wages, $10,787,426; cost of materials, $6,980,747; value of products, $24,209,154.

Lithographing.—Establishments, 331; persons engaged, 19,305; capital, $60,817,330; salaries and wages, 18,201,089; cost of materials, $27,718,217; value of products, $73,151,115.

Printing executed by authority of the several Departments referred to, 2911.

Printing Government:
Cost of, discussed, 6728, 6914, 6988.
Supervision over, discussed, 8845.

Printing, Joint Committee on, powers of, 8845.

Printing Office, Government. (See Government Printing Office.)

Prison Congress, International, at—
St. Petersburg, 5117.
Stockholm, 4406, 4464.

Prison Congress, National, at Baltimore, 4162.

Prisoners. (See Imprisonment.)

Prisoners of War. (See Civil War; War of 1812.)

Prisons. (See Penitentiaries.)

Private and Government Management of Business. (See Government Management.)

Private Armed Vessels:
Depredations of, must be checked, 358.
Instructions were issued May 28, 1798, to commanders of armed vessels of United States to seize foreign vessels attacking those of the United States, especially those sailing under the flag of the French Republic.
Issuance of commissions to, discussed, 779.
Referred to, 2774.
Proposition to forego resort to, in case of war discussed, 2809, 2945.

Private Claims against United States:
Amount paid on, referred to, 1778, 1783.
Proceedings under act for payment of, suspended, 565.
Report of commissioners referred to, 566.
Settlement of, by commission recommended, 2627, 2673, 2714.

Private Land Claims. (See Court of Private Land Claims.)

Private Property. (See Property, Private.)

Privateering:
Abolition of, discussed, 2945.
Issuance of commissions to vessels for, discussed, 779, 2774.
Not to be resorted to by—
France in war with Spain, 779.
United States in war with Spain, 6474.
Referred to, 6312.
Proposition to forego resort to, in case of war discussed, 2809, 2945.
Referred to, 2909.

Privateers.—Armed vessels owned and officered by private persons, but acting under commissions from the government known as letters of marque. It was formerly the custom of all nations in time of war to legalize private vessels to assist the regular navy in blockading the ports of an enemy, intercepting supplies, and capturing prizes. Vessels so employed are called privateers and are supplied with letters of marque on condition of their conforming to the rules and usages of war. Herein lies the difference between privateers and pirates (q. v.). These vessels and crews may be hired or impressed by the government or they may be owned, officered, and sent to sea at private expense under government commission. The latter has been a favorite way of employing sailors and merchant ships when commerce has been hampered by war, and to a nation with a small navy it affords protection against formidable naval foes.

The practice of privateering has long been looked upon as an evil by the most advanced nations. At the Declaration of Paris in 1856 (q. v.) one of the rules of warfare subscribed to was that "privateering is and remains abolished." The United States refused to agree to this clause of the declaration on the ground that without privateers it would have no adequate sea force in time of war. As the agreement was only binding on parties thereto, American commerce was left a prey to the ships of all other nations. In 1861 Secretary Seward, on behalf of the United States, made an offer to England and France to come under the operation of the rules of war subscribed to in the Declaration of Paris, but the offer was refused on the ground that it would impose an international rule of warfare upon the Confederate States then in rebellion. In the colonial wars Great Britain derived much support from colonial privateers. Upward of 400 were fitted out and ravaged the French West Indies and made numerous captures along the coast of France.

In March, 1776, the Continental Congress accorded permission to citizens to fit out privateers against the British. During that year 342 British vessels fell a prey to privateers fitted out at Salem, Cape Ann, Newburyport, Bristol, and other seaports. This sort of warfare became so lucrative that sailors could hardly be induced to enter the regular service. Jan. 28, 1778, an American privateer surprised and captured the British fort of New Providence, in the Bahamas, and a 16-gun man-of-war. During the War of 1812 some 500 privateers were fitted out. They were mostly schooners or brigs of 200 or 300 tons and carried from 80 to 100 men. Of 400 British vessels captured in 1813 four-fifths were taken by privateers. Later in this war larger vessels like the *Reindeer*, *Avon*, and *Blakeley* were built. They did not confine themselves to merchant vessels, but attacked and frequently captured British war ships. They hung about the coasts of Great Britain, Ireland, and the Canary and West Indian Islands, and greatly aided the American cause.

Prize Agents, accounts of, referred to, 773, 816.

Prize Court, International:
Constitutionality of appeals to, from United States courts, discussed, 7493.
Establishment and rules of, discussed, 7120, 7410, 7493.
Ratified by the United States, 7670.

Prize Courts.—Courts which adjudicate the property in vessels captured at sea from a belligerent. The general rule is that when

a captor brings home a prize the tribunal of his own country has sole jurisdiction over it and the decision rendered is binding everywhere. A prize court differs from other courts in that the property of foreigners is brought within its jurisdiction, not voluntarily, as in ordinary courts, but by force. During the colonial wars prize cases were adjudged by the admiralty courts held by colonial governors as vice-admirals, or by judges whom they appointed, with appeal to commissioners in England. With the outbreak of the Revolution the states established admiralty courts to hear prize cases. The Continental Congress established a court of appeals for such cases when in dispute between the states. Under the judiciary act of 1789 the United States district courts were made prize courts, with appeal to the Supreme Court.

Prize Money.—A dividend from the proceeds of a captured vessel and her cargo, etc., paid to the captors. Prior to March 3, 1899, prize money in the United States was distributed according to an act of June 30, 1864. If the prize was equal or superior to the captor, it became the sole property of the latter. If inferior, the United States took half and the captors divided the remainder. Privateers with letters of marque kept the whole of the prize unless otherwise stipulated in their commissions. By the Navy personnel act of March 3, 1899, the law authorizing the distribution of prize money among the captors of vessels was repealed.

Prize Money referred to, 2570.

Probst, Webster and Company, report of, on land elimination in Alaska discussed, 7694.

Process of Law, Due. (See Due Process of Law.)

Proclamations. (See the several Presidents or the several subjects.)

Products. (See Agricultural Products; Animals and Animal Products.)

Professional Point of View, harmfulness of, 7950.

Profiteering denounced, 8312, 8404, 8507, 8814.

Profits:
And patriotism should not be mentioned in the same breath, 8312.
Reasonable, determination and enforcement of, 8398.

Profit-Sharing.—A system of rewards in industry by which the wage-earners share in the surplus remaining after normal wages, salaries and profits have been paid. The payment may be directly in cash or indirectly by shares of stock, insurance, educational and social benefits, etc.

The advantages of profit-sharing are usually considered to be an increased interest in the business on the part of the wage-earner, a desire to eliminate waste, and a stimulus to effect his maximum output, together with a lessening of the class feeling and hence of industrial disputes between employer and employee. In many instances, however, it is claimed that profit-sharing has been used as a means of exploiting the worker by denying him the complete justice due him, and by preventing him from striking. On the whole, profit-sharing seems to be more successful where the industry is one for which the market is stable and in which the cost of labor represents a high percentage of the total cost of production.

The origin of profit-sharing in modern industry is unknown, one rumor ascribing a profit-sharing plan to as early a year as 1794. Undoubtedly, the general services of Robert Owen in England towards greater democracy in industry quickened the movement toward profit-sharing. A disciple of Owen definitely established a successful profit-sharing scheme in Ireland in 1831. Its first notable achievements, however, were those in the large French painting establishment of Le Claire, inaugurated in 1842 and still in effect.

The movement soon spread and today has assumed extensive proportions. In America, however, profit-sharing is not so common as in Europe—due undoubtedly to the greater material resources of America and to the greater ease with which a living may be earned here. In 1917, there were some 60 large establishments in the United States under a profit-sharing scheme which covered at least 33% of the employees. Among these establishments were Sears, Roebuck and Company, United States Steel Corporation, Eastman Kodak Company, Ward Bakery, International Harvester Company, and the Underwood Typewriter Company. In addition there were many more establishments extending profit-sharing to a proportion of their employees less than 33%.

Of these 60 establishments, only 7 had instituted profit-sharing before 1900, and 40 of them since 1907. They were located chiefly in Massachusetts, New York and Ohio. Twenty-six of them were manufacturing establishments and 14 were mercantile. Thirty-four per cent of them employed less than 100 wage-earners, and 36% between 100 and 300, with 13% employing more than 1,000.

In the United States, profit-sharing arrangements seem to fall into several classifications. There is that in which a definite share of the profits is returned to the workers. There is that in which the same rate of dividend is given the workers on their wages as is given the stock-holders on their stocks. There is that in which the workers are given shares of stock, or are permitted to buy shares not otherwise open to public purchase. There is that in which the workers are given wages higher than those prevailing in similar establishments or than those necessary to obtain workers—the plan of the Ford Motor Car Company. There is that in which bonuses are given for good work and for length of service, etc., or as a result of abnormally high profits.

It is reported that in England, in the eighty years preceding 1917, 133 profit-sharing schemes survived and 155 failed, but that practically all of the failures were schemes providing for profit-sharing in the form of direct cash payment.

Progressive Labor Party.—At the annual session of the United Labor party held at Syracuse, N. Y., Aug. 19, 1886, the radical or socialistic element withdrew and formed the Progressive Labor party. They advocated a common inheritance of land, wealth, and industries and upheld all the tenets of extreme socialism.

Progressive Party.—Theodore Roosevelt, having been defeated for the Republican nomination for President at the hands of the National Convention in June, 1912, allegedly by fraud in seating delegates,

called a convention of his own followers and people in general who were dissatisfied with the Republican party and its managers to meet in convention in Chicago in August, 1912. This convention formed the Progressive party and nominated Mr. Roosevelt for President and Hiram W. Johnson, of California, for Vice-President.

The Convention adopted a platform declaring in favor of direct primaries; nation-wide Presidential preference primaries; direct election of United States Senators; the short ballot and the initiative, referendum, and recall in the States; a more easy and expeditious method of amending the Federal Constitution; equal suffrage for men and women; limitation of campaign contributions and expenditures, and publicity before as well as after primaries and elections.

Popular review of judicial decisions on laws for securing social justice; the review by the Supreme Court of the United States of decisions of State courts declaring legislative acts unconstitutional; the prohibition of the issuance of injunctions in labor disputes when such injunctions would not apply if no labor dispute existed, and jury trial for contempt in labor disputes; effective legislation looking to the prevention of industrial accidents, occupational diseases, overwork, involuntary unemployment, and other injurious effects incident to modern industry; the fixing of minimum safety and health standards for the various occupations; the prohibition of child labor; minimum wages standards for workingwomen, to provide a "living wage" in all industrial occupations; the general prohibition of night work for women and the establishment of an eight-hour day for women and young persons.

One day's rest in seven for all wage-workers; the eight-hour day in continuous twenty-four-hour industries; the abolition of the convict contract labor system; publicity as to wages, hours, and conditions of labor; full reports upon industrial accidents and diseases, and the opening to public inspection of all tallies, weights, measures, and check systems on labor products; standards of compensation for death by industrial accident and injury and trade disease, transferring the burden of lost earnings from the families of working people to the industry; adoption of a system of social insurance adapted to American use; the establishment of continuation schools for industrial education; industrial research laboratories; a Department of Labor; the development of agricultural credit and cooperation; the encouragement of agricultural education; the establishment of a Country Life Commission; full and immediate inquiry into the high cost of living, and immediate action dealing with every need disclosed thereby.

A National Health Service; establishment of a strong Federal administrative commission to maintain permanent active supervision over industrial corporations; the strengthening of the Anti-trust Law by specific prohibitions; giving the Interstate Commerce Commission the power to value the physical property of railways; the abolition of the Commerce Court; Government control over the issue of currency notes; the retention of forest, coal and oil lands, water and other natural resources in the ownership of the Nation.

The retention of the natural resources of Alaska in ownership by the Nation, and their prompt opening to use upon liberal terms; the comprehensive development of waterways; the operation of the Panama Canal so as to break the transportation monopolies held and misused by transcontinental railways; a protective tariff equalizing conditions of competition between the United States and foreign countries, and maintaining for labor an adequate standard of living; an immediate downward revision of the tariff; a non-partisan, scientific tariff commission; a graduated inheritance tax.

At the presidential election the following November the party polled a popular vote of more than 4,119,507 votes, carrying the States of Michigan, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, California, South Dakota and Washington, thus winning 88 electoral votes. This split of the Republican vote resulted in the election of Wilson, the Democratic candidate, to the presidency.

In 1916, most of the Party followed the example of Roosevelt and Johnson in endorsing the nomination of Hughes by the Republican Party, and in returning to the Republican fold. However, insurgent Progressives nominated a national ticket for the Presidential election of that year, with no nomination for President and with John M. Parker, of Louisiana, as the nominee for Vice-President. The vote obtained was insignificant, and the Party thereafter collapsed.

The emblem of the Progressive Party was a Bull Moose.

Prohibition, National. (See also Prohibition, State.)—The political movement for National Prohibition arose soon after the Civil War, because of the failure of the temperance advocates to gain a prohibition plank in the platforms of either of the two leading political parties, because of the interest aroused by experiments in state prohibition (see below); and also because there had been a marked increase in the extent of the liquor industry after the Civil War.

The suggestion for a national Prohibition party was made by the Pennsylvania Temperance Convention in 1867, and in 1868 a Prohibition Party was organized in Illinois and Michigan, the National Party being definitely organized in Chicago in 1869. During the next three years, the party made some nominations in state elections, but gained few votes. The first organized national campaign was inaugurated in 1872. For the record of the Prohibition Party in national elections, see Presidential Elections.

The platform in 1872 declared for other reforms beside national prohibition—including equal suffrage and direct Presidential elections. This policy continued until 1896, when the majority in control of the Prohibition convention decided to make prohibition the sole consideration in the platform. In later years, however, the Party adopted the earlier policy of including other planks in its platform.

The prohibition movement was accelerated by the decision of the Supreme Court in 1887 that the abolition of the liquor trade did not contravene the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution. It was not until the twentieth century, however, that the movement for national prohibition achieved proportions sufficient to make its success possible. The efficient propaganda of the Anti-Saloon League aided materially in this result. The World War served to show that the belligerent countries could not conserve all of their fighting strength unless they limited somewhat the consumption of grain for distilling purposes. Russia undeniably was strengthened by her complete abolition of the whisky trade, and England

and France also put many restrictions upon liquor consumption.

In 1916, the Supreme Court declared constitutional the Webb-Kenyon Law (passed on March 1, 1913) which prohibited the transportation of liquor into prohibition states through the medium of interstate commerce. In 1917, after war had been declared with Germany, other restrictions were placed upon the sale of liquors, notably those limiting the distilling of grain into liquors and that forbidding liquor advertisements in publications carried by interstate commerce into states where prohibition was enforced. Accordingly, many states in which prohibition enactments had been largely ineffectual became "bone-dry."

On August 1, 1917, by vote of 65 to 20, the Senate passed the amendment providing for national prohibition. The House of Representatives postponed action until the regular session meeting in December of the same year. The House of Representatives passed the amendment on December 17, 1917, by a vote of 282 to 128. On December 18, by a vote of 47 to 8 the Senate again passed the amendment, the ratification time being extended to seven years, with the concurrence of the House. Less than a month later the state of Mississippi, by vote of its legislature, became the first state to ratify the amendment. The thirty-sixth state, and last state necessary, registered its approval of the amendment on January 16, 1920. The amendment was proclaimed on January 29, 1919 (page 8688), and went into effect on January 16, 1920.

However, before this time the country was on a prohibition basis because of war-time prohibition legislation. The manufacture of distilled liquors was prohibited after September, 1917; on December 1, 1918, the breweries ceased making beer in accordance with an executive order of President Wilson issued some months previously in accordance with power given him to conserve grains and fuel (see references below); after May 1, 1919, the use of grain and fruits in the manufacture of liquor ceased, in accordance with the act of Congress approved on November 21, 1918; and by virtue of the same act, the sale of all intoxicants was prohibited after June 30, 1919. Congress refused to heed President Wilson's plea to repeal the war-time prohibition legislation after the conclusion of hostilities in the World War, so that war-time prohibition was still in force at the time that national prohibition by constitutional amendment became effective. The Volstead Act providing for the stringent enforcement of prohibition, both war-time and constitutional, passed Congress in 1919, was vetoed by President Wilson on October 27, 1919, and was passed over his veto the following day by a vote of 65 to 20 in the Senate and 176 to 55 in the House of Representatives.

Prohibition, State.—The prohibition of the manufacture and sale of alcoholic drinks has long been a subject of political discussion in America. Long before the Revolution the liquor traffic was taxed, and the Continental Congress advised the states to pass laws prohibiting the distillation of grain. Prohibition became a purely state political issue first in the Maine legislature in 1837, when a prohibitory bill was introduced and defeated. In 1846 a bill with the same purpose became a law, but did not serve the purpose and was succeeded in 1851 by a more effective measure drafted by Neal Dow. This law provided for search and seizure, but the Prohibitionists lost their majority and the law was repealed. Later a second law was passed which was made a part of the state constitution in 1884, and remained in force.

Between 1849 and 1856 prohibitory laws were passed in the following states and were repealed or made inoperative as indicated below: Illinois repealed in 1853; Rhode Island repealed in 1863; Pennsylvania repealed in 1866; Delaware repealed in 1867; Massachusetts repealed in 1868; Connecticut repealed in 1872; Michigan repealed in 1875; New York declared unconstitutional; Iowa amended in 1894 so as to be ineffective; Vermont repealed in 1902; New Hampshire repealed in 1903.

In the first two decades of the twentieth century, the movement for state prohibition in the United States grew apace. The prohibitionists, for the greater part, instead of exercising their strength through their own political party, used it to influence the old political parties and their candidates. In increasingly wide sections of the country, the prohibitionists began to gain the balance of power in elections, so that it became difficult for a candidate not pledged to prohibition to be successful. The various state prohibition societies became reorganized on an efficient basis, and the assistance given by most of the Protestant churches became stronger and more readily transferable into political strength.

The following list shows the states which had adopted prohibition by 1920, together with the dates when the prohibition legislation in effect when supplanted by the federal legislation became law. The legislation was by constitutional amendment except in those states marked by a star, which indicates that the legislation was by statute:—

1880.—Kansas.

1884.—Maine (see above).

1889.—North Dakota. (Later repealed, but reenacted in 1914).

1907.—Oklahoma.

1908.—Georgia*.

1909.—North Carolina*, Mississippi*, Tennessee*.

1914.—West Virginia.

1915.—Alabama* (passed in 1907, repealed in 1911); Arizona.

1916:—Virginia*; Colorado; Oregon; Washington*; Arkansas*; Iowa* (passed in 1882, declared invalid in 1883, repassed in 1884, practically repealed in 1894); Idaho; South Carolina*.

1917.—Nebraska; South Dakota (passed in 1889, repealed in 1896); District of Columbia*.

1918.—Alaska*; Indiana*; Michigan; New Hampshire* (passed in 1855, repealed in 1903); Montana; New Mexico; Texas; Porto Rico; Canal Zone; Guam; Hawaii.

1919.—Florida; Utah; Ohio (passed in 1883, repealed in 1889); Nevada*; Virgin Islands.

1920.—Wyoming.

Local option was the system by which sub-divisions of a state were permitted to vote upon the prohibition question as entities. The subdivision might be a county, a city or a township. The first local option law was passed in Connecticut in 1839, and by the time of the adoption of federal prohibition, local option was in effect in practically all of the states not shown in the table above as having adopted state prohibition, so that large areas of many of these states were also "dry." Thus by the beginning of 1919, the following states were "dry" to the extent indicated:—California, about one-half; Connecticut, 101 of 168

towns; Delaware, all except city of Wilmington; Illinois, 55 counties, 46 partly, and only 1 not at all; Kentucky, 107 of 120 counties; Louisiana, 30 parishes; Maryland, 18 counties; Massachusetts, about 40% of cities; Minnesota, about 65%; Missouri, more than one-half; New Jersey, about 50 small municipalities; New York, 20 of 59 cities; Pennsylvania, 14 counties; Rhode Island, 15 towns (see above); Vermont, 9 of 14 counties, and all except 14 towns (see above); Wisconsin, about 75%, covering 40% of the population.

Prohibition:
- Act for enforcement of, vetoed, 8799.
- Amendment to Constitution providing for, text of, 8688.
- Celebration. (See illustration opposite 8760.)
- Legislation for, in Food Control Law, inadvisable, 8305.
- Malt liquors, proclamations regarding, 8583, 8699.
- War-time measures for—
  - Control over, vested in Congress, 8774.
  - Repeal of, urged, 8720.

Prometheus, The, firing into and seizure of, by British vessel, 2675, 2680.

Property at Sea:
- International agreement to regard, as exempt from capture by belligerent powers, recommended, 6338.
- International conference at Washington for security of life and, 5468, 5493, 5498.
- Maritime powers invited to attend, 5370.
- Recommended, 5180.
- Treaty with Italy regarding, 4098.

Property, Captured:
- Cotton captured and forfeited referred to, 3666.
- Should not be adjudged without regular investigation, 485.

Property, Industrial, international convention at Paris for protection of, 4560, 4794, 4857, 5118.

Property, Private:
- Seizure and confiscation of, referred to, 3831.
- Shall not be taken for public use without just compensation, 435.

Proprietaries.—American territory was parceled out by the various crowned heads of Europe to personal friends or favorites or in recognition of some useful service to the sovereign. Persons to whom these grants were made established what were known as proprietary governments. The proprietor appointed the governor, and in general performed all those acts of government which are usually the prerogative of the Crown. New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, the Carolinas, Delaware, and Maryland were proprietary governments. The laws of Pennsylvania and Delaware were subject to the supervision of the Crown, but those of Maryland were not.

Prosperity, National (see also Business):
- Dependent upon economic policy, 6652.
- Discussed, 6973.
- Evidences of, 6710.
- Law's effect on, 6645.
- People's, due to dominant policy, 6894.

Protection.—In political economy the principle or system of imposing such duties on imported goods as will protect or foster domestic industries. Tariffs are either chiefly to produce revenue or to afford protection. Nearly all American tariffs previous to that of 1824 come under the former head. But the preamble of the first tariff act of 1789 declared that one of its objects was "the encouragement and protection of manufactures," and the principle of protection was ably advocated by Secretary Hamilton, in his elaborate report on manufactures, in 1791, and by many members of Congress from that time to the present. The tariff of 1816 was claimed as protective and proposed as such by northern members, while Calhoun and other southerners advocated it. Later the relative views of north and south were radically changed, and the north became protectionist, while southern members (except Clay and his Whig followers) were for a low tariff for revenue only. The tariff bill introduced in the House of Representatives in 1820 by Representative Baldwin, of Pennsylvania, from the Committee on Manufactures was frankly stated to be a protective measure, and at that time the question of a protective duty was first suggested to be unconstitutional. This bill did not pass, but in 1824 a tariff bill became a law with average duties of 37 per cent. The protectionists claimed that many of the duties were too low for effective protection, and in 1828, after a prolonged commercial depression, a congress opposed to protection passed a high protective tariff, which satisfied neither party, and was denounced as "a bill of abominations." The failure of another act, passed in 1832, to sufficiently reduce the rates of the tariff of 1828 was the chief cause of the nullification movement (q. v.). The Clay-Calhoun tariff of 1833, known as the "Compromise of 1833," gradually reduced duties to a revenue basis. The act of 1842 was protective; that of 1846 (the Walker tariff) was strictly a revenue tariff. The Morrill tariff of 1861 and all subsequent tariff acts have been protective. The duties have been high, running from an average of 18 per cent to 48 per cent ad valorem on all dutiable articles.

In 1908, President Taft was elected on a platform which advocated a revision of the Dingley Tariff. Immediately after his election he called an extra session of Congress (7379) and recommended a reduction of duties. Congress, after deliberating nearly all summer, passed a tariff law, taking away all protection from hides, and making reductions of 10 to 15 per cent on leather, lumber, paper, coal, iron and steel sheets, and chemicals. The principle of protection was abandoned in the Democratic tariff law of 1913. (See Tariff; Import Duties.)

For a discussion of the principles of protection as opposed to those of free trade and a tariff for revenue only, see the article Free Trade.

Protection for Industry, policy of, advocated by President—

Harding, 8939.
Roosevelt, 6713, 7083.
Taft, 7404, 7795.
Washington, 193.
(See also Tariff and Free Trade.)

Protection of Industrial Property Union, acts of international conference, 7671.

Protective Tariff. (See Protection and Import Duties discussed.)

Protestant Church at American embassy at Rome, removal of, referred to, 3662, 3717.

Protestant Episcopal Church in Alexandria, Va., act incorporating, vetoed, 474.

Protests.—The official papers of the Presidents as they are sent to Congress are properly designated "messages," but on several occasions the Chief Executives have sent papers known as "protests." They are sent in the customary message form, but contain the formal protest of the President against the actions of Congress as a whole or of one or the other of the two Houses.

Protests of President—
Buchanan to proceedings of House, 3145, 3150.
Jackson to resolutions of Senate charging him with violating Constitution and laws, 1288.
Additional statement regarding, 1312.
Johnson to act depriving him of command of Army, 3670.
Tyler to action of House in adopting report assailing his official conduct, 2043.

Proteus, The.—The vessel in which Gen. Adolphus W. Greely, with twenty-four men, sailed from St. Johns, Newfoundland, July 7, 1881, and reached Discovery Harbor (lat. 81° 44′ north, long. 64° 45′ west), Aug. 12, 1881, where he established his station. The *Proteus* was lost in Smith Sound, midway between Cape Sabine and Cape Albert, July 23, 1883, while attempting to reach Lady Franklin Bay with a relief party for Greely.

Proteus, The, loss of, and court of inquiry regarding, 4790.

Protocol.—A preliminary agreement between countries or other conflicting forces,—reached by diplomatic negotiation, and executed by the signatory powers,—upon which to base a permanent treaty or contract.

Providence Plantations.—In 1636 Roger Williams and his followers, who advocated complete separation of church and state and toleration for all creeds, were banished from Massachusetts Bay Colony. They journeyed southward and founded Providence. Two years later the followers of Anne Hutchinson founded Portsmouth, and in 1639 Newport was settled. In 1644 Williams obtained from the parliamentary commissioners a patent which associated the three towns in one community. Both Plymouth and Massachusetts claimed the territory, but failed to make their claims good. In 1663 a new charter was granted, which united Rhode Island to the Providence Plantations and remained substantially the fundamental law until 1842.

Providence Plantations. (See Rhode Island.)

Providencia, The, appropriation for seizure of, by American steamer recommended, 3263.

Provincialism of United States, disappearance of, 8222.

Provisional Courts in Louisiana, order regarding, 3323.

Provisional Governors (see also Reconstruction; Restoration):
Appointment of, and restoration into Union of—
Alabama, 3521.
Florida, 3527.
Georgia, 3516.
Mississippi, 3512.
North Carolina, 3510.
South Carolina, 3524.
Texas, 3519.
Referred to, 3577, 3643.
Restoration referred to—
Arkansas, 3423, 3452.
Louisiana, 3423, 3452.

Provisions, importation of, into foreign countries and rates of duty on, referred to, 5503.

Prussia.—A Republic of northern Germany It is bounded on the north by the North Sea, Denmark, Oldenburg, and the Baltic, on the east by Russia, on the south by Austria, Saxony, etc., and on the west by Luxemburg, Belgium, and the Netherlands. In the northern and eastern portions the country is generally level, but in the south and southwest it is hilly or mountainous. The chief agricultural products are rye, wheat, oats, potatoes, barley, millet, fruit, beet root, tobacco, and maize. Prussia is very largely engaged in manufacturing. The government until November 13, 1918, was a hereditary constitutional monarchy administered by a king, who was the German Emperor, and by a Parliament of two chambers. On the above date, Prussia was proclaimed a republic.

Prussia first became a great state in the seventeenth century, under Friedrich Wilhelm, the "Great Elector," who greatly enlarged the previous territories of the ruling family, the Hohenzollerns, and developed the first standing army in Central Europe. In the eighteenth century, the rulers of Prussia continued to acquire territory and influence, and after the Napoleonic Wars, Prussia again increased her size until she comprised more than 100,000 square miles. Under the chancellorship of Otto von Bismarck in the nineteenth century, Prussia rallied the separate German states around her, and formed the German Empire in 1871 after her defeat of France in the Franco-Prussian War. The kernel of the German Empire remained the kingdom of Prussia.

Before the World War, Prussia had an area of 134,650 square miles, with a population of 40,165,219, but her losses of territory by the Treaty of Versailles have reduced these figures to an estimated 103,385 square miles and an estimated population of 32,000,000. About two-thirds of the people are Protestants and one-third Roman Catholics.

The latest available figures showed an annual budget estimate of 6,546,000,000 marks. The public debt on April 1, 1919, was 14,725,000,000 marks.

In recent years, the chief crops, in order of amount of production, have been potatoes, hay, rye, oats, wheat and barley. There is also much cultivation of vines and hops. The chief minerals produced are coal and lignite.

Prussia (see also Germany):
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Impressed into military service of. (See Naturalized Citizens.)
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Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 2267, 2689, 2719.
Ratification of, referred to, 2450.
Immigration treaty with, 3827.
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Treaty with, transmitted and discussed, 287, 296, 968, 1002, 2267, 2689, 2719, 3827.
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Application for rights regarding, 621.
Suspension of discriminating duties on, recommended, 969.
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Prussia, Treaties with.—Of the treaty of 1785 the only article that has survived is that on the neutrality of vessels. The treaty of amity and commerce of 1799 contained many articles which expired by limitation in 1810, and some others were revived by treaty of 1828. Contraband goods may be detained; vessels are to be distinctively marked for recognition in time of war by passport and other specified documents. The examination and search of vessels in time of war is to be conducted with ease, freedom from embarrassment and annoyance, according to specified methods. Vessels taken by an enemy and recaptured by one of the parties thereto are to be restored to the other of these parties. Humane treatment is to be extended in cases of distress on shipboard and in wrecks. Citizens of the one party are not to act offensively against the other when at war with a third party. The neutrality of vessels and the principle that free ships make free goods are fully recognized. In case of war between the parties thereto, citizens of the one in the country of the other shall be fully protected in life, property and business. Prisoners of war are not to be sent to unsafe or unhealthy localities but are to be cared for humanely and with regard to safety of life and health.

The treaty of commerce and navigation of 1828 extended freedom of trade without discrimination in shipping charges or import duties by reason of the nationality of the carrying vessels. The coastwise trade is excepted from provisions. All commercial privileges are upon the basis of the most favored nation. The establishment of consuls and consular agents is permitted and prescribed with full powers regarding the arrest and detention of deserters and the administration of the affairs of deceased persons. (For extradition terms, see Extradition treaties.)

Public Accounts. (See Accounts, Public.)
Public Acts. (See Acts, Public; Bills and Acts.)
Public Archives, building for, recommended, 7728.
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Public Buildings Commission, jurisdiction of, discussed, 8848.
Public Buildings, Commissioner of. (See Buildings, Public, Commissioner of.)
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Placing Federal bureaus of, under one department recommended, 7229.
Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, United States:
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Public Health Service. (See Health Service.)

Public Information Committee.—By order of President Wilson on April 13, 1917, a committee on Public Information was created. The committee is composed of the Secretaries of War, Navy and State, with a civilian director. The appointment of civilian director went to Mr. George Creel, formerly Director of Public Safety in Denver, Colorado, and later a writer of prominence

on political and social questions. Secretary of State Lansing announced, on May 8, 1917, that all further news from the State Department would be given out through the newly-created Bureau of Intelligence within that department, and that all employees of the Department were forbidden to give out to any one information of any character. (See Censorship.)

Public Information Committee:
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Divisions under, created, 8360, 8426, 8472.
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Public Land Laws. (See Lands, Public.)

Public Land Offices. (See Land Offices, Public.)

Public Lands Commission, report of, 4535, 6863, 6947, 7096.

Public Lands Division, Justice Department.—This bureau enforces the laws respecting the public lands (q. v.). (See also Justice Department.)

Public Lands. (See Lands, Public.)

Public Libraries, discussed, 6676.

Public Money. (See Revenue, Public.)

Public Officers. (See Officers, Public.)

Public Opinion, force of, discussed by President Wilson, 8081.

Public Printer.—The officer in charge of the printing of Government documents, etc. (See Government Printing Office.)

Public Printer, letter to, from chairman of Joint Committee on Printing discussed, 8847.

Public Records. (See Records and Documents.)

Public Reservations. (See Reservations, Public.)

Public Revenue. (See Revenue, Public.)

Public Roads. (See Roads, Public.)

Public Statutes of United States. (See Revised Statutes.)

Public Supplies. (See Supplies, Public.)

Public Utilities Commission, recommended for District of Columbia, 7547, 7821.

Public Welfare, Department of, creation of, urged, 8945.

Public Works (see also Internal Improvements), resumption of, urged, 8642.

Publications, Official. (See Records and Documents.)

Publicity:
Corporations and, 6711.
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Trust methods and, 6648.

Puebla (Mexico), Battle of.—After Gen. Scott had proceeded on his march to the City of Mexico, Gen. Rea, a guerrilla chief, was joined by Santa Anna. Col. Childs, commandant of the Puebla garrison left by Scott, sent Capt. Blanchard with thirty-three men to capture a band of guerrillas. Blanchard and twenty-two men were ambuscaded and killed the latter part of August, 1847. Sept. 25 Santa Anna demanded the surrender of the forts at Puebla. Childs, who had only about 360 men, refused and maintained his position in spite of an almost continuous fire of the Mexicans, until relieved by reenforcements under Gen. Lane, on Oct. 12.

Puerto Rico. (See Porto Rico.)

Puget Sound Agricultural Co.:
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Pumpkin Vine Creek (Ga.), Battle of— (See New Hope Church (Ga.), Battle of.)

Punishments in Army and Navy. (See Army and Navy.)

Punta Burica, Central America, referred to, 8959.

Purchasing Commission for Russian Relief appointed, 9033.

Pure Food Act. (See Food and Drugs Act.)

Puritan, The, mentioned, 6318.

Purity Federation.—The object of this Federation is to unite in national co-operation all those forces in America that are striving to promote purity in the life of the individual and in social relations through preventive educational, reformatory, rescue, law enforcement, legislative and sanitary lines of effort. It is in every sense non-sectarian, and is open to all who are sincerely and seriously striving to promote its object. Many of the leaders in religious, philanthropic and reform movements in the United States are officially connected with this Federation. Each year a largely attended national purity congress is held under the auspices of the Federation.

Puyallup Commission, report of, transmitted, 5663.

Puyallup Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Pyramid Lake Reservation, Nev., agreement for cession of portion of, 5649.

Quadruple Alliance. (See Central Powers.)

Quallah Battoo, Sumatra, American citizens murdered in, 1138.

Quapaw Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Quarantine.—A term derived from the French word "quarantaine" (m. Lat. quarantena), meaning "forty days." Passengers on vessels arriving at Venice from the Levant were formerly required to remain forty days in the House of St. Lazarus or Lazaretto. This regulation was afterwards adopted by other ports in southern Europe, and, with various changes in the period of detention, extended to travelers from all ports whence contagion might be carried. In the United States quarantine enactments were passed by the colonial legislatures and subsequently for many years by the states. The first national quarantine act was passed Feb. 23, 1799, and required Federal officers to aid in the execution of state or municipal quarantine regulations. In 1878, however, a national quarantine law was passed authorizing the establishment, in certain contingencies, of national quarantines. In March, 1883, $100,000 was appropriated by the Federal Government for maintaining quarantine stations along the coasts, and the authority for declaring quarantine was conferred upon the President. Most of the quarantine stations are under state supervision. The mode of procedure is as follows: On the arrival of a vessel she is visited by the health officer, who examines her bill of health, musters the passengers and crew, and inspects the vessel in every part. If free from contagious disease, and if she does not hail from an infected port, she is allowed to proceed without further detention. If she hails from an infected port, she is detained until the expiration of the period of incubation of the disease prevalent at the port whence she sailed. If disease is found on board, or if the vessel is in an unsanitary condition, the diseased persons are removed to a quarantine hospital and the vessel allowed to proceed after a thorough purification.

Quarantine Regulations (see also Contagious Diseases; International Sanitary Conference):
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On Virgin Islands, assigned, 8361.
Proclamation regarding, 4812.
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Cleveland, 5877.
Harrison, Benj., 3765.
Hayes, 4444.
Jefferson, 371.
Monroe, 854.
Roosevelt, 6914, 6948, 7104, 7228.

Quarter Dollar.—In 1786 the Continental Congress decided upon certain coins. Among these was a quarter dollar, to be made of silver. The United States Mint was established in 1792 and began coinage in 1793. It was not until 1796, however, that the silver quarter was issued. Its weight was fixed at 104 grains. It was reduced to 93 grains in 1853, and by the coinage act of 1873 was raised to 96.45 grains, or 0.200 of an ounce, the present weight, and 900 fine. The coin is legal tender to the amount of $10. The quarter dollar of 1827 is one of the rare coins of the United States. There were no issues of this coin during the years 1798 to 1803, 1808 to 1815, nor during 1817, 1824, 1826, and 1830.

Quarter Eagle.—A gold coin of the United States authorized in 1792 and first coined in 1796. It is legal tender in any sum. The present weight of the coin is 0.134 ounce, or 64.5 grains, and the fineness 900. It is coined under an act of Congress of June 28, 1834.

Quartering Acts.—Certain acts of the British Parliament distasteful to the American colonists. The first was passed in 1765 and compelled the Colonies to provide the garrisons in America with fire, candles, vinegar, salt, bedding, cooking utensils, and liquors. This was the first act requiring the colonists to tax themselves for imperial object. In 1774 an act was passed legalizing the quartering of imperial troops in Boston.

Quartermaster Corps, establishment of, 7800.

Quartermaster-General. (See War Department and Army.)

Quartermaster-General of Army, fireproof building for records in office of, recommended, 4524.

Quebec (Canada), Battle of.—After taking Montreal Gen. Montgomery proceeded down the St. Lawrence River to Quebec, where on December 5, 1775, he joined the expedition which had been sent by way of the Kennebec and Chaudière rivers under Benedict Arnold. Their combined forces amounted to about 3,000 men, supported by about a dozen light guns. Carleton had for the defense of Quebec one company of regulars, a sloop of war, and a few marines, together with as many of the citizens as could be induced to enlist—in all something like 1,600 men. On the night of Dec. 31 the city was attacked. Montgomery was killed, Arnold was wounded, and the troops retired in confusion. Three thousand troops were sent to reenforce Arnold, and 4,000 occupied Montreal, St. Johns and Chambly. May 6, 1776, three brigades of infantry, besides artillery, stores, ammunitions, transports, and men-of-war, arrived from England and the Americans retired, leaving Canada as it was before the invasion. (See also Montreal (Canada), Capture and Loss of.)

Queen Anne's War.—The name of which the War of the Spanish Succession was known in America. It broke out in 1702 and was ended with the treaty of Utrecht in 1713. The New England Colonies suffered from frequent inroads of French and Indians from Canada, but the New York Colony was protected by the barrier of the Six Nations of Indians, then at peace with the English. Aug. 10, 1703, Indians under French leaders attacked Wells, Cape Porpoise, Saco, Casco, Scarboro, Spurwink, and Purpooduck, completely destroying the last two. In 1704 and 1705 James Moore, of South Carolina, with 50 whites and about 1,000 Creek Indians, attacked and destroyed several Spanish settlements in Florida. Col. Church organized an expedition in Maine in 1704 and proceeded up the coast as far as the Bay of Fundy, destroying all the settlements and taking 106 prisoners, with the

loss of only 6 men. Feb. 28, 1704, about 350 French-Canadians and Indians burned the town of Deerfield, Mass., massacring 40 persons and taking 100 prisoners. After three attempts by the New England troops Acadia was finally captured. July 30, 1711, Gen. Nicholson left Albany with an army of 4,000 men and Hovenden Walker sailed from Boston with a fleet and 7,000 men, as well as a fine train of artillery, to attack Quebec and Montreal. The fleet was driven upon the rocks at the mouth of the St. Lawrence, losing eight transports and more than 1,000 men. The survivors sailed for England and the army disbanded.

Queenston Heights (Canada), Battle of.—Early in October, 1812, Ben. Van Rensselaer resolved to invade Canada from western New York. His headquarters were at Lewiston, opposite Queenston, Canada. The American army consisted of 3,650 regulars and 2,650 militia. The British force on the western bank of the Niagara River numbered 1,500, including about 250 Indians under John Brandt. Maj. Ben. Brock, who had taken Detroit in August, had returned to the east and established his headquarters at Fort George. He posted batteries every mile along the river from there to Queenston. On the morning of Oct. 13, 1812, the invasion was begun prematurely, insufficient boats having been provided for transportation. Reenforcements came so slowly that the advance guard was forced to surrender. Gen. Brock was mortally wounded. Van Rensselaer was disabled and the American command fell upon Captain Wool. British reenforcements and Indians pressing hard upon the Americans, they were forced to surrender. About 900 Americans were taken prisoners, 90 were killed, and about 100 wounded. The British lost in killed, wounded, and captured about 130. The number of Indians killed is not known.

Querétaro, Treaty of. (See Guadalupe Hidalgo, Treaty of.)

Quids.—A name applied to the anti-Madison faction of the Republican party, led by John Randolph from 1805 to 1811. Jefferson strongly favored the succession of Madison and the Quids declared war upon the administration, charging "backstairs" influence. They opposed the restrictive system and nominated Monroe in 1808.

Quint.—One of the silver coins presented by Robert Morris to the Continental Congress in 1783 for consideration as a national coin. It weighed 5 pennyweights and 15 grains and was equal to about 35 cents. On the obverse was an eye, 13 points crossing (equidistant) a circle of as many stars, and the legend "Nova Constellantio"; on the reverse, "U. S. 500," surrounded by a wreath and the legend, "Libertas Justitia." This coin was not accepted and afterwards, with the mark, became known as the Nova Constellatio coinage.

Qui-nai-elt Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Quil-leh-ute Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Quo Warranto.—The legal writ served upon public officers calling upon them to show cause why they should not perform certain duties, or why they should not be removed from office, whether they have acquired the office legally or illegally.

Quorum.—A word adopted from the Latin, meaning in the original tongue "of whom." Legally it denotes a certain specified number out of a large number necessary to act for certain purposes. Business in charge of trustees or committees might often be retarded on account of the absence of one or more members if the actions of a quorum were not legal. Unless otherwise stipulated, a majority of the members of any body is considered a quorum. In parliamentary usage a quorum is the number that must be present in order that business may be transacted. It is sometimes less than 1 per cent of the members, as in the case of the British House of Lords, where 3 out of 450 members constitute a quorum. According to the Constitution, a majority of either branch of Congress constitutes a quorum. For the first fifty Congresses the presence of a constitutional quorum in the House was determined by a count of votes. No matter how many members were present, unless a majority voted it was considered there was not a quorum present. This sometimes led to obstructive tactics. In 1890, during the first session of the Fifty-first Congress the Speaker of the House ruled that a quorum was present when enough members were visible to constitute a quorum, whether they voted or not. The Senate enforces the rule which requires a majority of the body to vote in order that a quorum may be counted.

Race Hatred, discussed by President—
Roosevelt, 7031.
Taft, 7377.

Race Suicide. (See Birth Rate.)

Radicalism discussed, 8814, 8816. (See also Revolutions.)

Radio Stations. (See Wireless Telegraph.)

Radio Service, Navy Department.—The name of this service has recently been changed to the "Naval Communications Service." It is in charge of the Government Radio Service, and of all telegraph, telephone, and cable communications connected with the naval service. It also maintains a censorship over all radio stations in time of war, and in time of peace it maintains such a censorship to the point of enforcing the neutrality (q. v.) of the United States. There are 51 radio stations in service, which are operated both on shore and on light vessels. There is an extensive radio system operated from various points on the coasts in order to control the movements of the United States fleet, and the Navy Department is connected at all times with all its naval stations, navy yards, and radio stations in the United States by means of telephone, telegraph and cable connections. In 1916, the naval communications service carried 628,997 official messages and 97,084 commercial messages. By act of Congress approved August 13, 1912, radio stations within the jurisdiction of the United States may be taken over by the Government for use in naval communications, to the exclusion of other control and use; and all radio stations not necessary to Naval communications may be closed for radio communication. By order of April 6, 1917, President Wilson issued an order to this effect, to be operative during the participation of the United States in the World War.

Railroad Accidents. (See Railroads and Interstate Commerce Commission.

Railroad Commission:
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Report of, on indebtedness of Pacific railroads discussed and recommendations regarding, 5181, 5384.

Railroad Employees, legislation for increased safety in use of couplers and brakes recommended, 5486, 5561, 5642, 5766.

Railroad Mission in Russia, withdrawal of, 8825.

Railroad Transportation:
Bill authorizing payment of, transmitted, 4674.
Discussed, 6172.
State laws regulating rates of, adjudged inoperative by Supreme Court, 5111.

Railroad Underground. (See Underground Railroad.)

Railroads and Equipment.—The first railway in the United States is said to have been the three-mile private tramway running from the Quincy (Mass.) granite quarries to tidewater at Neponset, over which was hauled the stone to build Bunker Hill monument. The road was completed in 1826 at a cost of $34,000 and the cars were drawn by horses. This was followed chronologically by the Mauch Chunk (Pa.) switchback in 1827. The first railroad, however, on which cars were actually drawn by a locomotive was the Carbondale Railroad, built in 1828, by the Delaware and Hudson Canal Company from their coal mines to Honesdale, Pa., a distance of sixteen miles. In 1829 a locomotive named the "Stourbridge Lion," built in England from plans of Horatio Allen, an American engineer, was brought over and began running regularly on this road. Within the year the multi-tubular boiler engine, which succeeded the Allen type, was perfected by Robert Stephenson, an English miner. It was this locomotive, named the "Rocket," that made the present day railroad possible.

The first American locomotive to run over an American railroad was the "Tom Thumb," invented and built by Peter Cooper and driven by him over the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad in 1830. This locomotive was defeated by a horse on one of its earliest trial trips, much to the humiliation of its inventor.

The second American locomotive was built at the West Point foundry, near Cold Spring, N. Y., (where the Parrott guns were cast during the Civil war) after plans by E. L. Miller, and was equipped with a common vertical boiler. It attained a speed, unattached, of thirty to thirty-five miles an hour; and, with a train of five cars, fifteen to twenty miles an hour. This locomotive named the "Best Friend" was built for the South Carolina Railroad, which ran between Charleston and Hamburg.

The bursting of the boiler of the "Best Friend" caused the introduction of the "barrier car" on this road. This was a car loaded with bales of cotton coupled between the locomotive and the passenger coaches, to protect the travellers from being scalded by steam in case of an explosion.

Among other very early American railroads were the Baltimore and Susquehanna, dating from 1830; the little four-and-a-half mile line between New Orleans and Lake Pontchartrain, starting the same year; the Boston and Lowell, incorporated in 1830; the Boston and Providence, and Boston and Worcester, incorporated in 1831; and the Mohawk and Hudson, which commenced running in September, 1831.

For an illustration of an early railroad train, see opposite page 1337.

The possibilities of the railway were at once recognized by the rival seaports of the Atlantic—New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore. The Erie Canal penetrating to the interior of the continent on the line of least elevation above tidewater, had made New York the national port of entry and chief center of distribution. Even New Orleans, with the Mississippi River as a feeder, felt the diversion of trade through the Erie Canal. It was the effort to recover this trade that caused the Baltimore and Ohio Railway to be projected. Philadelphia, too, began reaching toward the west with a railway, and the Boston and Worcester penetrated the Berkshire hills toward Albany. New York capitalists, to maintain the supremacy of the seaport, supplemented the Erie Canal with the Erie Railroad. The New York Central Railway was formed in 1853 by the consolidation of five small railways. The rapid increase of railway mileage in the United States is shown by the following figures for the number of miles in operation in the years indicated:

1830	23	1880	93,262
1835	1,098	1890	166,654
1840	2,818	1900	194,321
1845	4,633	1910	240,439
1850	9,021	1915	253,789
1855	18,374	1919	253,529
1860	30,626	1921	252,845
1870	52,922	1922	251,176

Prior to 1850 there were few railroads west of the Alleghanies. The first to be built in the Mississippi Valley were the Clinton and Port Hudson, incorporated, in 1833, and the Bayou Sara and Woodville road, incorporated in Louisiana in 1831 as the West Feliciana Railroad. These pioneer railroads of the South have been operating continuously since 1840. A system of land grants did much to foster railroad building in the West. The federal government allotted certain alternate sections of public lands to the several States in the West and these States ceded them under conditions, in the nature of a subsidy, to the railroads. The Illinois Central and the Mobile and Ohio were the first to obtain these advantages. During the Civil War railway building was impeded but the westward stride was resumed in 1865, and only fell off during the financial panic of 1873.

Transcontinental Lines.—April 1, 1850, a meeting was called in Philadelphia to discuss the feasibility of a railroad to the Pacific coast. The discovery of gold in California turned all Eastern eyes on the newly acquired territory won from Mexico. From a little known region where traders bartered for hides with the indolent Mexicans the Pacific coast became the El Dorado where the Eastern thousands longed to go; and venturesome miners early on the spot clamored for supplies the East was anxious to exchange for Western gold. The only communication between the Atlantic and Pacific was around Cape Horn, across the Isthmus of Panama, or over land across the plains and mountains, beset by hostile Indians, hunger, thirst, and the parching sun of the intervening prairies. The Philadelphia meeting was twenty years ahead of its time. The second step toward transcontinental railways was taken during the administration of President Pierce, when Jefferson Davis, Secretary of War, organized and carried out a great survey, laying out several routes across the continent.

In response to the repeated demands Congress, July 1, 1862, incorporated the Union Pacific, which, in its junction, seven years later, with the Central Pacific near Ogden, Utah, completed the first transcontinental line. (See Pacific Railroads and illustration opposite page 3856.)

Equipment.—In 1831 Matthias W. Baldwin, a maker of bookbinders' tools in Philadelphia, was engaged to build a model locomotive for exhibition in a local museum. The success of this model resulted in Mr. Baldwin being engaged to construct a locomotive for the Philadelphia, Germantown and Norristown Railway Company. This engine, "Old Ironsides," attained a speed of thirty miles an hour with train, and, detached, is said to have made sixty miles. This was the pioneer of the Baldwin Locomotive Works, later owned by Burnham, Williams & Co. The Rogers Locomotive Works were established in Paterson, N. J., in 1836, and the Schenectady works in 1848. After the war the Pittsburg works, those at Providence, R. I., the Brooks shops at Dunkirk, N. Y., and the Richmond, Va., works were established. The total number of locomotives in use on the railways of the United States, Canada and Mexico in 1894 was given by Poor's Manual as 35,813. The number of establishments engaged in the manufacture was thirteen.

The real progress in locomotive building has been increasing the weight of trains which can be hauled with certainty at rates of speed previously regarded as phenomenal. September 11, 1895, a locomotive of the New York Central hauled the Empire State Express from New York to East Buffalo, 436 1-2 miles, in 407 2-3 minutes, an average speed of 64.26 miles an hour.

The Erie Railroad conducted a test at Binghamton, N. Y., on July 24, 1914, of the pulling power of the new Centipede locomotive, which weighed 410 tons and had 24 driving wheels. The officials in charge kept adding car after car of coal to the train until it consisted of 250 fully loaded steel cars, with a total weight of 21,000 tons. The locomotive pulled this train 40 miles at the rate of 15 miles an hour.

In 1857 Thomas Hall, of Boston, constructed and exhibited a small electric locomotive, which took its current from a stationary battery by means of the rails and wheels. Electrical locomotives were tried on the New York elevated railroad in 1886. After 1890 electric locomotives were common, especially on suburban lines.

The first passenger coach, used in Pennsylvania in 1832, was a stage coach slightly enlarged. With the increased speed of the locomotive attention was drawn to the wheels, and Messrs. Knight, Edgar, Winans and Davis of Baltimore developed and improved the fiange. The sleeping car had its origin as early as 1838. In 1858 two sleeping cars were run between Cleveland and Buffalo, but they were not popular. It was while riding in one of these that George M. Pullman designed the improvements which have revolutionized railway travel. His first car, the "Pioneer," was built in 1863. This car was used to convey President Lincoln's body from Chicago to Springfield, Ill., for interment, and shortly afterward by General Grant to go from Detroit to Galena, Ill.

In the winter of 1868-69 the first Westinghouse air brake was used on the Steubenville accommodation train running on the Pittsburg, Cincinnati & St. Louis Railroad.

The transportation of various kinds of products, such as live stock, coal, dressed meat, oil, and timber, has called into being cars especially adapted to each class of freight, and steel is gradually supplanting wood in the construction of all cars.

For the present manufacture of railroad cars, see Cars, Steam and Electric.

Statistics on railroads in the United States are published annually by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The statistics in this article are taken from the Commission's reports and, unless otherwise stated, are for the year ending January 1, 1923. They refer only to Class I roads, which are those with annual operating revenues above $1,000,000 in the year 1919.

Eight-Hour Day (Adamson Law).—In the summer of 1916, a great strike on the railroads was threatened by the action of the four great railroad Brotherhoods—Locomotive Engineers, Railroad Conductors, Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen and Railroad Trainmen. The men demanded that eight instead of ten hours be fixed as the standard day's work, which at that time was fixed at either ten hours or a run of 100 miles. The railroads refused the demand, a referendum showed 95% of the Brotherhood members ready to strike to

Individual Roads.—The following table shows the mileage and operating revenues and expenses for the more important railroads in the United States. The expenses are exclusive of tax accruals.

Eastern District	*Mileage*[1]	*Revenues*	*Expenses*
Baltimore and Ohio	5,187	$ 200,843,170	$ 165,021,375
Boston and Maine	2,252	79,800,123	67,054,397
Central Railroad of New Jersey	689	49,488,471	42,197,422
Chicago and Eastern Illinois	1,131	24,731,348	21,134,733
Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis	2,415	84,665,690	64,858,313
Delaware and Hudson	887	37,722,123	35,054,397
Delaware, Lackawanna and Western	954	74,873,605	64,145,813
Elgin, Joliet and Eastern	457	21,483,415	19,334,942
Erie (with Chicago and Erie)	2,309	106,874,103	100,101,524
Lehigh Valley	1,335	62,418,889	59,023,940
Long Island	398	30,951,540	28,720,911
Michigan Central	1,827	83,426,407	72,911,852
New York Central	6,098	363,122,527	290,477,034
New York, Chicago and St. Louis	523	39,406,081	30,415,059
New York, New Haven and Hartford	1,991	123,246,641	99,988,856
Pennsylvania	7,315	646,352,108	534,118,684
Pere Marquette	2,231	38,397,934	28,911,264
Philadelphia and Reading	1,127	81,934,751	62,055,322
Pittsburgh and Lake Erie	228	29,570,983	25,080,013
Wabash	2,473	57,662,496	48,041,297
Southern District			
Atlantic Coast Line	4,893	70,823,346	52,033,448
Central of Georgia	1,914	23,263,021	17,941,396
Chesapeake and Ohio	2,546	83,511,562	66,118,032
Illinois Central	4,799	154,860,387	119,129,269
Louisville and Nashville	5,042	121,140,207	99,600,025
Norfolk and Western	2,226	90,314,743	67,977,590
Seaboard Air Line	3,563	45,679,048	36,222,883
Southern	6,971	128,489,847	97,170,133
Yazoo and Mississippi Valley	1,382	19,904,961	16,844,615
Western District			
Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe	8,834	191,506,230	140,356,508
Chicago and Alton	1,051	27,593,925	23,647,590
Chicago and Northwestern	8,402	146,100,437	119,191,134
Chicago, Burlington and Quincy	9,393	164,916,170	126,777,703
Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul	10,996	156,950,628	129,596,696
Chicago, Rock Island and Pacific	7,662	119,204,558	95,760,795
Chicago, St. Paul, Minneapolis and Omaha	1,749	27,801,007	22,297,051
Denver and Rio Grande Western	2,592	33,350,594	26,304,805
Galveston, Harrisburg and San Antonio	1,380	22,254,213	18,739,149
Great Northern	8,163	103,452,937	79,636,038
Gulf, Colorado and Santa Fe	1,908	24,392,120	18,513,132
Minneapolis, St. Paul and Sault Ste. Marie	4,298	47,107,105	36,442,851
Missouri, Kansas and Texas	1,715	31,991,331	21,399,657
Missouri, Kansas and Texas of Texas	1,740	21,469,110	16,995,801
Missouri Pacific	7,300	99,921,331	84,658,915
Northern Pacific	6,658	96,076,067	72,654,710
Oregon Short Line	2,359	36,779,501	26,640,759
Oregon-Washington R. R. and Navigation	2,223	28,140,055	26,401,191
St. Louis-San Francisco	4,761	79,170,251	59,143,768
Southern Pacific (Pacific System)	7,110	183,675,381	127,774,264
Texas and Pacific	1,951	31,381,795	25,494,086
Union Pacific	3,623	107,842,566	73,921,927
Total, all class I steam roads	235,234	$5,617,252,656	$4,455,650,216

[1]Average operated during year preceding that of financial statistics.

enforce their demands, efforts at arbitration in July and August came to naught, and a strike would have completely paralysed traffic. Under those circumstances, President Wilson, in order to avert the strike, which had been called for September 4, went before Congress on August 29, and asked that eight hours be fixed by legislation as the standard day's work on the railroads. A bill to this effect, drafted by Representative Adamson, passed the House on September 1, by a vote of 239 to 56, and the Senate on the following day by 43 to 28. The bill was approved by the President on September 3, and the strike was called off.

The bill provided that after Jan. 1, 1917, eight hours should be regarded as a basis of reckoning for a day's pay of men engaged in the operation of railroad trains in interstate commerce (excepting roads less than 100 miles long and electric lines), that they should receive pro rata pay for work in excess of eight hours, and that their rate of compensation should not be changed pending an investigation for from six to nine months of the effect of the eight-hour day upon the railroads by a commission to be appointed by the President.

In March, 1917, dissatisfaction with the delay in obtaining the benefits of the Adamson Law caused a strike again to impend, but the danger was averted by arbitration, and by the Supreme Court's verdict in that month, by a vote of 5 to 4, that the Adamson Law was constitutional. The Commis-

DIVIDENDS

The following table shows the percentage of stock which yielded dividends, the amount of the stock yielding dividends, the amount of dividends declared, the average rate of the dividend-yielding stock, and the ratio of dividends declared to all stock, for some recent years.

Year Ending	*Per Cent Stock Yielding Dividends*	*Amount Stock Yielding Dividends*	*Dividends Declared*	*Rate on Dividend-Yielding Stock*	*Ratio of Dividends Declared to all Stock*
1890[1]	36	$1,598,131,933	$ 87,071,613	5.5	2.0
1895[1]	30	1,485,618,453	85,287,543	5.7	1.7
1900[1]	46	2,668,969,895	139,597,972	5.2	2.4
1905[1]	63	4,119,086,714	237,964,482	5.8	3.6
1910[2]	67	5,412,578,457	405,771,416	7.5	5.0
1914[2]	64	5,667,072,956	451,653,346	8.0	5.1
1917[3]	62	5,430,123,235	366,561,494	6.7	4.2
1918[3]	62	5,610,774,033	381,851,548	6.8	4.2
1919[3]	58	5,138,851,230	339,185,658	6.6	3.8
1920[3]	60	5,298,320,617	335,241,935	6.3	3.8
1921[3]	57	5,075,039,642	331,102,938	6.5	3.7
1922[4]	57	5,059,843,975	456,482,092	9.0	5.1
1923[5]	..	4,315,049,032	273,897,897	6.4	..

[1]July 1. [2]July 1. Excludes switching and terminal companies not segregated for years previous to 1908. [3]January 1. [4]January 1. The increase in dividends represented almost entirely by stock dividends. [5]January 1. The figures are for Class I carriers only.

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sion of three mentioned in the Adamson Law, comprising Messrs. Goethals, Clark and Rublee, reported their findings in January, 1918; but by that time the railroads had been taken over by the Government, with the eight-hour day used as the standard for a day's work.

Federal Control.—The circumstances leading up to federal control of the transportation systems of the country are adequately described by President Wilson himself on pages 8409 to 8413 and 8418 to 8421. There remain to be added only the facts that much of the inability of private management to handle the railroads of the country satisfactorily under war conditions was due to priority orders for munitions, steel, food and fuel, etc., and that private control was unable to provide for new equipment to the extent made possible by federal control because of various legal restrictions and because of the abnormal condition of the money and security markets.

A law enacted by Congress and approved by the President on March 21, 1918, provided for the operation of the railroads under federal control and for the compensation of their owners, etc. During the period of federal control each carrier is to receive annually a sum equal to its average annual operating income for the three years ending June 30, 1917. Any income above that amount remains the property of the United States, the figures to be obtained by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

War taxes for the period beginning with January 1, 1918, and all taxes prior thereto must be paid by the carrier from its own funds, later taxes being paid out of revenues derived by the government under federal control. The government shall consider as part of the expenses of operation the cost of maintenance, repair, and depreciation and the creation of reserves, etc., necessary to return the roads to the owners at the end of federal control in the same condition as when acquired. Wherever it is apparent to the President that abnormal conditions in 1914-7 make the above remuneration unfair, he may make with the carriers concerned such other agreement as seems to him just and fair.

Street and interurban electric lines, however, are excluded from the provisions of the Act.

The average net income of the railroads for 1914-7 was the highest in the history of the railroads of the country, averaging $947,267,472 annually.

The railroads were returned to their private owners by the Government on March 1, 1920, so that the period of Government control comprised twenty-six months. During that time, the administration of the railroads lay in the hands of the United States Railroad Administration, created for that purpose. Its first head was William G. McAdoo, who was succeeded by Walker D. Hines. Two days before the roads were returned to private control, Railroad Administrator Hines submitted to President Wilson a report covering the twenty-six months of federal control, of which the salient features were as follows:—

The total estimated excess of operating expenses, including the guarantee to the roads, over operating revenues was $854,423,434. In addition, there was charged against additions and improvement of roadways and equipment, net, $318,924,673. Allocated equipment funded through equipment trusts amounted to $357,011,454, and other items, including general investments of the Railroad Administration, brought the total of indebtedness and investment to $1,031,899,451. Items on account of the express companies (q. v.) are included in these figures. To meet this grand total of $1,886,322,885, Congress had appropriated $500,000,000 in the original Federal Control Act, $750,000,000 as a deficiency measure and $200,000,000 in the bill returning the railroads, leaving an additional appropriation of $436,322,885 to be met after March 1, 1920.

Passenger traffic during Government operation is seen from the following table of passengers carried one mile as compared with previous years' passenger traffic:

Year Ending	
1890, June 30	11,847,785,617
1900, June 30	16,038,076,200
1910, June 30	32,338,496,329
1915, June 30	32,384,247,563
1916, December 31	35,121,675,959
1917, December 31	39,476,858,549
1918, December 31	42,676,579,199
1919, December 31	46,358,303,740

The following table on employees' compensation covers Class I roads.

Year Ending Jan. 1	*Average Number Employees*	*Total Hours Worked*	*Total Compensation*	*Average Hours per Employee*	*Average Hourly Compensation*	*Average Employee's Compensation*
1918	1,732,876	5,437,976,803	$1,739,482,142	3,138	$.320	$1,003.81
1919[1]	1,841,575	5,701,417,385	2,613,813,351	3,096	.458	1,419.34
1920[1]	1,913,422	5,032,493,422	2,843,128,432	2,630	.565	1,485.89
1921	2,022,832	5,446,740,533	3,681,801,193	2,693	.676	1,820.12
1922	1,659,513	4,147,318,574	2,765,218,079	2,499	.667	1,666.28
1923	1,626,100	.....	2,637,309,080	.....	.....	1,621.86

[1]Covers federal reports, reports of noncontrolled companies and also corporate reports.

Ton-miles of freight per mile of road per day by monthly averages for 1917, 1918 and 1919 are shown in the following table:

	1919	*1918*	*1917*
January	4,275	3,878	4,770
February	4,002	4,591	4,511
March	4,059	5,273	5,192
April	4,124	5,471	5,257
May	4,524	5,226	5,617
June	4,615	5,423	5,694
July	4,878	5,487	5,441
August	5,075	5,691	5,351
September	5,625	5,731	5,217
October	5,651	5,584	5,385
November	4,711	5,155	5,298
December	4,688	5,184	5,121

The Railroad Administration, for purposes of directing the railroads, divided the country into a number of sections, each of which had its own administration and its own administrator. To a great extent, the several railroads were managed so as to preserve their identity, thus making possible their return to their private owners. Most of the railroad officials under private management were utilized for administration by the Railroad Administration. In the summer of 1918, during federal control, a substantial increase in rates was put into effect.

The revenue-ton miles of freight handled by the railroads in the preceding four years was given in Mr. Hines' report as follows:

1916	362,444,397,129
1917	392,547,347,886
1918	403,070,816,694
1919 (Partly Estimated)	363,240,000,000

Esch-Cummins Law.—The bill, known as the Esch-Cummins Bill, prescribing the conditions under which the railroads were to operate after being returned to private control, passed the House of Representatives on February 21, 1920, by a vote of 250 to 150 and the Senate on February 23 by a vote of 47 to 11; it was approved by President Wilson on February 28.

The bill provided that current rates, classifications, etc., be not changed until September 1, 1920, after which the Interstate Commerce Commission resumes control of them. All carriers were guaranteed the same compensation as under Government control for six months after the end of that control. The bill created a revolving fund of $300,000,000 for the making of new loans to the railroads within two years, but these loans are obtainable only by the authorization of the Interstate Commerce Commission, and must be repaid within five years of their issuance.

A Railway Labor Board of nine members, appointed by the President, is created to settle labor disputes on the railroads. Labor boards for adjustment may also be established by agreement between the carriers and the employees, and in case of their failure to agree their dispute is appealed to the Railway Labor Board of nine. The latter shall consist of three members representing Labor, three representing the railroads and three the public, and their appointment by the President must be ratified by the Senate. The salaries of the members are fixed at $10,000 annually. The Board must rely chiefly upon public opinion to enforce its awards, as the bill contains no provision for compulsory acceptance of the award of arbitration.

The bill directs the Interstate Commerce Commission to consider 5½% as a fair return upon the valuation of railroad property when it takes up rates, which may be increased at the Commission's discretion to 6%, during the two years beginning March 1, 1920. If any carrier earns a net operating income of more than 6% in any years, one-half of the excess must be placed in a reserve fund and one-half in a general contingent fund for loans to carriers.

The power of the Interstate Commerce Commission over the railroads before federal control is restored, together with new powers, such as that of authorizing the issue of railroad securities. The Interstate Commerce Commission is increased from nine to eleven members, and their annual salaries from $10,000 to $12,000.

Physical Evaluation.—For a number of years, the Interstate Commerce Commission has been engaged upon the stupendous task of fixing the physical valuation of all railroad property. On July 31, 1920, the Commission announced that it tentatively put the physical valuation at $18,900,000,000 as against an estimate of $20,040,572,611 submitted by the railroads.

For the powers over the railroads enjoyed by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and for discussion of the subject, see the headings under Interstate Commerce Commission.

General Statistics

The following figures pertain only to Class I roads, excluding lessor companies and switching and terminal companies.

Miles of road operated	234,986
Second main track	32,321
Third main track	2,976
Fourth main track	2,076
Other main track	329
Yard track and sidings	109,412
Total mileage operated	382,101

Equipment in Service

Locomotives, steam	64,139
Other	373
Freight cars, box	1,021,526
Flat	99,032
Stock	80,680
Coal	939,251
Tank	9,952
Refrigerator	63,454
Other	79,507
Total	2,293,402
Aggregate capacity, tons	98,847,236
Installed during year	100,782
Retired during year	122,523

The following table shows the extent of the service performed by our Class I railroads in recent years.

PASSENGER TRAFFIC

Year Ending Jan. 1	*Revenue Passengers Carried*	*Passengers Carried One Mile*	*Average Receipts from Each Passenger*	*Average Receipts per Passenger per Mile*	*Average Journey per Passenger, Miles*
1918	1,066,638,474	39,476,858,549	$0.7734	$.0209	37.0
1919	1,084,997,896	42,676,579,199	0.9496	.0241	39.3
1920	1,177,820,454	46,358,303,740	0.9996	.0254	39.4
1921	1,234,862,048	46,848,667,987	1.0414	.0275	37.9
1922	1,035,496,329	37,312,585,966	1.1120	.0309	36.0
1923[1]	967,384,978	35,469,841,029	1.1100	.0303	36.7

FREIGHT TRAFFIC

Year Ending Jan. 1	*Revenue Tons Carried*	*Revenue Tons Carried One Mile*	*Average Receipts per Ton*	*Average Receipts per Ton per Mile*	*Average Haul per Road Miles*
1918	2,270,035,053	394,465,400,493	$1.2422	$0.0072	173.8
1919	2,305,824,940	405,379,284,206	1.4921	.0085	175.8
1920	2,043,229,775	364,293,063,017	1.7340	.0097	178.3
1921	2,259,983,278	410,306,209,802	1.9100	.0105	181.6
1922	1,690,762,695	306,840,203,512	2.3132	.0128	181.5
1923[1]	1,840,954,570	339,285,347,571	2.1686	.0118	184.3

[1]Excludes switching, terminal and lessor companies.

Passenger-train cars	54,354
Installed during year	1,199
Retired during year	1,152
Company service cars	105,610
Installed during year	7,401
Retired during year	6,399
Floating equipment, total units	2,507
Ties laid during year	90,749,760
Total charges	$127,990,932
Rails laid during year, tons	2,816,344
Total charges	$99,659,303
Employees, average number	1,627,120
Compensation	$2,640,738,182
Overtime in above	228,119,324
Service hours	4,008,693,544
Service days	37,779,266
Fuel used by locomotives, tons	127,213,184
Freight service, tons	73,695,838
Passenger service	29,846,743
Yard switching service	19,495,464

Of the passenger cars in service on Jan. 1, 1922, 48% were of steel and 20% in addition had steel underframes. Similar figures for coal cars were 59% and 25% and for other freight cars, 6% and 49%.

Pullman Company.—The Pullman Company conducted operations over 123,547 miles of single track. Its operating revenues were $65,582,291 and operating expenses, $53,029,407. It employed 19,066 persons, including 8,086 porters and maids, 2,325 conductors and 2,897 car cleaners. Its operating statistics were as follows:—

Revenue passengers, berth	19,724,576
Revenue passengers, seat	12,023,809
Average revenue, berth	$3.18
Average revenue, seat	0.74
Sleeping cars	6,091
Tourist sleeping cars	588
Parlor cars	941
Other cars	144

Financial.—The following table gives the railroad capital actually outstanding on January 1, 1922, for all carriers and their non-operating subsidiaries, exclusive of certain switching and terminal companies, for which the total was $565,400,334.

Common stock	$7,104,085,112
Preferred stock	1,785,835,616
Mortgage bonds	8,481,858,148
Collateral trust bonds	983,013,678
Income bonds	342,307,967
Miscellaneous obligations	879,602,780
Equipment obligations	670,983,659
Total capital outstanding	$20,247,686,960

The par value of railroad securities owned or controlled by railroad corporations on January 1, 1922, was thus classified:—

Issued or assumed by respondent company	$1,976,454,196
Of affiliated companies, held for investment	3,209,876,451
Of non-affiliated companies, held for investment	357,230,688
Miscellaneous	27,979,858
In sinking, insurance and other funds	118,216,888
Special deposits	1,328,647
Controlled through nonreporting subsidiaries	274,344,894
Total	$5,965,441,622

The total number of stockholders on January 1, 1923, of Class I steam railroads was 777,538.

Operating Revenues and Expenses.—The following table of annual operating revenues and expenses refers only to Class 1 steam railroads, exclusive of switching and terminal companies.

Revenues—Freight	$3,992,442,459
Passenger	1,074,108,060
Express	143,265,115
Mail	90,963,715
Switching	54,970,539
Milk	32,647,401
Miscellaneous	162,423,269
Joint facility, Cr.	10,197,708
Joint facility, Dr.	*1,925,558*
Total operating revenues	$5,559,092,708
Expenses—Maintenance of way and structures	$ 728,663,534
Maintenance of equipment	1,252,517,250
Traffic	86,506,907
Transportation	2,149,763,823
Miscellaneous and general.	197,070,820
Total operating expenses	$4,414,522,334

Of the above operating expenses, $3,971,351,941 was assignable to freight service and $1,185,889,193 to passenger and allied services.

Net operating revenues	$1,144,570,374
Railway tax accruals	301,034,923
Uncollectible revenues	1,462,522
Railway operating income	$842,072,929

Miscellaneous income	302,603
Total operating income.....	$842,375,532
Nonoperating income	349,299,063
Gross income	$1,191,674,595
Interest on debt, rents and other deductions ..	820,418,262
Net income	$371,256,333
Dividend and other appropriations of income	202,744,292
Transferred to profit and loss	$168,512,041

Balance Sheet.—The following figures, as of January 1, 1923, include only Class I roads, excluding switching, terminal and lessor companies.

Road and equipment	$15,856,073,200
Investments, affiliated cos. .	4,152,147,050
Other investments	1,437,072,429
Current—cash, special deposits, accounts receivable, material and supplies, etc.	1,921,684,108
Deferred assets	892,702,078
Unadjusted debits	503,827,607
Total assets	$24,763,506,472
Stock	$ 7,313,387,428
Grants for construction	4,049,030
Long term debt	10,157,018,472
Current liabilities	1,337,498,598
Deferred liabilities	1,008,202,480
Unadjusted credits	1,886,406,169
Appropriated surplus	1,015,753,170
Profit and loss balance	2,041,191,125
Total liabilities	$24,763,506,472

Freight by Commodities.—The following table shows the kind of freight transported in the year by Class I carriers, exclusive of switching and terminal companies.

Commodity	*Short Tons*
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS	220,660,207
Wheat	39,324,025
Corn	34,462,520
Oats	15,270,366
Flour and meal.....	24,610,116
Hay, straw, alfalfa.....	10,011,509
Cotton	7,505,711
Fruits, fresh	20,528,867
Potatoes	12,720,064
ANIMALS AND PRODUCTS	44,838,913
Cattle and calves.....	13,448,666
Hogs	7,593,988
Fresh meats	6,014,801
MINERAL PRODUCTS	912,438,354
Bituminous coal	534,536,566
Anthracite coal	81,183,618
Coke	24,107,103
Iron ore	86,242,128
Clay, gravel, sand, stone.....	139,155,066
Crude petroleum	11,605,482
FOREST PRODUCTS	171,239,150
MANUFACTURES, ETC.	421,829,412
Refined petroleum, etc.	62,842,500
Iron, pig and bloom.....	17,296,758
Iron, bar, sheet, pipe, etc.....	44,691,169
Cement	36,404,460
Brick and artificial stone....	24,636,283
Automobiles and trucks	10,618,401
TOTAL FREIGHT TRANSPORTED	1,840,954,570

Employees.—For the six months ending on July 1, 1921, the average number of certain classes of employees on Class I roads was as follows, the figures in parentheses being their average hourly or daily wage:—

Section foremen, 40,452 ($5.64); Foremen, M. E. department, 24,829, ($8.89); Machinists, 53,148 ($.89); Boilermakers, 16,987 ($.89½); Carpenters, 36,973 ($.78); Electricians, 13,340 ($7.14).

Car inspectors, 23,143 ($.85); Car repairers, 59,850 ($.82); Mechanics' helpers and apprentices, 106,381 ($.63½); Section men, 195,173 ($.49); telegraphers and telephoners, 28,236 ($.66); Agent telegraphers and station agents, 33,247 ($.67 and $6.32 respectively); station service employees, 93,703 ($.58).

Yard Engineers, 18,533 ($.93); Firemen, 18,853 ($.73); Conductors, 18,130 ($.89); Brakemen and switchmen, 45,826 ($.83); Enginehousemen, 65,663 ($.56).

Freight—Engineers, 29,104 ($1.13); Firemen, 31,066 ($.86); Conductors, 23,138 ($.94½); Brakemen, flagmen, 58,464 ($.77).

Passenger—Engineers, 12,980 ($1.28); Firemen, 12,818 ($.99); Conductors, 10,651 ($1.14); Brakemen, flagmen, 15,712 ($.85); Crossing flagmen, gatemen, 23,138 ($3.36).

Mileage by States.—The figures in the following table are not so recent as the preceding, but mileage statistics vary only slightly from year to year.

State	*R. R. Mileage*	*Per 100 Sq. Miles*	*Per 10,000 Inh'bnts*
Alabama.....	5,420	10.57	22.86
Arizona.....	2,424	2.13	91.29
Arkansas.....	5,220	9.94	29.45
California.....	8,359	5.37	27.42
Colorado.....	5,640	5.44	56.77
Connecticut.....	999	20.73	7.87
Delaware.....	335	17.06	15.56
District of Columbia..	37	60.93	.99
Florida.....	5,249	9.57	57.01
Georgia.....	7,464	12.71	25.70
Idaho.....	2,861	3.43	63.69
Illinois.....	12,133	21.65	19.41
Indiana.....	7,436	20.63	26.19
Iowa.....	9,838	17.70	44.31
Kansas.....	9,383	11.40	50.54
Kentucky.....	3,859	9.60	16.10
Louisiana.....	5,363	11.81	28.99
Maine.....	2,270	7.59	29.16
Maryland.....	1,426	14.34	10.36
Massachusetts.....	2,135	26.56	5.64
Michigan.....	8,925	15.53	28.76
Minnesota.....	9,162	11.33	39.50
Mississippi.....	4,447	9.59	22.44
Missouri.....	8,231	11.98	23.97
Montana.....	4,954	3.39	104.15
Nebraska.	6,167	8.03	47.91
Nevada.....	2,293	2.09	205.00
New Hampshire.....	1,253	13.88	28.17
New Jersey.....	2,344	31.20	7.74
New Mexico.....	2,974	1.17	69.67
New York.....	8,434	17.70	8.03
North Carolina.....	5,492	11.27	22.50
North Dakota.....	5,316	7.57	69.02
Ohio.....	9,044	22.20	17.31
Oklahoma.....	6.502	9.37	28.18
Oregon.....	3,232	3.38	37.27
Pennsylvania.....	11,681	26.05	13.44
Rhode Island.....	206	19.26	3.27
South Carolina.....	3,697	12.12	22.44
South Dakota.....	4,279	5.57	59.37
Tennessee.....	4,076	9.78	17.66
Texas.....	15,932	6.07	35.14
Utah.....	2,145	2.61	48.16
Vermont.....	1,056	11.57	28.88
Virginia.....	4,677	11.62	21.09
Washington.....	5,650	8.45	35.09
West Virginia.....	4,013	16.70	28.30
Wisconsin.....	7,668	13.88	30.27
Wyoming.....	1,924	1.97	103.70
Total, U. S.	253,626	8.53	24.39

Railroads of the World.—The following table shows the railroad mileage of the countries of the world for the years indicated:

Argentina	1921	21,935
Australia	1921	26,202
Austria	1921	4,125
Belgium	1921	5,686
Brazil	1922	17,907
Canada	1921	39,771
Chile	1920	5,102
China	1920	6,818
Cuba	1922	3,020
Czechoslovakia	1922	8,718
Denmark	1921	3,092
France	1921	33,568
Germany	1922	35,209
Greece	1921	1,983
India, British	1922	37,265
Italy	1921	12,885
Japan and Korea	1921	10,028
Jugoslavia	1922	5,696
Mexico	1921	16,442
Netherlands	1921	2,380
Norway	1921	2,141
Russia	1922	42,504
Spain	1920	9,842
Sweden	1920	9,439
Switzerland	1920	3,586
United Kingdom	1920	23,734

The total railroad mileage of the world is estimated at 739,000.

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- Accidents on, discussed, 6897, 7086.
- Accounts of, supervision of, 7190.
- Agreements among, when lawful, 7130.
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- Block signals urged for, 6982.
- Cars, pooling of, urged, 9179, 9256.
- Casualty list discussed, 6897.
- Compensation to, for carrying mails. (See Postal Service, Railway and Railway Mail Service.)
- Condition of, discussed, 8941.
- Consolidation of, urged, 9252, 9256, 9346, 9353.
- Construction of, as military measure recommended, 3247.
- Control of, by Interstate Commerce Commission, 7200. (See also Government Control over.)
- Couplers and brakes upon freight trains, legislation for increased safety in use of, recommended, 5486, 5561, 5642, 5766.
- Criminal acts of, 7025.
- Development of, discussed, 8159, 9249.
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  - Ability of, praised, 8420.
  - Agent for suits and legal actions, 8829.
  - Appointed, 8410, 8686, 8931.
  - Attitude of, toward shopmen's demand for increased pay discussed, 8776.
  - Coal distribution control continued in, 8826.
  - Express business placed under, 8632.
  - Powers of, continued, 8829.
- Discriminations by, in coal and oil, 7287.
- Early train on, illustration, opposite 1337.
- Eight-hour working day on, 8144, 8183.
- Employees of, character of, 6980.
- Employers' Liability Law needed on, 7912.
- Equipment of, problem of, 9256.
- Esch-Cummins law discussed, 9253, 9345.
- Executives of, praised for cooperation with Government, 8412, 8418.
- Financial problems of, 8984.
- From—
  - Atlantic to Pacific States recommended, 2988.
  - Missouri River to Pacific Ocean, uniform gauge for, 3361.
  - Omaha, Nebr., to Sacramento, Cal., discussed, 3881.
- Government aid to, under Constitution discussed, 2753.
- Government control over, urged, 6978, 7074, 7087, 7200, 8117.
- Government operation of—
  - Address of President Wilson to Congress concerning, 8418.
  - Assumed, 8409.
  - Benefits of, 8412, 8419.
  - Deplored, 9251.
  - Explained, 8412.
  - Referred to, 8810.
  - Relinquished, 8804.
  - Returns to private investors from, suggested, 8420.
  - Unsuccessful, 9178.
- Government ownership of, discussed, 6981.
- Grant to American citizens for lines of, through Mexico, 3665.
- Guaranteed payments to, by Government, referred to, 8885.
- Hours of employees on, 6982, 7035.
- In Europe, 3270.
- Inadequacy of, 9177.
- Interownership between competing, prohibition of, 7447, 7552.
- Investors in securities of, to be safeguarded, 8413, 8419.
- Labor disputes on, discussed, 8145, 8184, 9132, 9142, 9181, 9257.
- Lands granted in aid of, discussed, 2749, 2823, 3580, 3651, 4065, 4944, 5384.
  - Forfeiture of, discussed, 4837, 5379.
  - Provocation of withdrawal of, referred to, 5197.
- Military control over, suggested, 8184.

Military possession of, taken by United States, 3314, 3379.
N. Y., N. H. & H. R. R. Co., dissolution of, directed, 8023.
Operators, defiance of Railroad Labor Board by, 9132, 9142.
Payments to, under Government guarantee referred to, 8885.
Policy toward, discussed, 8644-6.
Pooling of freight cars on, urged, 9179, 9256.
Publicity of accounts of, 6978.
Rates—
Agreements concerning, approved by Interstate Commerce Commission, legalization of, urged, 7444, 7552.
Discussed, 6977, 7128, 9178, 9346, 9353.
Equality of, desirable, 6655.
Freight, increase in, suggested, 8148.
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Increases in, attempted, withdrawal of, under injunction, 7487.
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Preferential, urged, 9106.
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Securities of, sale of, by Government discussed, 8985, 9014.
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Shopmen on, demands of, for increased pay discussed, 8775.
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Steamship lines, non-coastwise, ownership of, should be permitted to, 9107.
Strikes discussed. (See Strike Commission.)
Strikes on, discussed, 8145, 8184, 9132, 9142, 9181.
Subsidies to—
Discussed, 4064.
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Travel on, increased safety for, 6897.
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Water routes and, problem of, 9259. (See also Waterways.)
Railroads, Commissioner of, report of, discussed, 5640, 5763.
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Railway Executives, Association of, plan submitted to, for settlement of railroad strike, 9143.
Railway Mail Service:
Classification of employees in, 5429.
Amendments to rules regarding, 5465, 5466, 5542, 5610, 5948, 5954, 5955, 6040.
Discussed, 5882.
Recommended, 4527.
Time for, extended, 5462.
Discussed, 5488.
Discussed, 5882.
Railway Mail Service, Division of.—An act of Congress of September 6, 1785, authorized the Postmaster-general to contract for the delivery of mail by stage-coach. In 1811, the Post-Office Department established a system of mail service between Baltimore and Washington in stage-coaches owned by the Government, and in 1813 the Postmaster-general was authorized to use sailing vessels in the transportation of mail. The first railway post-office was established in 1862 and the first definite railway mail service was inaugurated in 1864. For recent statistics, see Post-Office Department and Postal Service.
Railway Postal Service. (See Postal Service; Railway Mail Service.)
Raizuli. (See "Perdicaris alive or Raizuli dead.")
Raleigh, The, mentioned, 6297.
Rambouillet Decree.—March 23, 1810, after the American Congress had repealed the non-intercourse act of March 1, 1810, Napoleon ordered the immediate seizure and sale of all American vessels in the ports of France or the ports of her territories occupied by French armies. In this decree

Napoleon avowed his determination to prohibit any commercial intercourse with the enemies of France which was not enjoyed by that country also. Under this decree 132 vessels, with their cargoes, valued at $8,000,000 were ordered sold. (See also Berlin Decree; Embargo; Milan Decree; Nonintercourse Acts.)

Ramsey & Carmick, claims of, referred to, 3065.

Ranger, The, referred to, 1030.

Raritan, The, postponement of sailing of, referred to, 2129.

Ratification of Constitution.—The Constitution, by its terms, was not to become binding until ratified by nine of the thirteen states. It was signed by the delegates in convention Sept. 17, 1787, and by them submitted to Congress. Congress immediately ordered copies sent to all the states. Hamilton, Jay and Madison took leading parts in bringing about the ratification by the states. Gen. Washington's great influence was also thrown into the scale. The commercial classes in most of the states favored its adoption, but there was much opposition to it on all sides. Delaware was the first state to ratify the new document, taking favorable action thereon Dec. 7, 1787. It was then ratified by the other states in the following order: Pennsylvania, Dec. 12; New Jersey, Dec. 18; Georgia, Jan. 2, 1788; Connecticut, Jan. 9; Massachusetts, Feb. 6; Maryland, April 28; South Carolina, May 23; New Hampshire, June 21; Virginia, June 25; New York, July 26; North Carolina, Nov. 21, 1789, and Rhode Island, May 29, 1790. The Constitution went into effect March 4, 1789, before North Carolina and Rhode Island had ratified it.

Ratification of Constitution. (See Constitution; Admission of States.)

Raymond (Miss.), Battle of.—May 7, 1863, Sherman effected a junction with Grant, swelling the force about to proceed to the siege of Vicksburg to 50,000 men, including infantry, cavalry, and artillery. Grant immediately ordered a general movement on two parallel roads on the southeast of the Big Black River. McPherson, advancing on the road nearest the river, met two brigades of the enemy, under Gregg and Walker, at Raymond, fifteen miles southwest of Jackson, on May 12, and after a sharp engagement defeated them. The Confederate loss was 103 killed and 720 wounded and missing. McPherson lost 69 killed, 341 wounded, and 32 missing.

Rear-Admiral.—This is a naval grade created by act of Congress in 1862. This grade in the Navy ranks with that of major-general in the Army. Until the special acts creating the grades of admiral and vice-admiral, that of rear-admiral was the highest naval office. There are now fifteen rear-admirals ranking with major-generals in the Army, and nine rear-admirals ranking with brigadier-generals.

Rear-Admiral, rank of acting, conferred upon certain officers inquired into, 4848.

Rebates, apparent conflict of decisions by district judges concerning, 7024.
Holt (Judge), opinion and sentence quoted, 7025.
Letter showing illegal payment in California, 7135.
New York Central and Hudson River R. R. convicted for giving, 7026.

Rebecca, The, seizure and sale of, at Tampico, 5123, 5502.

Rebellion Records. (See War of Rebellion, Official Records of.)

Rebellion, War of. (See Civil War.)

Rebellions. (See Illegal Combinations.)

Recall. (See Initiative, Referendum and Recall.)

Recall of Judges opposed, 7639-7644.

Reciprocal Trade Agreements. (See Foreign Import Duties.)

Reciprocity.—Reciprocity is the granting by one nation of certain commercial privileges to another, whereby the citizens of both are placed upon an equal basis in certain branches of commerce. A reciprocity agreement between the United States and Canada was concluded in 1854 and terminated in 1866. A similar one was made with Hawaii in 1875. Other treaty arrangements of a reciprocal character were made from time to time. The subject derived the greatest interest from attention directed to it in 1888 and the final incorporation of the principal in the tariff of 1890. For many years previous to this time the anti-protection or tariff-reform party had attacked the existing tariff regulations on the ground that by levying high duties on the products of South American Republics those countries had not only to send their products elsewhere for sale, but as a natural consequence, to purchase their goods in other markets than those of the United States; in other words that a vast trade was diverted from us to Europe because of the restrictions imposed upon commerce by our tariff.

This discussion led to the adoption of a reciprocity arrangement with Central and South American countries. The first step toward this end was the calling of the Pan-American Congress (q. v.). Among the numerous subjects of mutual interest discussed at this congress was a recommendation for reciprocity treaties. In June, 1890, the Secretary of State, James G. Blaine, sent a letter to the President for transmission to Congress, calling attention to the proposed scheme. He suggested a practical and prompt test of the reciprocity principle by an amendment to the McKinley tariff bill, then pending (see Tariff), authorizing the President to declare the ports of the United States free to all the products of any nation of the American hemisphere upon which no export duties are imposed whenever and so long as such nation shall admit to its ports, free of all national, provincial, municipal, and other taxes, certain specified articles from the United States. The "reciprocity section" was incorporated in the tariff law approved Oct. 1, 1890. This clause was held to be constitutional by the Supreme Court, and the first treaty negotiated under it was with Brazil, Feb. 5, 1891. Treaties were also negotiated with Spain (for Cuba and Porto Rico); with England (for some of her West Indian possessions); with Santo Domingo, Guatemala, Salvador, Costa Rica, Honduras, Nicaragua, Germany, Austria-Hungary.

These treaties were abrogated by the passage of the Wilson bill (see Tariff) in 1894. The Dingley law of 1897 provided for reciprocity treaties, to be made by the President, with regard to a limited number of articles; and for broader treaties to be negotiated by the President, subject to the ratification of the Senate. Of the first class, agreements were made with France, Italy and Switzerland; of the second class treaties were negotiated with France, Great Britain (for Jamaica, Turks and Caicos islands, Barbados, and British Guiana), Denmark (for the Danish West Indies), San Domingo, Nicaragua, Ecuador and the Argentine Republic, but none of them secured the ratification of the Senate. A reciprocity treaty with Cuba was ratified by the Senate in March, 1903, and the additional legislation necessary to put it in force was passed in December of the same year

The tariff law passed in 1909 contained the maximum and minimum feature, which prescribed certain rates to be enforced for one year, at the end of which time 25 per cent ad valorem was to be added as the maximum duty. The President is then authorized to apply the minimum rates to the imports from a country which gives its best rates to the products of the United States, and which accords to the United States treatment which he considers reciprocal and equivalent. (See Tariff.)

On Jan. 26, 1911, President Taft sent to Congress a special message transmitting an agreement between the Department of State and the Canadian Government, obligating both parties to attempt to secure legislation which will reciprocally lower tariff rates on about six hundred items. (See page 7581). In urging the passage of the treaty, the President recalled Canada's neighborliness and friendship as shown in the settlement of all disputes and in the co-operation between the boards of railway control on both sides the border, dwelt upon the necessity of conserving our own resources by buying those of our neighbor, pointed out the similarity in labor and transportation conditions here and there, mentioned the harm to Americans which will accrue if the "imperial preference" doctrine becomes a tenet of Canadian political faith, maintained that the accession of a new supply of raw materials would inure to the benefit of all sections and, in prophetic vein, characterized the agreement as a step toward closer friendship between peoples related by blood, common sympathies and identical moral and social ideas. Animals, poultry, food stuffs, products of farm, garden and dairy, fruits, fish, oysters, salt, mineral waters, lumber, machinery, minor metal manufactures, coal, meats, flour, meal, farming utensils, fruit trees and Portland cement are the articles on which the tax is to be lowered or entirely removed. The effect of the proposed treaty, according to 1910 figures, would be to decrease the revenue of the United States by $4,849,933, and that of Canada by $2,560,579. On July 26, 1911, the reciprocity measure, having been passed by both Houses, was signed by the President and became law.

By September 1, 1911, the Canadian Parliament had not yet ratified the agreement and it finally failed.

Reciprocity:
Canada, preliminary steps toward, with, 7502.
Canada, with. (See Canada, Reciprocity with.)
Cuba, with, urged, 6682.
Germany, arrangement of, with, 7283.
Netherlands, with, 6961.
Protection and, discussed, 6652.
Spain, with, 6966.
Treaties of, discussed, 6653, 6714.

Reclamation of waste lands by discharged soldiers urged, 8642, 8715, 8813.

Reclamation Service, Interior Department.—The Reclamation Service was established by act approved June 17, 1909, in order to redeem arid lands by irrigation (q. v.). The act created a Reclamation Fund from the sale of certain public lands. In 1914, 761,271 acres were irrigated, and plans made for the irrigation of 500,000 more acres. The average crop value on the land thus newly redeemed for profitable cultivation was $23.50 per acre. (See Interior Department.)

Reclamation Service, discussed, 6801, 6908. (See Irrigation.)

Reconcentrados.—The name given the agricultural inhabitants of Cuba who were by the edict of Feb. 16, 1896, of Captain-General Weyler concentrated within the lines of the Spanish armies and cities of that island. This resulted in great suffering to the persons thus herded together, many of them dying of disease and from starvation. The mortality was so frightful and their suffering so intense that their condition excited universal pity. On the suggestion of the President of the United States, Congress made an appropriation for their relief.

Reconcentrados:
Appropriation for, recommended, 6292.
Policy of Gen. Weyler regarding, discussed, 6256, 6283, 6284, 6308.
Revoked, 6285.

Reconstruction.—In American politics a term signifying the restoration of those states which had seceded of local self-government and normal relations with the Union. The period of reconstruction embraced the Administrations of Johnson and Grant and presented some perplexing problems to the statesmen of the reunited country: Were the states still in the Union, with no other disability than that of having no legal governments, or had their act of secession reduced them to the condition of territories subject to the Union? Did reconstruction mean their erection into new states or their restoration with their old names and boundaries? Did the power to reconstruct lie in the states themselves or in the General Government; and if in the General Government, did it lie with Congress or with the Executive? If it lay with the people of the disorganized state, who or what defined that people and decided who might and might not vote in the reorganization? If it lay with Congress, could the Executive, without the authority of Congress, proceed to reconstruct, simply leaving it to Congress to accept or reject the states so reconstructed? President Lincoln had proceeded upon the theory that nothing more was necessary than that a sufficient number of loyal citizens should form a state government of which the officials were loyally desirous of maintaining constitutional relations with the Union (3423). President Johnson proceeded upon nearly the same theory.

The view held by the majority in Congress was that the southern states could be readmitted only on such terms as that body should impose. The ground taken in support of this view was that the substantial results of the war respecting the civil rights of the negro could not be secured in any other way, because of the reluctance of some legislatures to accept these results. Before Congress met in December, 1865, President Johnson had recognized provisional governments in all the southern states except one, on their acceptance of the thirteenth amendment. Congress then proposed the fourteenth amendment and insisted upon its acceptance as a prerequisite to readmission to the Union. The same body on March 2, 1867, passed over President Johnson's veto, the military reconstruction bill introduced in the House by Thaddeus Stevens. Under this law the south was divided into five military districts under the command of the generals of the Army, who were to effect a registration of voters, including negroes and excluding those persons who had been disqualified by the fourteenth amendment. These voters were to make and ratify a constitution and submit it to Congress, and if it was acceptable the state should be reinstated whenever its legislature had ratified the fourteenth amendment. (See illustration opposite 3754.)

Tennessee was readmitted to the Union in 1866, Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, North Carolina, and South Carolina in 1868, and Mississippi, Texas and Virginia in 1870. (See also Restoration.)

Reconstruction Acts:
Interpretation of, 3750.
Proceedings of President and Cabinet regarding, as set forth in *National Intelligencer*, discussed, 3725.
Repeal of, recommended, 3760, 3870.
Vetoed. (See Reconstruction.)

Reconstruction of Southern States (see also Restoration):
Act providing for more efficient government or rebel States vetoed, 3696.
Acts supplementary to, vetoed, 3729, 3734.
Assignments under, 3749, 3750, 3754, 3755, 3859, 3860, 3861, 3862, 3863, 3864, 3866, 3869.
Expenses of carrying act into effect discussed, 3719, 3725, 3764.
Joint resolution to carry act into effect approved and reasons therefor, 3719.
Joint resolutions to carry acts into effect vetoed, 3743.
Acts to admit certain Southern States into Union vetoed, 3846, 3848.
Discussed by President—
Grant, 3965, 3982, 4050.
Referred to, 4354.
Hayes, 4394, 4410, 4445.
Johnson. (See Restoration.)
Government for Tennessee, more efficient for, and other rebel states vetoed, 3696.
Ratification of fourteenth amendment proclaimed—
Alabama, 3857.
Georgia, 3858
Louisiana, 3856.
North Carolina, 3854.
South Carolina, 3855.

Record, Congressional. (See Congressional Record.)

Records and Documents (see also Exchanges for Official Documents; International Bureau of Exchanges):
Building for, 4452, 4781, 6456.
Documents in care of legations referred to, 4070.
Laws for punishing persons abstracting or mutilating, recommended, 2683, 2713, 3940.

Red Cloud Agency, Nebr., deficiency in supplies at, 4312, 4313.

Red Cross, American National.—The Red Cross is "a confederation of societies in different countries for the amelioration of the condition of wounded soldiers in the armies, in campaigns on land or sea." It carries on its work under the sign of a red cross on a white ground used as a flag, always with the national flag, or as an arm badge. By Article 7 of the Geneva Convention this sign protects its wearers as neutral. The society originated with Henri Dunant after the battle of Solferino in 1859, Gustave Moynier of Geneva, president of the "Society of Public Utility of Switzerland," called a meeting "to consider the formation of permanent societies for the relief of wounded soldiers." This was held Feb. 9, 1863, and resulted in an international meeting Oct. 26, following, and a treaty between twelve European governments, assuring neutrality and protection to all working under the Red Cross. This treaty was concluded at Geneva, Aug. 22, 1864. It was adopted by Great Britain, Feb. 18, 1865; Prussia, June 22, 1865; Turkey, July 5, 1865; and Russia, May 22, 1867. The United States Senate acceded to it, March 16, 1882, and it was proclaimed by President Arthur, July 26, 1882. The treaty is now generally observed by civilized governments of the world.

The American National Association of the Red Cross was organized at Washington, D. C., May 21, 1881, and was incorporated for twenty years, July 1, 1881. Miss Clara Barton was elected first president. It was reincorporated April 17, 1893, for the relief of suffering by war, pestilence, famine, flood, fires, and other calamities of sufficient magnitude to be deemed national in extent. The President of the United States is the President of the American National Red Cross.

With the entrance of the United States into the European War, the Red Cross naturally both altered and broadened its organization. President Wilson placed in general charge of its war activities H. P. Davison, a New York financier. In June 18-25, 1917, a "drive" for $100,000,000 was conducted, which netted approximately $114,000,000. The Second Red Cross War Fund Drive was held in May 18-25, 1918, and resulted in subscriptions of approximately $170,000,000. Under the financial plan adopted, chapters were permitted to withdraw one-fourth of their collections against War Funds.

In addition, membership dues amounted to about $37,370,000; sale of materials to members to $20,300,000; contributions to $9,580,000, which, with revenue from other sources, made the total revenues for national headquarters and chapters during the War period amount to $400,178,000.

WAR ACTIVITIES

The following figures summarize the activities of the American National Red Cross during the participation of the United States in the World War. The figures cover the period from July 1, 1917, to March 1, 1919, unless otherwise stated:

Number Chapters, March 1, 1919	3,724
Membership January 1, 1919	18,602,759
Junior Membership	11,718,385
Articles Produced by Chapters, Number	371,577,464
Value, estimated	$ 93,977,996
Nurses enrolled	18,862[1]

[1]Not including 4,960 enrolled before January 1, 1918.

It was estimated that there were sent abroad from the United States 101,094 tons, of 2,000 pounds each, of supplies. Of this total, 53,492 tons represented foodstuffs. These totals do not represent the large quantity of supplies distributed by the Red Cross, but purchased in Europe. The distribution of these supplies was as follows:

Destination	*Foodstuffs* *Tons*	*Total* *Tons*
France	21,739	52,000
Italy	10,287	16,992
Serbian prisoners	9,483	10,238
Russia in Europe	5,392	5,842
Balkan Countries	3,851	5,791
Siberia	7	3,511
England	340	2,930
American prisoners	1,093	1,207
Palestine	39	1,118
Miscellaneous	1,261	1,465

During the twenty months mentioned above, the sum of $169,095,111 had been appropriated by National Headquarters, divided as follows:

War Relief in:	
France	$57,207,004
United States	28,977,985
Italy	11,972,819
Great Britain	11,267,304
Palestine and Near East	8,320,211
Siberia	8,225,769
Switzerland	5,972,777
Balkan Countries	4,569,869
Belgium	3,875,161
Russia in Europe	2,240,167
Other overseas activities	7,396,576
Handling and U. S. transportation of relief supplies	5,530,346
Collections, etc., and publications	4,660,192
Administration	4,359,758
Operation relief bureaus	2,727,056
Disaster relief	938,421
Miscellaneous	853,695

There was expended by the chapters the sum of $103,580,000, divided as follows:

Materials for relief articles	$60,660,000
Home service	8,790,000
General operating expense	7,490,000
Equipment of hospitals, ambulances	3,070,000
Canteen service	2,320,000
Influenza epidemic relief	1,680,000
Disaster relief	520,000
Public health nursing	380,000
Transportation of supplies	290,000
Miscellaneous	18,380,000

The number of relief articles produced by the volunteer workers was 371,500,000. Forty million refreshments were served by the canteen workers. Knitted articles given to soldiers and sailors totalled 10,900,000. More than 15,000,000 soldiers were served by Red Cross canteens in France.

Five hundred thousand families of soldiers and sailors were aided by home service in the United States. The patient days for soldiers and sailors in the Red Cross hospitals in France amounted to 1,155,000. Almost 300,000 splints were supplied for American soldiers, 3,780 French hospitals were aided, more than 4,300,000 gallons of nitrous oxide and oxygen were furnished hospitals in France, 1,726,000 civilian refugees were aided in France and 155,000 children cared for in Italy, with 150,000 soldiers carried by Red Cross ambulances in Italy.

During the twenty months ending February 28, 1919, the articles produced by chapter workers of the Red Cross were as follows:

Articles	*Number*	*Value*
Surgical dressings	306,966,759	$14,637,909
Hospital garments	17,462,400	22,969,586
Hospital supplies	14,211,439	5,966,854
Refugee garments	6,328,982	7,779,056
Articles for soldiers and sailors	23,328,831	41,858,275
Unclassified	3,279,053	766,316
Total	371,577,464	$93,977,996

The articles produced by the Junior Red Cross during this period were as follows:

Articles	*Number*	*Value*
Surgical dressings	6,057,720	$ 363,463
Hospital supplies	2,574,564	772,369
Hospital garments	444,776	578,209
Refugee garments	1,130,188	1,808,301
Articles for soldiers and sailors	3,174,999	5,238,748
Sewing	1,582,852	791,426
Furniture	756,979	599,946
Total	15,722,078	$10,152,462

During the month of February, 1919, alone, services were rendered to 297,000 families of soldiers and sailors, chiefly in furnishing information. Just before the armistice, there were 700 canteens and 55,000 canteen workers. Among the supplies distributed free at the canteens were the following:

Candy, pounds	499,059
Chocolate, bars	5,604,349
Coffee, gallons	1,497,096
Cookies, doughnuts, pies	10,852,352
Sandwiches	14,824,869
Cigarettes	70,518,141
Post cards	15,956,219

Among the articles distributed free in the camps and hospitals were 345,000 laundry and other bags, 78,000 blankets, 60,000 books, 617,000 Christmas packages, 8,750,000 cigarettes, 964,000 comfort kits and bags, 3,500,000 envelopes, 985,000 knitted helmets, 900,000 knitted mufflers, 3,592,000 pairs of socks, 4,209,000 sweaters, 1,200,000 wristlets, 1,400,000 masks against contagion, 1,188,000 suits pajamas, 223,000 tooth brushes, 6,307,000 sheets and 477,000 tablets of writing paper.

By Nov. 1, 1917, the Red Cross was prosecuting in Europe the following endeavors:

Needful gifts and pensions to sick and wounded French soldiers and to French families in distress.

Twenty dispensaries for both resident civilians and for better health conditions in

the war zones to be occupied by the American soldiers.

A dental ambulance and a nurses' service for American soldiers.

A distributing service supplying 3,423 French military hospitals; a surgical dressings service supplying 2,000 French hospitals; and an extensive service preparing for all future American hospital needs.

Ten canteens operated at the French front, with provision for 20 more. Similar canteens for soldiers coming and going in Paris. Twelve rest stations and a number of recuperation stations for American soldiers.

An artificial limb factory near Paris, and special plants for the manufacture of splints and nitrous oxide gas.

Recreation in connection with hospitals and diet kitchens; a movable hospital in four units accommodating 1,000 men; a casualty service for gathering information regarding wounded and missing.

A medical research bureau.

A children's refuge and hospital within the war zone; a medical centre and travelling hospital in wrecked villages, accommodating 1,200 children; medical work along extensive lines for re-patrie children returned (about 500 daily) from points within the German lines; a hospital and convalescent home for such children and an ambulance service for other repatries.

Infant welfare stations in connection with each dispensary along the national lines planned by the Rockefeller Foundation.

Extensive tuberculosis endeavors, including the work previously done along these lines by volunteer Americans. Completion of an unfinished tuberculosis sanitarium near Paris, and extensions to the barracks erected by the city of Paris. A comprehensive health centre in a large French Department.

Elaborate arrangements for helping refugee families during the winter with clothing, beds and shelter. For this work, the entire devastated district of France was divided into six districts, with large warehouses in each. In this connection, four devastated villages are being repaired so as to permit families to live in them during the winter. A number of portable houses are also furnished.

Barracks for training disabled soldiers, and experimental agricultural stations for them.

Extensive Belgian relief work, with preparations for helping all those Belgians liberated by each change in the battle-line. Transportation of many Belgian children into places in France where they may be cared for.

In addition to work performed during the war for the soldiers and sailors, their families and injured civilians, the American Red Cross in non-war times performs services of wide-spread value. Perhaps the best-known of these is that for disaster. The Red Cross maintains a permanent staff, with program and facilities for immediate relief in case of sudden accident such as flood, fire, earthquake, epidemic, etc. In peace-times the Red Cross enrolls nurses for special service in case of disaster; and they also render constant service in public health service, rural and small town visiting, etc., while rendering service to the particular organization which employs them. The Red Cross enrolls also volunteer nurses and workers who render nursing service only in time of emergency. In 1908, the Red Cross began the sale of seals at Christmas for the fight against tuberculosis. These seals, known as Christmas Seals and sold at one cent each, in many states provide the chief funds for the work to prevent tuberculosis, outside of the sanatoria. From the beginning of this service in 1908 to 1916, the sale of the Red Cross Christmas seals aggregated more than $4,000,000,000, and in recent years the annual sales have been steadily increasing.

A view of the Red Cross building in Washington, D. C., will be found opposite page 7180.

Red Cross, American National:
Aid furnished Cubans by, discussed, 6284, 6308.
Appeal for support of, 8264, 8417, 8494, 8648.
Assistance in Europe rendered by, 7782.
Doctors in France, view of, opposite 8474.
Relief work of, in Europe referred to, 8901.
School children urged to enroll in, 8358.
Secretaries of, to be sent to Russia, 8592.
Services of, in World War, discussed, 8501.
Work accomplished by, in Spanish-American War, discussed, 6320.

Red Cross Association, international conference of:
Held at Karlsruhe, Baden, referred to, 5205.
Report of, referred to, 4856.

Red Cross, Foreign, report on, 6863.

Red Cross, International, proposition of Switzerland to extend compact of, in Spanish-American War, discussed, 6336.
Listing of alien enemies for, 8274.

Red Cross Week proclaimed, 8264, 8494.

Red-Line Map.—An early map of part of North America, discovered by Jared Sparks in the archives of Paris and sent to Daniel Webster during treaty negotiations with Great Britain over the northeastern boundary question. It had been executed in 1746 by D'Anville, and later (1782) sent to the French minister, Vergennes, by Franklin. A strong red line drawn near the ridge in which the Kennebec and Penobscot rivers rise more than favored the English claims respecting the northeastern boundary of the United States. The map was displayed in a secret session of the Senate and before the Maine commissioners, and was, in part at least, the ground on which the Webster-Ashburton treaty was signed.

Red Mud State.—A nickname for New Jersey (q. v.). (See also States); Dominion State was formerly used as a nickname for New Jersey.

Red River:
Exploration of, 386.
Unsuccessful, 396.
Improvement of, progress made in, 1442.

Red, White and Blue Book: 8282.

Redemptioners.—A name applied to a class of indentured servants who came to the American Colonies under bond for a certain number of years in payment for their passage hither. Many were kidnapped and placed in forced slavery for a term of years. They usually served from four to seven years. On their release these redemptioners were awarded fifty acres of land and became free citizens. The system was introduced into Virginia with the first colony in 1607, and in Massachusetts in 1631. It obtained also in Maryland, New York, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania, but was discontinued in 1750.

Redress of Grievances, right of the people to petition for, shall not be abridged, 28.

Referee Board of Consulting Scientific Experts, Agriculture Department.—This is a Federal board under the jurisdiction of the Department of Agriculture which makes researches on scientific questions involved in the food and drug inspection.

In February, 1908, the Secretary of Agriculture appointed a board headed by President Remsen, of The Johns Hopkins University, as consulting scientific experts of the Department of Agriculture. The appointment was made in response to a request to President Roosevelt by a number of manufacturers of articles of food, who agreed to discontinue the use of sulphur dioxide, saccharin and benzoate of soda in food in case the board found their use harmful.

The report of the Board led the Secretary of Agriculture to find that benzoate of soda might be used for food preservation if the amount used was clearly stated upon the package. As to saccharin, the Board found that 0.3 grams per day or less added to food was not harmful. Conclusions reached with respect to the use of copper salts as coloring matter for vegetables were, on the whole, that the quality and strength of the food were not injuriously affected.

Referee Board of Consulting Scientific Experts, Agriculture Department, services of, discussed, 7818.

Referendum. (See Initiative, Referendum and Recall.)

Reforestation urged, 7465, 7538, 9355. (See also Forests and Arbor Day.)

Reform Schools. (See District of Columbia.)

Reformatories, federal, needed, 9347.

Refunding.—The process of substituting a series of low-interest-bearing bonds for those of a higher rate or for a floating debt not funded. Aug. 31, 1865, the debt of the United States amounted to $2,845,907,626, of which sum only $1,109,568,192 was funded. By December, 1867, the floating debt, compound-interest notes, seven-thirties, and United States notes had been converted into a funded debt of nearly $700,000,000. The refunding act of 1870 authorized the issue of a certain amount of 5, 4½, and 4 per cent bonds to take the place of the existing bonds, most of which were bearing 6 per cent interest. During the next ten years this substitution was carried to an extent that decreased the annual interest charges from $82,000,000 to $62,000,000. In 1881 the annual interest was decreased nearly $20,000,000 more by the Windom refunding scheme, which converted $460,000,000 5 and 6 per cent bonds into bonds bearing 3 and 3½ per cent interest. (See Debt, Public.)

Regiment. (See Army and Navy.)

Register of Debates.—A record of the Congressional debates and proceedings from December, 1824, to October, 1837. It was a continuation of the Annals of Congress and contains many valuable state papers as well as the routine Congressional work. The Register of Debates was succeeded by the Congressional Globe. (See also Annals of Congress; Congressional Globe; Congressional Record.)

Register of the Treasury. (See Treasury Department.)

Registered Mails. (See Division of Registered Mails.)

Registration.—A precaution taken in certain states to prevent frauds in elections. It consists of the preparation of lists of the electors of every precinct, voters being required to present themselves before the registrar on specified days prior to election to have their names recorded and to answer questions as to their qualifications as electors. These lists are open to inspection and scrutiny by the public.

Registration Areas.— The registration area for birth comprises the states of California, Connecticut, Delaware, District of Columbia, Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, Wisconsin and Wyoming. The population of this district is more than 65% of the population of the entire United States and contains 542 of the 746 cities with more than 10,000 inhabitants. It is slightly more urban than rural. (See also Birth Statistics.)

The registration area for deaths is slightly more extensive, comprising thirty-four states. It covers almost 60% of the total land area of the United States and includes within its borders more than 80% of the total population. In addition, it includes certain cities in states which are, themselves, not in the death registration area. (See Death Rate.)

Both the registration area for births and that for deaths are being constantly extended by the accession to them of states not previously included.

Registration Bureau of naturalized citizens, recommended, 4828, 4921, 5090, 5370.

Registration for Draft. (See Draft.)

Registry, American, repeal of law denying, to ships built abroad and owned by Americans, recommended, 5985.

Foreign built ships admitted to, 8006.

Repeal of law, denying to ships built abroad and owned by Americans, recommended, 5985.

Regulators.—In 1768 the people of Orange County, N. C., oppressed by the unjust acts of Edmund Fanning, clerk of the court of Orange, formed an association, headed by

Herman Husbands and William Hunter, for regulating public grievances and abuse of power. They sent messengers to the governor with a statement of their grievances. The governor and council decided that the course of the Regulators tended to high treason, and on their reassembling in July to hear the report of the messengers, the governor, at the head of a body of troops, compelled them to take the oath of allegiance to the Crown and disperse. Some of the leaders of the Regulators were held to answer in the courts for their actions. The following year another petition was rejected. The Regulators offered an organized resistance to the troops, under Governor Tryon, and at Almance, on the Haw River, they were routed by the governor and their leaders arrested. Some of these leaders were executed. Martin, the next governor, compromised with the Regulators.

Relations, Foreign. (See the several powers.)

Relief Party.—A political faction in Kentucky politics between 1820 and 1826. The party was composed of debtors and included a majority of the voters. It advocated relief of delinquent debtors and disputed the constitutionality of the replevin act. In 1823 the Supreme Court decided the replevin act to be unconstitutional and in 1824 the legislature of the state repealed the court of appeals act and organized a new court. The Relief party then became known as the New Court party. The Anti-Relief or Old Court party, securing a majority in the legislature in 1827, restored the old court, and the issue was not renewed.

Religion—

And morality the foundation of the state, 212.

Establishment of, no law respecting shall be made, 28.

Free exercise of, shall never be prohibited, 28.

Test of, shall not be applied as qualification for any office or position of trust, 26.

Religious Bodies.—A recent report of the Census Bureau gives a detailed survey of religious bodies, activities and membership in the United States. The figures concerning members, church edifices, value of church property and Sunday schools are given in the adjoining table.

The average salary paid the ministers was $1,078 annually, as compared with $668 in 1906. The highest average salaries reported were as follows:—Unitarian, $2,080; Jewish, $1,655; Universalist, $1,641; Protestant Episcopal, $1,632; Presbyterian in the United States of America, $1,474.

The average salaries paid ministers in some of the other denominations were as follows:—Baptist, Northern, $1,166; Baptist, Southern, $1,072; Congregational, $1,343; Disciples of Christ, $1,251; Evangelical Association, $853; Friends, Orthodox, $681; German Evangelical, $890; Lutheran—General Synod, $1,120; General Council, $1,316; Synodical Conference, $755.

Methodist Episcopal, $1,223; Methodist Episcopal, South, $832; Presbyterian in the United States, $1,351; United Presbyterian, $1,381; Reformed in America, $1,368; Reformed in the United States, $1,085; Roman Catholic, $838; United Brethren in Christ, $912; United Evangelical, $873.

MINISTERS

The number of ministers reported by the survey was 191,796. The number of ministers in the larger denominations was as follows:

Adventist	1,463
Baptist	49,010
Brethren (Dunkers)	3,626
Christian Church	1,213
Church of Christ	2,507
Congregational	6,040
Disciples Christ	5,938
Evangelical Association	1,051
Friends	1,282
German Evangelical	1,078
Jewish	721
Latter Day Saints	5,990
Lutheran	9,240
Methodist	45,806
Presbyterian	13,602
Protestant Episcopal	5,544
Reformed	2,213
Roman Catholic	20,287
Unitarian	531
United Brethren	2,319
United Evangelical	610
Universalist	561

The total amount contributed for missionary, educational and philanthropic work in the United States for the survey year was as follows:

Home Missions	$18,466,499
Education	17,888,425
Philanthropy	9,661,749
Total	$46,016,673

The denominations contributing more than $1,000,000 each to the above total were as follows:

Baptist, Northern Convention	$6,650,383
Presbyterian Church in U. S. A.	5,761,128
Methodist Episcopal Church	5,646,574
Protestant Episcopal	3,567,248
Baptist, Southern Convention	3,498,961
Methodist Episcopal, South	2,037,847
Roman Catholic Church	1,993,889
Presbyterian Church in U. S.	1,580,441
Congregational Churches	1,206,139
Lutheran, General Council	1,180,746
Lutheran, Synodical Conference	1,111,694
Jewish Congregations	1,100,000
Disciples of Christ	1,076,550
Latter Day Saints	1,074,118

With respect to work in foreign lands, the sum of $16,933,898 was contributed in the report year by the denominations represented. There were supported 9,873 American missionaries, with 52,253 native helpers; 13,911 churches, with 1,687,824 members; 13,653 colleges, academies, schools, etc., with 575,916 students; 791 philanthropic institutions, with 2,218,604 inmates and patients. The value of the property in the foreign work was put at $52,777,299.

The largest contributions for foreign work by denominations were as follows:

Methodist Episcopal Church	$2,941,422
Presbyterian Church in U. S. A.	2,272,950
Baptist, Northern Convention	1,280,509
Roman Catholic Church	1,200,000
Congregational Churches	1,089,098
Methodist Episcopal, South	984,306
Protestant Episcopal Church	822,402
Seventh-Day Adventists	736,046
Presbyterian Church in U. S.	586,544
Disciples of Christ	569,416
Baptist, Southern Convention	529,405

The greatest number of American missionaries in foreign lands by denominations was thus reported: Methodist Episcopal 1,428; Presbyterian in U. S. A., 1,353;

Denomination	Members	Church Edifices	Church Property, Value	Sunday Schools Number	Sunday Schools Pupils
Adventist	109,952	1,649	$ 3,756,565	2,312	95,870
Baptist	7,132,888	51,597	197,915,732	47,512	3,939,503
Northern	1,232,135	8,105	94,644,133	8,188	1,028,952
Southern	2,708,870	19,770	58,348,373	18,162	1,665,996
National (Colored)	2,938,579	20,146	41,184,920	20,099	1,181,270
Brethren, German Baptist (Dunkers)	129,162	1,532	4,887,623	1,472	135,414
Christian Church	118,737	1,171	3,569,471	1,115	91,853
Church of Christ	317,937	4,342	5,644,096	3,441	167,809
Congregational	791,274	5,744	80,842,813	5,804	654,922
Disciples of Christ	1,226,026	6,815	40,327,201	7,706	942,879
Eastern Orthodox (Catholic)	245,444	259	3,540,384	160	8,995
Evangelical Association	120,756	1,582	8,317,978	1,574	172,129
Friends	109,549	901	5,619,093	825	70,879
German Evangelical	339,853	1,267	13,118,273	1,244	145,377
Jewish	357,135*	874	31,012,576	3,528	66,522
Latter Day Saints (Mormons)	462,329	1,287	7,194,797	1,616	181,152
Lutherans	2,439,054	12,552	108,680,807	10,094	991,147
Methodists	7,139,017	61,151	316,510,949	60,623	6,449,211
Methodist Episcopal	3,717,785	28,406	215,104,014	28,580	3,872,264
Meth. Episcopal, South	2,114,479	17,251	62,428,433	16,690	1,688,559
African Meth. Episcopal	548,355	6,302	14,631,792	6,277	311,051
African M. E. Zion	257,169	2,495	7,591,393	2,544	135,102
Colored Meth. Episcopal	245,749	2,490	5,619,862	2,543	167,880
Presbyterian	2,244,565	14,931	191,552,399	15,244	1,936,051
Protestant Episcopal	1,092,821	6,726	164,990,150	5,790	489,036
Reformed	527,971	2,709	40,703,037	2,751	449,787
Roman Catholic	15,721,815	15,120	374,206,895	71,370	1,860,836
Unitarians	82,515	399	15,247,349	334	19,675
United Brethren	367,934	3,624	14,494,975	3,675	426,951
United Evangelical	89,774	905	4,657,893	944	129,453
Universalists	58,566	620	7,876,103	467	33,272
Grand Total	41,926,854	203,432	$1,676,600,582	194,759	19,935,890

*The number of Jews, irrespective of synagogue membership, in the United States is estimated at 3,500,000.

Latter Day Saints (Mormons), 1,183; Seventh Day Adventist, 880; Baptist, Northern, 688; Congregational, 661; Methodist Episcopal South, 382; Presbyterian in U. S., 377; Protestant Episcopal, 346; Baptist, Southern, 307; Dicipies of Christ, 278; Christian and Missionary Alliance, 273.

Of the total reported church membership of 41,926,854, the number 13 years of age and over was 36,561,720. Of the number reported by sex, 35,644,162, the number of males was 15,653,958, or 43.9%; and the number of females was 19,990,204, or 56.1%. The only principal denominations showing more men than women members were the Jewish and the Eastern Orthodox Congregations.

The total religious membership of the world has been estimated at 1,692,158,000. Of this estimate, 576,000,000 are Christians and 1,116,158,000 non-Christians.

Of the Christians, it is estimated that 288,000,000 are Roman Catholics, 121,000,000 Greek Catholics and 167,000,000 Protestants. The number of Jews is put at 15,000,000.

Of the non-Christians, it is estimated that 227,040,000 are Mohammedans, 311,000,000 are Confucianists and Taoists, 215,500,000 are Hindus, 160,000,000 are Animists, 140,000,000 are Buddhists.

Religious Establishments:

Baptist church in Mississippi Territory, act for relief of, vetoed, 475.

Protestant church at American embassy at Rome, removal of, referred to, 3662, 3717.

Protestant Episcopal church in Alexandria, Va., act incorporating, vetoed, 474.

Separation of church and state, recommendation to declare, 4310.

Value of church property, discussed and taxation of, recommended, 4288, 4310.

Religious Freedom.—The First Amendment to the Constitution of the United States (q. v.) requires that "Congress shall make no law respecting the establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." Religious freedom doubtless had its greatest inspiration from James Madison while he was in the Virginia Legislature. An attempt was made to levy a tax upon the people of that state "for the support of teachers of the Christian religion." Madison wrote what he called a "Memorial and Remonstrance," in which he appealed to the people against the evil tendency of such a precedent, and which convinced people that Madison was right. A bill was passed providing "that no man shall be compelled to frequent or support any religious worship, place, or ministry whatsoever * * * nor shall suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men shall be free to profess, and, by argument, maintain their opinions in matters of religion, and that the same shall in nowise diminish, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities." The religious tests to which many of the states put their office-holders were gradually abandoned, and the final separation of church and state in America came in 1833, when Massachusetts discontinued the custom of paying preachers.

Religious Test. (See Religious Freedom.)

Removals from Office.—The Constitution gives the President power to make appointments to civil office by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, but is silent on the subject of removals. Debate on this point arose in Congress in 1789, and it was concluded to allow the power of removal to rest with the President alone. This continued to be the policy of the Government until 1867. In this year charges were preferred in the House of Representatives against President Johnson, alleging corrupt use of the appointing, pardoning, and veto powers, corrupt disposition of public property, and interference in elections. The charges were referred to the Judiciary Committee and a bill was prepared and passed over the President's veto providing that, with certain exceptions, every officer appointed by the President with the concurrence of the Senate should retain his office until a successor should in like manner be appointed. This is known as the Tenure-of-Office Act (q. v.). Johnson's suspension of Secretary Stanton in violation of this act led to his impeachment in 1868. The law was repealed in 1887.

In 1920 President Wilson vetoed an act of Congress on the ground that it gave Congress the power to remove officers appointed by the President. (See page 8852.)

Removals from Office (see also Executive Nominations):
- Act regulating tenure of certain civil offices, vetoed. (See Tenure-of-Office Act.)
- Discretionary authority of President regarding, discussed by President—
  - Cleveland, 4960.
  - Grant, 3992.
  - Jackson, 1351.
  - Johnson, 3690, 3767, 3820.
  - Tyler, 1905, 1941.
- For partisan purposes, discouraged, 1941.
- Partisan interference in elections cause of removal, 1905.
- Presidential appointees should be removable by President, not Congress, 8852.
- Referred to, 1796, 1911, 1912.
- Resolution of Senate regarding, and reply of President Hayes, 4433.

Remsen Board. (See Referee Board of Consulting Scientific Experts.)

Reparations Commission of Peace Treaty with Germany, German bonds to be handled by, 8913. (See also Peace Treaty and League of Nations.)

Representatives.—The constitutional designation of the members of the House of Representatives. They are elected by direct vote of the people, in representative districts fixed by state law, according to the apportionment made every ten years by Congress as to the quota of each state. Representatives must be at least twenty-five years of age, residents of the state in which chosen, and citizens of the United States for seven years previous to their election. (See also Congress; Apportionment; and House of Representatives.)

Representatives:
- Appointment of, by President in whose election they have been officially concerned, discussed, 1011, 1120.
- Appointments office, relation to of, to. (See Executive Nominations.)
- Apportionment of—
  - According to census of 1890 necessary, 5553.
  - Bill for—
    - Approved and reasons therefor, 2012.
    - Vetoed, 116.
  - Delay in making, referred to, 2681.
- Election of—
  - Federal supervision of, recommended, 5490, 5562, 5766.
  - Gerrymander, discussed, 5643.
  - Law appointing day for, recommended, 3103, 3181.
- List of, appointed to office, referred to, 591, 911, 1196, 2360.
- Loyal Senators and, denied admission to seats in Congress, discussed, 3644.
- President declines to give names of, applying for office, 1958.

Representatives-at-Large. — Representatives in Congress elected on general tickets, as distinguished from those elected on district tickets, in cases where the state has failed to redistrict after it has become entitled to additional representation in Congress. (See Apportionment; House of Representatives.)

Representatives, House of. (See Congress.)

Republic, Grand Army of the. (See Grand Army of the Republic.)

Republican Party.—In the early days of the Republic Thomas Jefferson became the leader of a party opposed to the monarchical ideas of the Federalists. This party was first known as the Democratic-Republican, and the adherents were called both Democrats and Republicans, usually the latter, until the Jackson-Adams contest.

The Republican party of later days was formed in 1854, with opposition to slavery as its chief tenet. The compromise of 1850 (q. v.) had disrupted the Whig party. The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska act materially influenced the general coalition that followed of Whigs, Free-Soilers, Abolitionists, and Know-Nothings. They assumed the name of Republicans and at once won a plurality in the House of Representatives. They held their first national convention in Philadelphia in 1856, and nominated Fremont and Dayton for President and Vice-President. At the election which followed they were defeated, but in 1859 again came into control of the House.

In 1860 they elected Mr. Lincoln to the Presidency. For the next fourteen years the party was supreme. It enlarged the powers of Congress by a broad construction of the Constitution, carried on the Civil War, abolished slavery, reconstructed the governments of the seceding states, maintained a protective tariff, and refunded the national debt. The party nominees during this period were: 1860, Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, and Hannibal Hamlin,

of Maine; 1864, Abraham Lincoln, of Illinois, and Andrew Johnson, of Tennessee (Johnson becoming President on the death of Lincoln); 1868, Ulysses S. Grant, of Illinois, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana; 1872, Ulysses S. Grant, of Illinois, and Henry Wilson, of Massachusetts.

In 1872 those who opposed General Grant's administration left the party and formed the Liberal Republican party (q. v.). In 1874 the party lost control of the House of Representatives and did not regain it until 1880. In 1876 it elected Rutherford B. Hayes, of Ohio, and William A. Wheeler, of New York (see Electoral Commission). In 1880 James A. Garfield, of Ohio, and Chester A. Arthur, of New York, were elected (Arthur becoming President on the death of Garfield), but the party lost control of the House in 1882.

In 1884 James G. Blaine, of Maine, and John A. Logan, of Illinois, were defeated, but the party retained control of the Senate. In 1888 Benjamin Harrison, of Indiana, and Levi P. Morton, of New York, were the candidates and were successful on a tariff issue. The party also regained control of the House in that year. Dissatisfaction with the McKinley tariff law led to the loss of the House by the Republicans in 1890, and in the Presidential campaign of 1892 President Harrison (Whitelaw Reid, of New York, being the Vice-Presidential candidate) was defeated for re-election, and the party lost control of the Senate. In 1894 the Republicans again regained control of the House.

In 1890 the free coinage of silver appeared as an issue and the platform of the Republican convention at St. Louis declared against free coinage "except by international agreement with the leading commercial nations of the world" and favored the gold standard "until such agreement could be obtained." As a result of this opposition to the gold standard many western Republicans left the party and supported William J. Bryan, the Democratic candidate. The Republicans were successful, however, William McKinley, of Ohio, and Garret A. Hobart, of New Jersey, being elected, their popular vote being 7,111,607 and the electoral vote 271.

In 1900 the issues were "imperialism" (defined by the Democrats as the tendency of the Republic, under Republican rule, to move away from the old democratic practices and beliefs), silver, the tariff and trusts. The Republicans were again successful, William McKinley, of Ohio, and Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, being elected, receiving 7,208,244 popular votes and 292 electoral votes. President McKinley was assassinated Sept. 6, 1901, and died on the 14th of that month. Theodore Roosevelt then succeeded to the Presidency.

During the administration of McKinley and Roosevelt the party passed the Dingley tariff law on protective lines (see Tariff); the Spanish War was carried to a successful conclusion; the rebellion in the Philippines extinguished and the islands given a stable civil government; Hawaii was annexed; and a currency bill establishing the gold standard was passed. During this administration also our new possessions in the far East brought the United States into the group of world powers.

In 1904 there were no well defined issues, the silver and tariff questions being in abeyance. The Republican candidates, Theodore Roosevelt, of New York, and Charles W. Fairbanks, of Indiana, were successful, the popular vote being 7,624,982 and the electoral vote 336.

Besides the suppression of slavery the Republican party has favored full citizenship to emancipated slaves, prompt payment of the national debt, tariff for protection as well as revenue, free ballot, generous pension legislation, increase of the Navy and the strengthening of the coast defenses, a system of national bank currency based on United States bonds deposited with the Secretary of the Treasury, a national circulating medium based on a gold standard, a vigorous foreign policy, a liberal interpretation of the Monroe Doctrine, national protection of timber, encouragement of irrigation, and the building of the Panama Canal by the United States.

In 1908 the National convention was held at Chicago, June 16 to 19. William H. Taft, of Ohio, was nominated for President, and James S. Sherman, of New York, for Vice-President. The platform adopted declared in favor of equality of opportunity; revision of the tariff; a more elastic currency; the establishment of postal savings banks; an employers' liability law; amending the rules of procedure in Federal courts; conserving the natural resources of the country; the extension of foreign commerce, etc. Taft and Sherman received a plurality of 1,233,494 of the popular vote and a majority in the electoral college of 269.

The national convention of the party met in Chicago in June, 1912, and nominated President Taft for President and James S. Sherman for Vice-President. The platform adopted declared in favor of upholding the courts, for sound banking laws and the usual declaration in favor of the tariff. By the defection of ex-President Roosevelt and his followers, who formed the Progressive party, the Republican ticket was defeated in 1912, and a Democratic President and Congress were elected. The popular vote for President was: Taft, 3,484,956; Roosevelt, 4,119,507; Wilson, Dem., 6,293,019. The electoral vote stood: Wilson, 435; Roosevelt, 88; Taft, 8.

The 1916 convention met in Chicago in June, and after conferences with the Progressive party, which met at the same time in the same city, Mr. Roosevelt's name was rejected and Supreme Court Justice Charles E. Hughes was nominated to head the national ticket, and Charles W. Fairbanks was named for vice president. The platform advocated woman suffrage, but by state action; and reaffirmed the Republican principles of a protective tariff. The campaign was fought chiefly in opposition to President Wilson's foreign policy, Mr. Hughes demanding firmer action with respect to violation of American rights by Germany and in Mexico. The passage of the law fixing eight hours as the normal day's labor on the railroads was also condemned in the campaign as a surrender to the labor unions. The Republican Party lost the election by an extremely narrow margin.

In the national elections of 1918, despite President Wilson's request to the electorate for the election of Democratic candidates in order to unify his administration's prosecution of the war against the Central Powers and his peace program (see page 8628), the Republicans gained control of both houses of Congress. In 1920, Senator Warren G. Harding, of Ohio, was nominated for the Presidency after ten ballots by the national convention in Chicago as a compromise candidate, after it was seen that none of the three candidates most prominent in the pre-convention campaign, Governor Lowden, of Illinois; Major-General Leonard

Wood; and Senator Hiram Johnson, of California, could be nominated. Governor Calvin Coolidge, of Massachusetts, was nominated for Vice-President. The platform denounced the Covenant of the League of Nations as submitted to the Senate by President Wilson, and the campaign was fought largely on that issue. However, pronounced dissatisfaction with the Democratic administration on many grounds was the prime cause of the overwhelming Republican victory in the elections of November, 1920.

For the record of the Republican Party in Presidential elections, see Presidential Elections.

Republican Party:
Defeat of, in 1918 elections asked, 8628.
Failure, practical and moral, of, charged, 8150.
Old ideas dominate, 8025, 8029.
Record of, denounced, 8025.
Solidarity of, necessary, 7405.

Republican River, bridge over, reconstruction of, recommended, 4777.

Republican Valley Railroad, right of way across Otoe and Missouria Reservation, Nebr., for, bill for, 4681.

Repudiation.—The refusal of a state or government to pay or to be bound by debts contracted by a previous administration. In 1790 the debts of all the states of the Union were assumed by the National Government, partly on the ground of justice, because they had been contracted in the prosecution of the Revolutionary War, and partly on the ground of expediency, as this action tended to strengthen the credit of the states. For forty years thereafter the states remained almost free from debt. Bonds of the several states were easily disposed of abroad, and by 1840 an aggregate of $200,000,000 had been sold. In that year Indiana found it impossible to pay the interest on her outstanding bonds, and it was only by strong efforts that Ohio managed to meet her obligations. In 1842 the Bank of Pennsylvania failed, and soon afterwards Pennsylvania, Maryland, Mississippi, Michigan, Louisiana, Indiana, and Illinois found themselves almost bankrupt. They all suspended payment of interest on their debts, but Mississippi, Michigan, Louisiana, and North Carolina felt constrained to repudiate the capital as well as interest.

It was in Mississippi that the word "repudiation" originated in this connection. Governor McNutt, in a message to the legislature, suggested a plan for "repudiating the sale of certain of the state bonds on account of fraud and illegality." The bonds fell into default and an appropriation for their payment was overwhelmingly defeated at the polls in 1852. Michigan repudiated certain canal bonds. The southern states came out of the Civil War with heavy indebtedness and diminished resources, and were in some instances almost bankrupt. In the years immediately following the close of the Civil War most of the southern states compromised or readjusted their bonded indebtedness, and in some states the legislature declared certain bonds fraudulent, illegal, and void. During the depression following the panic of 1873 some cities, towns, and countries endeavored to repudiate their bonds, but the Supreme Court of the United States gave judgments against them.

The eleventh amendment forbids suits against the states. In 1903 certain of the repudiated bonds of North Carolina came into the possession of the State of North Dakota, and North Carolina was sued in the Supreme Court by the latter State for payment. The Supreme Court, by a decision of Feb. 1, 1904, held that North Carolina was liable for and must pay both principal and interest on the bonds in question. Some European countries have also at times repudiated their obligations.

Requisitioning of foods and feeds, provision for, 8376. (See also Food Administration and Food Control Law.)

Requisitions.—Under the Articles of Confederation the Continental Congress had only one means of raising money—by requisitions upon the states. Between 1782 and 1786 requisitions amounting to more than $6,000,000 had been made. Only one-sixth of this had been paid by March, 1787. Under the Constitution the President may make requisitions upon the state for men to assist the National Government in time of war, but there is no provision for requisitions of money. Instead that instrument provides for the expenditures of the Government by duties on imports and taxes collected from the citizens.

Resaca de la Palma (Tex.), Battle of.—On May 9, 1846, the day following the battle of Palo Alto, Gen. Taylor's army of 2,200 proceeded on the way toward Fort Brown. When about three miles from the Rio Grande River, Arista's army of 5,000, which had been slowly retreating before the advancing Americans, halted in the valley of Resaca de la Palma (dry river bed of the palm) and prepared to give battle. At 3 o'clock in the afternoon the action began. Before dark the Mexicans were completely routed. They fled in disorder across the river to Matamoras. Eight pieces of artillery, large quantities of ammunition, 3 standards, and about 100 prisoners, including Gen. La Vega and other officers, fell into the hands of the Americans. The total casualties in the Mexican army were 755. The American loss was 107.

Resaca de la Palma, Tex., battle of, referred to, 2295, 2300, 2342.

Research Council, National. (See National Research Council.)

Reservation, Public:
Discussed 6346.
Lands set apart as, by proclamation of President—
Cleveland, 5859, 5864, 6122, 6205, 6207, 6209, 6211, 6213, 6215, 6216, 6218, 6219, 6221, 6222, 6225, 6227.
Harrison, Benj., 5577, 5590, 5595, 5686, 5695, 5705, 5719, 5722, 5786, 5792, 5795, 5797, 5804, 5810, 5811, 5814, 5815.

Reservations. (See Indian Reservations; Lands, Indian; Military Reservations; Reservations, Public; Washington City.)

Reserve Banking System.—The banking and currency law, known as Federal Reserve Act, was approved on December 23, 1913. The Federal Reserve Board established by the Act took the oath of office on August 10, 1914, and the Federal Reserve System began officially to function in November, 1914.

Under the provision of the Act, there are established twelve federal reserve districts, as follows:

Federal Reserve Districts.—No. 1.—Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. Federal Reserve City, Boston, Mass.

No. 2.—The State of New York. Federal Reserve City, New York.

No. 3.—New Jersey and Delaware; all that part of Pennsylvania east of the western boundary of McKean, Elk, Clearfield, Cambria, and Bedford Counties. Federal Reserve City, Philadelphia, Pa.

No. 4.—Ohio; all that part of Pennsylvania west of district No. 3; Marshall, Ohio, Brooke, and Hancock Counties, W. Va.; all that part of Kentucky east of the western boundary of Boone, Grant, Scott, Woodford, Jessamine, Garrard, Lincoln, Pulaski, and McCreary Counties. Federal Reserve City, Cleveland, Ohio.

No. 5.—District of Columbia, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, and South Carolina; all of West Virginia except Marshall, Ohio, Brooke, and Hancock Counties. Federal Reserve City, Richmond, Va.

No. 6.—Alabama, Georgia, and Florida; all that part of Tennessee east of the western boundary of Stewart, Houston, Wayne, Humphreys, and Perry Counties; all that part of Mississippi south of the northern boundary of Issaquena, Sharkey, Yazoo, Kemper, Madison, Leake, and Neshoba Counties; all of the southeastern part of Louisiana east of the western boundary of Pointe Coupee, Iberville, Assumption, and Terrebonne Parishes. Federal Reserve City, Atlanta, Ga.

No. 7.—Iowa; all that part of Wisconsin south of the northern boundary of Vernon, Sauk, Columbia, Dodge, Washington, and Ozaukee Counties; all of the southern peninsula of Michigan, viz., that part east of Lake Michigan; all that part of Illinois north of the southern boundary of Hancock, Schuyler, Cass, Sangamon, Christian, Shelby, Cumberland, and Clark Counties; all that part of Indiana north of the southern boundary of Vigo, Clay, Owen, Monroe, Brown, Bartholomew, Jennings, Ripley, and Ohio Counties. Federal Reserve City, Chicago, Ill.

No. 8.—Arkansas; all that part of Missouri east of the western boundary of Harrison, Daviess, Caldwell, Ray, Lafayette, Johnson, Henry, St. Clair, Cedar, Dade, Lawrence, and Barry Counties; all that part of Illinois and Indiana not included in district No. 7; all that part of Kentucky not included in district No. 4; all that part of Tennessee and Mississippi not included in district No. 6. Federal Reserve City, St. Louis, Mo.

No. 9.—Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Minnesota; all that part of Wisconsin and Michigan not included in district No. 7. Federal Reserve City, Minneapolis, Minn.

No. 10.—Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, and Wyoming; all that part of Missouri not included in district No. 8; all that part of Oklahoma north of the southern boundary of Ellis, Dewey, Blaine, Canadian, Cleveland, Pottawatomie, Seminole, Okfuskee, McIntosh, Muskogee, and Sequoyah Counties; all that part of New Mexico north of the southern boundary of McKinley, Sandoval, Santa Fe, San Miguel, and Union Counties. Federal Reserve City, Kansas City, Mo.

No. 11.—Texas; all that part of New Mexico and Oklahoma not included in district No. 10; all that part of Louisiana not included in district No. 6; and Pima Graham, Greenlee, Cochise, and Santa Cruz Counties, Ariz. Federal Reserve City, Dallas, Tex.

No. 12.—California, Washington, Oregon, Idaho, Nevada, and Utah; all that part of Arizona not included in district No. 11. Federal Reserve City, San Francisco, Cal.

Branch of District No. 2 at Buffalo.

Branches of District No. 4 at Cincinnati and Pittsburgh.

Branch of District No. 5 at Baltimore.

Branches of District No. 6 at Jacksonville, Birmingham and Nashville.

Branch of District No. 7 at Detroit.

Branches of District No. 8 at Louisville, Memphis and Little Rock.

Branches of District No. 10 at Omaha, Denver and Oklahoma City.

Branches of District No. 11 at El Paso and Houston.

Branches of District No. 12 at Spokane, Portland, Seattle, Salt Lake City and Los Angeles.

Every National bank is required to become a stockholder in the Federal Reserve bank of the district in which it is situated, and any state bank or trust company which complies with certain specified requirements is permitted to become a member bank.

The following table shows the status of Federal Reserve notes at a recent date:

On hand	$ 798,457,000
Outstanding	3,348,473,000
Gold cover for notes issued	1,234,181,000
Paper collateral for above	2,512,232,000
Actually in circulation	3,051,706,000

The following table shows the resources and liabilities of the Federal Reserve Banks as given by a recent statement:

RESOURCES:	
Gold held	$ 747,439,000
Gold with Fed. Res. agents	1,234,181,000
Gold redemption fund	158,693,000
Legal tender notes, silver, etc.	216,686,000
Total reserves	$2,356,999,000
Bills Discounted:	
Secured by Government obligations	1,003,975,000
All Other	1,392,279,000
Bills bought in open market	170,503,000
U. S. Government Bonds	25,849,000
U. S. Victory Notes	19,000
U. S. certificates indebtedness	261,510,000
Total earning assets	$2,854,135,000
Bank premises	19,469,000
Uncollected items and other deductions from deposits	607,422,000
5% redemption fund against Fed. Res. Bank Notes	12,159,000
All other resources	10,917,000
Total resources	$5,861,101,000
LIABILITIES:	
Capital paid in	$ 100,790,000
Surplus fund	202,036,000
Government deposits	62,984,000
Due members, reserve account	1,722,919,000
Deferred availability items	469,811,000
Other deposits, inc., foreign government credits	23,305,000
Total gross deposits	$2,279,019,000
Fed. Res. notes in circulation	3,051,706,000
Fed. Res. Bank notes in circulation, net liability	189,325,000
All other liabilities	38,225,000
Total liabilities	$5,861,101,000

According to the Act of December 23, 1913, as later amended, the Federal Reserve Board has the power, among other things: To examine Federal Reserve Banks and Member Banks. To permit or require Federal Reserve Banks to rediscount paper of other Federal Reserve Banks at rates to be fixed by this Board. To suspend for stated periods reserve requirements and to establish a tax on decreasing reserves. To regulate the issue of notes. To suspend or remove officials of Federal Reserve Banks. To require writing off doubtful assets of Federal Reserve Banks. To exercise functions of Clearing House for Federal Reserve Banks, or may designate Federal Reserve Banks to do the same, or may require each Federal Reserve Bank so to act for its Member Banks. To exercise general supervision over Federal Reserve Banks. To define character of bills eligible for discount, rediscount, purchase and sale by Federal Reserve Banks, and to limit and regulate rediscounts and acceptances. To establish rate of interest to be charged Federal Reserve Banks on amount of Federal Reserve notes outstanding, less amount of gold or gold certificates held by Federal Reserve Agent as collateral security. To fix the charges to be collected by Member Banks for checks cleared through Federal Reserve Banks.

The following table shows the bills discounted by the Federal Reserve Banks during a recent year:

Reserve Bank	*Amount*
Boston	$ 4,675,398,246
New York	42,449,491,134
Philadelphia	10,736,435,271
Cleveland	3,125,856,369
Richmond	4,130,942,909
Atlanta	2,005,777,582
Chicago	4,556,312,145
St. Louis	2,100,630,596
Minneapolis	661,520,379
Kansas City	1,555,596,623
Dallas	1,224,946,145
San Francisco	1,951,062,331
Total bills discounted	$79,173,969,730
For National Banks	63,618,672,593
For State Banks and Trust Companies	15,555,297,137
Average maturity in days of all paper purchased	50.45
Number of banks accommodated by discount of paper	5,993

The following table shows the membership of state banks and trust companies in the Federal Reserve Banking System at a recent date:

Number	1,181
Capital	$ 421,653,766
Surplus	447,553,603
Total Resources	9,608,710,574

The following table shows the number of the national banks which were members of the Federal Reserve System at a recent date:

Number	7,780
Capital and surplus	$ 1,989,597,000
Aggregate resources	20,791,147,000

At a recent date, there were 16,982 banks in the United States eligible for membership in the system. Of these, 8,822 were members and 8,160 were non-members. But the member banks had 72% of the capital and surplus of all the banks eligible for membership, and 77½% of the aggregate resources.

All the banks in the United States, exclusive of savings and private banks, had a total capital and surplus of $4,158,531,000. Of this sum $2,782,508,000, or 67%, was represented by banks in the Federal Reserve System. All the banks had aggregate resources of $40,452,749,000. Of this sum, $29,243,729,000, or 72¼%, was represented by banks in the System.

The most recent available statistics give the condition of the several federal reserve banks as follows:

District No.	*Number Member Banks*	*Paid-In Capital*	*Resources and Liabilities*
1	398	$102,806,000	$1,456,574,000
2	650	241,011,000	5,687,304,000
3	652	87,321,000	1,747,764,000
4	762	130,097,000	2,163 459,000
5	553	87,248,000	1,232,129,000
6	376	54,298,000	743,621,000
7	1061	174,162,000	2,646,506,000
8	480	65,166,000	846,170,000
9	883	65,427,000	976,039,000
10	1023	87,407,000	1,366,349,000
11	655	71,757,000	881,391,000
12	632	104,841,000	1,610,098,000

Reserve Banking System:
Act establishing—
Effect of, 8026.
Elasticity of currency established by, 8151.
Bills guaranteed by war obligations held by, decrease in, 8884.
State banks requested to join, 8374.
Reserve Officers' Training Camps. (See Army.)
Resolute, The, restoration of, to British Government, discussed, 2953.
Resources, Natural. (See Conservation and Natural Resources.)
Restoration of Southern States (see also Reconstruction):
Acts regarding, vetoed. (See Reconstruction.)
Discussed by President Johnson, 3551, 3570, 3593, 3643, 3696, 3729, 3734, 3756, 3781, 3846, 3848, 3870.
Provisional governor appointed for—
Alabama, 3521.
Florida, 3527.
Georgia, 3516.
Mississippi, 3512.
North Carolina, 3510.
South Carolina, 3524.
Texas, 3519.

Restraint of Trade.—Conduct in the industrial or commercial world which is calculated to diminish the sum-total of trade, or to prevent freedom of trade by all persons desiring to engage in it. The restraint is effected by monopoly or by action tending to monopoly. (See Anti-trust Law; Clayton Act; Trade Commission; Interstate Commerce.)

Restraint of Trade:
Combinations in, 7078.
Legality of, dependent upon extent of monopoly and methods, 7450.
(See also Anti-trust Law; Clayton Law; Trade Commission; Interstate Commerce.)

Resumption. (See Specie Payments.)

Retroactive.—Imposing a punishment for an act performed prior to the passage of the law. A retroactive law, while permissible as to civil conduct, is inhibited by the Constitution as to criminal conduct. (See Ex Post Facto.)

Returning Boards.—Boards established in certain states for the purpose of canvassing the returns of an election. The reconstructed state governments of South Carolina, Florida, and Louisiana, created by statute returning boards to canvass and certify to the returns of elections held in those states. In violation of the generally accepted principle of state government, these returning boards were clothed with judicial as well as ministerial powers. This subject is of interest chiefly in relation to the Presidential election of 1876, in which the result depended upon the action of these boards.

Réunion—An island in the Indian Ocean about 420 miles east of Madagascar, sometimes called Bourbon. It is a French possession. Its area is 970 square miles and its population, mostly European, is 160,000. The chief towns are St. Denis, St. Pierre, St. Paul and St. Louis. The principal port is Pointe des Galets. The chief products are sugar, rum, coffee, tapioca, vanilla and spices. Latest figures show annual imports of $6,000,000 and exports of $5,600,000.

Revenue Cutter.—A small armed vessel owned and used by the Government to enforce customs regulations.

Revenue-Cutter Service.—The Revenue-Cutter Service is a military arm of the Government attached to and under the direction of the Treasury Department. The Service was organized in 1790 and constituted the original naval force of the country. There being at that time no Navy Department, the Service was placed under the Treasury Department, where it has remained ever since. It is charged with the enforcement of the navigation and customs laws of the United States, the assistance of vessels in distress, the protection of the sealing industry in Alaska, the enforcement of the quarantine laws, the destruction of derelicts and other floating dangers to navigation, and numerous other duties appropriate to its class of vessels. Each winter, by direction of the president, a number of the cutters patrol the coast for the special purpose of assisting vessels in distress. The Service cooperates with the Navy when directed by the president and has so cooperated in every war in which the United States has been engaged.

In January, 1915, the Revenue Cutter Service was combined with the Life-Saving Service to form the Coast Guard. (See Coast Guard.)

Revenue-Cutter Service:

Abolition of, urged, 7740.

Act relating to revenue cutters and steamers vetoed, 2219.

Land reserved for use of, 6701.

Organization of, 1088.

Retirement of officers in, 6708.

Steam vessels in, employment of, recommended, 1121.

(See also Treasury, Department of.)

Revenue Flag.—The last act of the Fourth Congress, March 2, 1799, was to pass a law to regulate the collection of duties and tonnage and to establish ports of entry. In order that the vessels of the collection officers might be easily recognized, Congress ordered that vessels in the revenue service carry a flag of sixteen perpendicular stripes, alternate red and white, the union of the ensign bearing the arms of the United States in dark blue on a white field beneath a semicircle of thirteen blue stars.

Revenue Inspectors, salary of, 127.

Revenue Officers, official conduct of, referred to, 912.

Revenue, Public.—In a political sense the revenue of a state is the annual income derived from taxation, customs, and other sources, to be appropriated to governmental expenditures. The principal sources of revenue of the United States are customs, internal revenue, sale of public lands, and miscellaneous receipts. Customs receipts have always formed the bulk of the revenue. In 1789 the total revenues of the Government amounted to $4,410,000. This total gradually swelled to $56,000,000 in 1860. Then the increased duties of all kinds, imposed as war measures, augmented the revenues to hundreds of millions, reaching the maximum of $520,000,000 in 1866. Then it declined to an average of about $350,000,000 between 1878 and 1898. In 1901 the revenue, increased by a Spanish-American War tax, was $587,685,338.

The table below gives the total ordinary receipts of the United States for some significant years. In recent years, the most prolific source of receipts has been in internal revenue, especially income taxes, corporation taxes and excess and war profits taxes. In comparison with the figures below, the reader should consult the tables under Expenditures, Finance, Internal Revenue, Income Tax, Corporation Tax, Excise Tax, Taxation, Currency, Tariff:

Year	*Tariff*	*Internal Revenue*	*Total*
1792..	$ 3,443,071	$ 208,943	$ 3,669,960
1800..	9,080,933	809,397	10,848,749
1820..	15,005,612	106,261	17,840,670
1840..	13,499,502	1,682	19,480,115
1860..	53,187,512	.....	56,054,600
1865 .	84,928,261	209,464,215	327,283,519
1870..	194,538,374	184,899,756	411,253,971
1880..	186,522,065	124,009,374	333,526,503
1890..	229,668,585	142,606,706	403,080,982
1900..	233,164,871	295,327,927	567,240,859
1905..	261,798,857	234,095,741	544,606,755
1910..	333,683,445	289,933,519	675,511,710
1913..	308,891,396	344,416,966	724,111,238
1915..	209,786,672	415,669,646	697,910,821
1916..	213,185,846	512,702,029	779,664,556
1917..	225,962,393	809,366,208	1,118,174,122
1918..	182,758,989	3,696,043,485	4,174,010,582
1919..	183,428,625	3,840,230,995	4,647,603,856
1920*	322,902,649	5,408,075,468	.....

*Subject to revision.

For details of the various sources of revenue comprised under Internal Revenue above for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1919, see Internal Revenue.

Revenue, Public (see also Tariff; Finances; Import Duties; Taxation):

Act—

Designating and limiting funds receivable for, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 1501.

To provide for collection, safe-

keeping, and distribution of, by fiscal corporation vetoed, 1921.
Additional $100,000,000 needed, 7981.
By direct taxation, 205, 268.
Collection and disbursement of, free from defalcation, discussed, 5542, 5746.
Custody and distribution of, discussed by President—
Polk, 2352, 2406, 2498.
Tyler, 1896, 1937.
Van Buren, 1541, 1596, 1707, 1757, 1827.
Decrease in, announced, 7980.
Deposits of, in banks referred to, 1916.
Derived from public lands. (See Lands, Public.)
Diminution of, 461, 480, 675, 923.
Disbursements of, referred to, 1810.
Discussed. (See Finances Discussed.)
Duties for raising. (See Import Duties.)
Embezzlement of, referred to, 2212. (See also Defalcation.)
Expenses incurred in collection of, referred to, 2563.
Frauds in, discussed, 989, 4797.
Insufficient for authorized expenditures, 7370, 7379.
Laws for raising. (See also Import Duties.)
Abuses of, referred to, 1016.
Alterations in, 142, 8111.
Codification of, recommended, 4201.
Complaints of Spain and Portugal against, referred to, 1956.
Improvement in, recommended, 925, 1016, 8111.
Judicial construction of, injurious, 1788.
Opposition to, from—
Pennsylvania. (See Pennsylvania.)
South Carolina. (See South Carolina.)
Southern States. (See Civil War.)
Revision of, recommended, 3773.
System of, satisfactory, 75, 79.
Measures to provide additional, urged, 7980, 8111.
Needs of nation should determine, 6654.
Only enough should be collected to meet wants of Government, 1464.
Per centum allowed public officers for disbursement of, referred to, 1727.
Policy of Mexico in exempting from duty imports into territory on borders of United States. (See *Zona Libre.*)
Referred to, 3902.
Sources of, discussed, 8112.
Statistics in six years of President Roosevelt's administration, 7082.
Suits growing out of, discussed and recommendations regarding, 5098.
Surplus of—
Application of, to—
Educational purposes and internal improvements recommended, 397, 444.
Navy and national works recommended, 1380.
Purchase of Government bonds recommended, 3985.
Apportionment of, among States. (See States of the Union.)
Discussed by President—
Arthur, 4635, 4721.
Cleveland, 5093, 5165, 5361, 5372.
Fillmore, 2660, 2714.
Grant, 3985.
Harrison, Benj., 5473, 5549, 5630.
Jackson, 1014, 1077, 1380, 1458.
Jefferson, 397, 444.
Pierce, 2747, 2818.
Van Buren, 1707.
Joint resolution directing payment of Treasury surplus on public Debt, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 5073.
Proposition to deposit in banks throughout country discussed, 5168.
System of—
Changes made in, productive of good results, 1247.
Evil effects of, discussed, 1459.
Tariff for raising. (See Import Duties.)
Revere's Ride, Paul. (See "Midnight Ride of Paul Revere.")
Revised Statutes:
Appointment of commission to prepare, recommended, 2671, 2714.
Preparation of, and recommendations regarding, 3250.
Referred to, 4687, 8860.

Revivals.—The term "religious revival" may be used to describe a far-reaching religious movement like the Protestant Reformation; but its usage to describe an occasional religious activity dates from the early eighteenth century in England. In 1734, Jonathan Edwards is said to have converted 300 persons at Northampton; and in the American colonies a period of religious re-stimulation called the "Great Awakening" occurred in 1740-2. (From this movement grew Princeton College.) The Wesleyan movement in England slightly before, however, had more permanent results, represented today by the various Methodist sects.

During the first half of the nineteenth century occurred another period of religious enthusiasm in the United States, marked definitely by series of meetings to arouse and to organize it. Many churches even came to rely for their strength upon such meetings, or "revivals." Eloquent exhorters

went from one place to another, preaching the Gospel and calling upon sinners to repent, often conducting a revivalist campaign of some length.

In the southwest, and especially in Kentucky and Tennessee, the revivals at the beginning of the nineteenth century were often conducted in the open air, because of the primitive facilities available in these sections at that time. Accordingly the practise of holding revivals in tents or even in especially constructed tabernacles became a fixed feature of American life.

The most famous American evangelists have been Moody and his hymn director, Sankey; J. Wilbur Chapman; "Gypsy" Smith; "Sam" Jones; and "Billy" Sunday.

Revolution.—The overthrow of an established political system or a radical change of government effected by extra legal means is known as a political revolution. Among the most important revolutions of modern history are the English Revolution of 1642-1649, which culminated in the execution of Charles I and the establishment of the Protectorate under Cromwell; the second English Revolution, resulting from the Stuart tyranny after the Restoration known as the "Glorious Revolution of 1688," which, under William III, firmly established the principles of free constitutional government in Great Britain; the American Revolution which resulted in the establishment of the Republic of the United States in 1776; the French Revolution, which broke out in Paris in 1789 and was followed by a reign of blood and terror, terminating with the execution of Robespierre in 1794; the French Revolution of 1830, which exiled Charles X and elevated Louis Philippe to the throne; the uprising of the French people in 1848, which deposed Louis; the Italian Revolution of 1859-60, whereby the various minor sovereigns of the peninsula were driven into exile and the whole territory came under the dominion of King Victor Emmanuel; the insurrections which established the third French Republic in 1870 and the Republic of Brazil in 1889.

In the twentieth century the most significant revolution before the outbreak of the World War was that which established a republic in Portugal in 1910. During the war occurred the revolutions in Russia which overthrew the Tsarist autocracy in March, 1917, and established the Bolshevist Government in November of the same year. By the end of the War, it was generally considered that in far-reaching effect the Russian Revolutions threatened to surpass even the French Revolution. As a result of the defeat of the Central Powers in the World War, revolutions occurred in November, 1918, in the German Empire and in Austria-Hungary. The former disestablished the monarchy in favor of a Republic, and the latter saw the dissolution of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire into a number of new countries—Jugo-Slavia, Czecho-Slovakia, Poland. As a result of the overthrow of Tsarist rule in Russia in 1917, sections of the former Russian territory revolted and proclaimed themselves independent states. Among these were Finland, Esthonia, Latvia, Ukrainia, Lithuania, Georgia, Azerbaijan.

Revolutionary Convention. (See Convention, Revolutionary.)

Revolutionary Pensions. (See Pensions.)

Revolutionary War.—The war for redress of grievances, and later for independence, waged by the thirteen American Colonies against the mother country, Great Britain. The Revolution had several causes. Increase in population in America naturally caused a desire for independence, especially after the expulsion of the French. In 1763 the Government of George III resolved to enforce more strictly the navigation act and other laws restricting American trade in the interest of England, to station garrisons in America, and to pay a part of the expense by a stamp tax. The Stamp Act aroused violent opposition, expressed through the Stamp Act Congress of 1765. Taxation without representation in Parliament was declared illegal and tyrannous. The British Government persisted in the principle, taxing various imports from 1767 to 1770 and tea thereafter. The Boston Tea Party led Parliament to pass acts retaliating on that city and altering the charter of Massachusetts. The Colonies were by this time united, through their committees of correspondence, in opposition to the Crown. Sept. 5, 1774, the First Continental Congress was convened in Philadelphia. It published a declaration of rights, protested to the King and Parliament, and entered into a non-importation agreement. April 19, 1775, Gen. Gage, the British commander in Boston, met with the first armed resistance at Lexington and Concord, and war was begun. The Colonists were assisted by France, Spain, and in the later years of the struggle, by the Netherlands.

Following are the principal events of the Revolution: Boston Massacre, March 5, 1770; Boston Tea Party, Dec. 16, 1773; First Continental Congress, Sept. 5, 1774; battles of Lexington and Concord, April 19, 1775; meeting of the Second Continental Congress and capture of Ticonderoga, May 10; Mecklenburg Declaration of Independence, May 20; battle of Bunker Hill, June 16 and 17; evacuation of Boston, March 17, 1776; British repulse off Charleston, June 28; Declaration of Independence, July 4; battle of Long Island, Aug. 27; battle of White Plains, Oct. 28; loss of Forts Washington and Lee, retreat through New Jersey and battle of Trenton, end of 1776; battle of Princeton, Jan. 3, 1777; battle of Bennington, Aug. 16; battle of Brandywine, Sept. 11; battle of Stillwater, Sept. 19; battle of Germantown, Oct. 4; battle of Saratoga, Oct. 7; Burgoyne's surrender, Oct. 17; adoption of the Articles of Confederation, Nov. 15; treaty with France, Feb. 6, 1778; battle of Monmouth, June 28; storming of Stony Point, July 16, 1779; victory of Paul Jones, Sept. 23; British capture Charleston, May 12, 1780; battle of Camden, Aug. 16; Arnold's treachery exposed, Sept. 23; battle of King's Mountain, Oct. 7; battle of the Cowpens, Jan. 17, 1781; Articles of Confederation ratified by the last of the States, March 1; battle of Guilford Court-House, March 15; battle of Eutaw, Sept. 8; surrender of Cornwallis at Yorktown, Oct. 19; peace of Paris, Sept. 3, 1783; evacuation of New York, Nov. 25, 1783. The United States then comprised the territory from Canada to Florida and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Mississippi River. The total number of enlistments in the American army during the war was 368,410; the total cost was $135,193,703.

Revolutionary War:

Allowances to officers in, referred to, 906.

Pensioners of. (See Pensions.)

Referred to, 2755.

Soldiers of, land warrants issued to, 889.

Revolutions:
Bolsheviki foster, 8865.
Denounced by President Harding, 8928.
Discussed by President Wilson, 8619, 8790, 8816, 8820.
Right of, supported by—
Declaration of Independence, 1.
President—
Jefferson, 311.
Lincoln, 3211.

Revolving Fund system of appropriations deplored, 8885. (See also Appropriations and Budget.)

Reward offered for arrest of—
Alleged instigators of assassination of President Lincoln, 3505.
Distribution of, referred to, 3577.
Persons claiming, directed to file claims, 3551.
Revoked as to certain persons, 3551.
Persons from foreign countries committing depredations in United States, 3484.
Willis Anderson, 943.

Reynolds, R. J., Tobacco Company, case against, discussed, 7647.

Rhine, The, French steamer, referred to, 3460.

Rhode Island.—One of the thirteen original states of the Union and the smallest of the United States; nicknamed, "Little Rhody;" motto, "Hope." It lies between lat. 41° 18′ and 42° 1′ north (not including Block Island) and long. 71° 8′ and 71° 53′ west. It is bounded on the north and east by Massachusetts, on the south by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by Connecticut, and has an area of 1,248 square miles. It is an important manufacturing state, being first in proportion to its population in the manufacture of cotton, woolen, worsteds, etc., and second only to Massachusetts in the production of cotton goods.

Rhode Island was visited by Verrazano in 1524 and probably by Norse navigators in the twelfth century. Roger Williams made the first permanent settlement at Providence in 1636. The first charter was granted in 1643 and a more liberal one in 1663. Rhode Island ratified the Federal Constitution in 1790. The official name of the state is "The State of Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations."

In 1920, the population was 604,379. In 1915, the urban population was 97% of the whole. In the same year, the white foreign-born population was 135,894, of whom 33,802 were Italian, 28,963 were English, 27,044 were Irish, 28,376 were French Canadian.

Latest educational statistics show 2,093 public elementary schools, with 2,585 teachers and 82,300 pupils; and 163 public high schools, with 381 teachers and 8,756 pupils.

The latest figures for the annual agricultural products showed hay, 47,000 acres, 52,000 tons, $1,718,000; corn, 8,000 acres, 320,000 bushels, $576,000; potatoes, 3,000 acres, 345,000 bushels, $552,000. Latest reports gave the number of farms as 5,292, with an acreage of 443,308, and a total value of all farm property of $33,000,000. Later figures for farms only put them at 4,084.

The last annual fruit crop included 340,000 bushels of apples, 3,000 bushels of peaches, 12,000 bushels of pears.

The last federal census of manufactures estimated that the total capital of the 2,190 manufacturing establishments was $308,444,563; with 1,883 officers, 8,801 minor officials and 113,425 wage-earners. The raw materials used in the year were valued at $162,425,219 and the value of product at $279,545,873.

Besides cotton, woolen and worsted manufacture, the silk, hosiery and knit goods and rubber and elastic goods are important fields of manufacture.

(See also Providence Plantations.)

Rhode Island:
Accession of, to Union, 67.
Constitution in, attempts of people to establish free. (See Dorr's Rebellion.)
Constitution of United States—
Convention for consideration of, 64.
Evidence of ratification of amendments to, 68, 182.
Dorr's Rebellion in—
Correspondence regarding, 2139.
Discussed, 2136.
Free constitution in, attempts of people to establish. (See Dorr's Rebellion.)
Lands in, United States empowered to hold, 146.
Union, accession of and Providence Plantations to, 67.

Rhodesia.—A large British possession in southern Africa. It extends north from the Transvaal Province to the Belgian Congo and East Africa. On the east it is bounded by Portuguese East Africa and on the west by Angola. The entire territory is administered by the British South Africa Company. It is divided by the Zambesi River into the two sections—Northern and Southern Rhodesia.

Southern Rhodesia has an area of some 150,000 square miles and a population of about 800,000. The country is rich in gold reefs and other minerals, but deficient in timber. There is much live stock, chiefly goats, sheep and cattle; and the chief crops are maize and tobacco. Other important minerals worked are copper, chrome ore, coal and asbestos. The value of the total annual mineral output is estimated at $30,000,000. In a recent year the imports amounted to about $15,000,000, and the exports to about half that sum, exclusive of gold.

Northern Rhodesia has an area of about 290,000 square miles, and a population of about 900,000. The country consists chiefly of high plateau land, covered with thin forests. The chief products are maize, cotton, tobacco, wheat, fruits and rubber. Among the minerals which have been found are gold, copper, zinc, lead, coal. In a recent year, the exports amounted to $1,700,000; and the imports, exclusive of specie, to about $1,750,000.

Ricara Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Rice. (See Agricultural Products.)

Rice:
Duties on, discussed and mentioned, 1243, 1931, 2112, 2181, 2274, 2419.
Production of, in United States, 6727, 6906.

Rich Mountain (W. Va.), Battle of.—Soon after the ordinance of secession had been ratified by the State of Virginia, Maj.-Gen. George B. McClellan, who had been assigned to the command of the Federal forces in the Department of the Ohio, issued an address to the loyal citizens of western Virginia. Many enlistments from that State followed, and he determined to occupy at least part of it with Federal troops. Accordingly, May 23, 1861, the First Virginia Regiment, 1,100 strong, which had been organized in Cincinnati by Virginians, crossed the Ohio with the Fourteenth and Sixteenth Ohio regiments and took possession of Parkersburg. The Confederates, commanded by Governor Wise under the immediate direction of Col. Porterfield, retired after several skirmishes to the base of Rich Mountain, near Beverly, in Randolph County. McClellan's forces in the neighborhood amounted to more than 30,000 men on July 4, while the Confederates could scarcely muster 10,000. July 11, Gen. Rosecrans made a detour of the mountain and forced the surrender of 600 men under Col. Pegram, and Gen. McClellan defeated the main body of the Confederates under Gen. Garnett. The Union losses in the actions at Rich Mountain were 11 killed and 35 wounded. The loss to the Confederates was 200 killed and 1,000 prisoners. Seven pieces of artillery also fell into the hands of the Union forces.

Richmond (Ky.), Battle of.—After the Confederates had evacuated Corinth, Miss., in the summer of 1862, they began to concentrate in the vicinity of Chattanooga, Tenn. By the middle of August they had collected an army estimated at from 55,000 to 65,000 under Gen. Braxton Bragg. Gen. E. Kirby Smith, with about 20,000 men, passed up the Cumberland Mountains on the east, and, going through the gaps, invaded Kentucky. At Richmond he encountered Gen. Manson (Aug. 30), who was defending the place with a garrison of Buell's army. Mason was defeated and Smith proceeded to Frankfort. Loss about 5,000 on each side.

Richmond, Va., Government of Confederate States transferred to, 3225.

Riders.—Objectionable legislative measures likely to be vetoed if passed as separate bills, but which are made part of important bills, such as appropriations for current expenses, etc., in order to insure Executive sanction. The rider is an encroachment on the independence of the Executive. In many of the states a rider has been made an impossibility by confining each bill to a single subject or by permitting the veto of single clauses of appropriation bills. It has never been prohibited in Congress. Riders were numerous during the anti-slavery contest, the Civil War, and the conflict with President Johnson. A number of important bills have been passed as riders, among them the bill increasing salaries in 1873. The first use of the rider of national importance was the joining in 1820 of the bill for the admission of Maine to that permitting slavery in Missouri, so as to compel the acceptance of both or neither. These were afterwards separated. The Army appropriation bill of 1856 as sent from the House to the Senate had a rider prohibiting the employment of Federal troops for the enforcement of Territorial law in Kansas. Riders were added to all appropriation bills by the Democratic majority in the House during the first session of the Forty-seventh Congress in 1879; but all these bills were vetoed by the president and were finally passed without riders. The Platt Amendment (see Cuba) was a rider to the Army Appropriation Bill of 1901.

Rifle Clubs in South Carolina, proclamation against, 4350. (See also Ku-Klux Klans.)

Rifle, Magazine, for use of infantry service, selected, 5878.

Rifle Practice, commended to attention of soldiers and civilians, 7070, 7236.

"Right Makes Might" quoted by President Wilson, 8882.

"Right More Precious Than Peace," 8233.

Right of Asylum. (See Asylum.)

Right of Search.—Great Britain has always claimed the right to search vessels of other powers upon the high seas for deserting English sailors and for contraband goods in time of war. This has not been exercised with regard to the vessels of the United States since the War of 1812, though nothing was said in the treaty of Ghent about search and impressment of sailors. Before that war this right was exercised and search was made for English sailors, and many American seamen were impressed as deserters from the English navy, and search was made for such goods as were declared subject to confiscation in accordance with the paper blockade of the continent and the orders in council. This was one of the grievances that brought on the War of 1812. The right of search for the purpose of suppressing the slave trade was carefully regulated by several treaties between Great Britain and the United States.

Right of Search:
Discussed by President—
Buchanan, 3038, 3170.
Madison, 484, 505.
Tyler, 1930, 2048, 2082.
Proposition regarding, mutual, referred to, 2626.
Questions regarding, with—
Cuba, 3986.
Great Britain, 484, 505, 1930, 2048, 2082.
Claim of Great Britain abandoned, 3038, 3171.
Mutual right of search, referred to, 1943.
Referred to, 2286, 2297.

Right of Suffrage. (See Elective Franchise.)

Right of Way. (See Indian Reservations.)

Rights. (See Bill of Rights and Natural Rights.)

Rights of Federal and State Governments. (See Powers of Federal and State Governments.)

Rights of Man.—A pamphlet by Thomas Paine, published in England in 1791. Its radical appeal was so strong that Paine was outlawed.

Rio Grande River:
- Construction of dams in, opposite El Paso, Tex., referred to, 5400.
- Disorders on, discussed by President—
  - Arthur, 4627, 4716.
  - Buchanan, 3113, 3115.
  - Fillmore, 2688.
  - Grant, 4143, 4161, 4220, 4244, 4295, 4358.
  - Harrison, Benj., 5751.
  - Hayes, 4407, 4424, 4449, 4521.
- Neutrality violated by army on, referred to, 3574.
- Report upon state of, 2777.
- Storage and use of waters of, for irrigation, discussed, 5959, 6281.
- Distribution of waters of, 6737.

Rio Muni. (See Spain.)

Rio de Oro. (See Spain.)

Riparian Rights.—Rights to the usage of water-front for various purposes.

River and Harbor Bills.—There has always been some objection to appropriations for the improvement of rivers and harbors on the ground that the benefits, while mostly local, are paid for out of the general Treasury. The first bill for harbor improvements in the United States was passed March 3, 1823. Since 1854, appropriations for the improvement of rivers and harbors were frequently inserted in the regular appropriation bill. Separate bills for this purpose were vetoed by Presidents Tyler (2183), Polk (2310), Pierce (2789), and Grant (4336). In 1870 a $2,000,000 appropriation was made. This was the largest up to that time. After this they gradually increased until they reached nearly $19,000,000 in 1882-83. President Arthur vetoed the bill carrying this appropriation (4707), but it was passed over his veto. Biennial appropriations have since been the rule. The appropriation for 1891 was $25,000,000. The expenditures of 1896, including the direct appropriations of about $30,000,000 and the contracts for future expenditures, amounted to a total of about $80,000,000. The bill carrying this amount was vetoed by President Cleveland (6109), but was passed over his veto. River and harbor bills have since been passed in 1899, 1900, 1902, 1905 and later years. The bill passed by the Sixty-sixth Congress and approved by President Wilson on June 5, 1920, carried an appropriation of $12,000,000, to be expended under the direction of the Secretary of War and the supervision of the Chief of Engineers.

River Crow Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

River Raisin (Mich.), Battle of.—After Col. Lewis had occupied Frenchtown, Mich., Jan. 18, 1813, with 650 men, he was reenforced by Gen. Winchester with about 300 from the latter's camp on the Maumee River. These were stationed along the river outside the town. Before daylight on the morning of Jan. 22 they were attacked by 500 British under Col. Proctor, and 600 Indians under Round Head and Walk-in-the-Water. Some 200 Americans were killed or wounded in battle or massacred after their surrender and Winchester and 700 men were made prisoners. Only 33 of Winchester's detachment which arrived at Frenchtown are known to have escaped. The British lost 24 killed and 158 wounded.

Rivers and Harbors (see also Internal Improvements):
- Act for improvement of—
  - Criticized and reforms suggested in, by President Taft, 7489, 7517.
  - Reasons for applying pocket veto to, 1201.
  - Vetoed by President—
    - Arthur, 4707.
      - Discussed by, 4724.
    - Cleveland, 6109.
    - Polk, 2310.
    - Tyler, 2183.
- Appropriations for, 416.
  - Bill making, approval and reasons therefor, 4331.
  - Discussed, 4362, 4833.
  - Expenditures of, referred to, 4371.
  - Recommended, 2558, 2666, 2711, 3993, 5477.
  - Should only be made after surveys, 2204.
- Breakwater near mouth of Mississippi River, referred to, 988.
- Breakwaters for, referred to, 1126.
- Deepening of channels of, at Federal expense, recommended, 7489.
- Expenditures for, referred to, 4788. Discussed, 4197.
- Foreign powers, if friendly, should be allowed use of, 523.
- Fortifications for, recommended, 230, 297, 318, 442, 447, 455, 477, 2055.
- Fortifications in, completed, 461.
- Improvement of, referred to, 1785. Recommended, 7690.
- Opened to British vessels, 753. Closed, 941.
- Survey of, referred to, 1490.
- Waterway from the Lakes to the Gulf recommended, 7690.

Rivers and Harbors Congress, National. (See National Rivers and Harbors Congress.)

River Navigation, illustration, opposite 1147.

Roads, Post. (See Mail Routes and Transcontinental Highways.)

Roads, Public.—The Sixty-second Congress made an initial appropriation of $500,000 to aid the state in improving public highways and an additional sum of $25,000 was voted for a committee to investigate the subject of federal aid in state road-building.

The most recent data on the roads of the country compiled by the Public Roads Bureau of the Department of Agriculture are as follows:

State	Mileage		Per Cent	Annual
	Surfaced	Total	Surfaced	Expenditure
Alabama	6,125	55,446	11.0	$ 2,371,213
Arizona	475	12,075	3.9	2,017,749
Arkansas	2,000	50,743	4.0	1,963,610
California	13,000	61,039	21.2	21,646,638
Colorado	2,550	39,780	6.4	3,300,000
Connecticut	3,200	14,061	22.6	5,018,820
Delaware	310	3,674	8.5	943,377
Florida	3,900	17,995	21.6	5,764,205
Georgia	13,200	80,669	16.4	5,792,056
Idaho	850	24,396	3.5	3,519,920
Illinois	12,800	95,647	13.4	10,183,353
Indiana	31,000	73,347	42.5	13,000,000
Iowa	1,500	104,074	1.4	14,549,622
Kansas	1,550	111,052	1.4	5,017.117
Kentucky	13,900	57,916	24.0	3,380,000
Louisiana	2,700	24,563	11.0	3,540,976
Maine	3,525	23,537	14.9	3,859,415
Maryland	3,100	16,459	18.8	5,750,135
Massachusetts	9,100	18,681	48.8	9,124,303
Michigan	10,600	74,190	14.3	10,673,153
Minnesota	7,000	93,517	7.5	10,567,711
Mississippi	2,700	45,779	5.9	760,000
Missouri	7,550	96,041	7.8	7,154,400
Montana	900	39,204	2.3	3,924,950
Nebraska	1,450	80,272	1.8	3,855,828
Nevada	340	12,182	2.8	474,770
New Hampshire	2,000	14,020	14.5	2,004,685
New Jersey	6,050	14,817	41.0	6,708,922
New Mexico	620	43,091	1.4	1,314,192
New York	21,200	80,000	25.0	21,152,057
North Carolina	6,850	50,758	13.5	4,020,000
North Dakota	1,160	68,796	1.8	3,208,000
Ohio	31,800	86,354	36.8	14,499,834
Oklahoma	700	107,916	.7	3,131,532
Oregon	5,000	36,819	14.1	6,830,276
Pennsylvania	10,600	91,556	11.6	14,753,876
Rhode Island	750	2,170	34.5	1,135,671
South Carolina	3,800	42,226	9.0	1,676,289
South Dakota	800	96,306	.8	3,031,710
Tennessee	8,880	46,050	19.2	2,978,000
Texas	12,300	128,960	9.6	11,325,727
Utah	1,650	8,810	18.6	2,770,491
Vermont	2,300	14,249	16.3	1,606,075
Virginia	6,150	53,388	11.7	3,708,352
Washington	6,300	42,428	14.9	7,256,306
West Virginia	1,600	32,024	5.0	5,056,454
Wisconsin	15,500	77,280	20.1	9,284,175
Wyoming	600	14,797	4.1	929,215
Total Road Mileage, U. S.				2,478,552
Mileage Improved Roads, U. S.				299,135
Percentage Improved Road Mileage				12.0
Total Annual Expenditure				$286,098,113

History.—The majority of the main Roman highways were built at public expense. They were maintained in part by the labor of soldiers and convicts or slaves, or by enforced service, which, in some instances, took the form of taxation. But in whatever form the maintenance, it was at the expense of the district through which the road passed. Tolls as a means of repairing highways were unknown to the Romans. The supervision of the roads was intrusted to men of the highest rank. Augustus himself seems to have made those about Rome his special care. Cross roads were placed in charge of the local magistrates, although occasionally a portion of a road was assigned to some landowner to maintain at his own cost.

The first record of road legislation in England goes back as far as 1285, and it provides that the trees and bushes on both sides of all roads for a distance of 200 feet shall be cut away to prevent robbers from lurking therein and rushing upon victims unawares.

In 1346 Edward III. authorized the first toll to be levied for the repair of roads. This commission was granted to the master of the Hospital of St. Giles and to John Holborn, authorizing them to levy toll on vehicles passing on the roads leading from the hospital to the old Temple of London, and also on an adjoining road called the Portal. In 1523 Parliament passed its first act relative to the repair of roads.

The present road system of France was founded by Napoleon. He built many roads through the empire, among them the road over the Simplon Pass, which was commenced in 1800 and required six years for completion. It was under him that the work was systematized and placed in the hands of a permanent body of engineers.

In 1775 Tresaguet, a French engineer, published a treatise on broken stone roads. His work preceded that of Macadam and Telford by about forty years.

In the United States, there were few roads which could be called "improved" until the nineteenth century. In the earlier days of the Republic, there were many attempts to get the national government to build roads, but the only notable success of such attempts was the Cumberland Road, between Cumberland, Md., and Vandalia, Ill., a distance of about 800 miles. When the enthusiasm for internal improvements began around 1835 or 1840, the era of state road construction on a large scale got under way. However, except for roads built by private turnpike companies, the construction was still for the greater part local until in recent years the use of the automobile became well-nigh universal. It is estimated that about $300,000,000 is spent annually on the roads of the United States.

Federal Aid.—President Wilson, July 11, 1916, signed a bill, authorizing an expenditure of $85,000,000 in five years by the Federal government on condition that the states should expend amounts similar to those apportioned to them; $75,000,000 was for rural post roads, and $10,000,000 for roads and trails in national forests.

(See also Transcontinental Highways.)

Roads, Public:

Appropriations for, 9161, 9171.

Construction of, discussed, 8941.

Roads, Public, Bureau of.—This office is a bureau of the Department of Agriculture devoted to the collection and dissemination of information regarding road management; experiments in road making and road improvement; and scientific tests of road materials. The office lends its aid to local organizations having for their object the improvement of public roads by supplying, upon request, drafts of tentative constitutions and by-laws and outlines of a working policy. The advice given depends largely upon the objects for which the association is formed and the prevailing local conditions. The advice given through correspondence is supplemented by the distribution of various publications on road-making and maintenance; and where the movement is of sufficient magnitude to warrant it, representatives of the Office of Public Roads and Rural Engineering are sent to address the local organizations and point out ways and means by which they can accomplish the best results.

Roanoke Island (N. C.), Expedition to.—Butler's Hatteras expedition of Aug. 26, 1861, had opened Pamlico Sound and the Confederates had retired to Roanoke Island. This island is about ten miles long and was the key to all the rear defenses of Norfolk. Four-fifths of the supplies for Norfolk passed its guns. It was defended by Ben. Wise with 3,000 men. Jan. 7, 1862, Gen. Burnside was ordered to unite with Flag Officer Goldsborough, in command of the fleet at Fortress Monroe, capture Newbern, reduce Fort Macon, and seize the Wilmington and Weldon railroad. On the night of Jan. 11 the expedition arrived off Hatteras and encountered a terrific storm. Several transports were lost and the *City of New York*, with her cargo, worth a quarter of a million dollars, went to pieces. By Feb. 7 the remainder of the expedition had crossed the bar and proceeded up Croatan Channel. The Confederate fleet was driven up the channel. Their flagship—the *Curlew*—was set on fire by a shell and Burnside landed 10,000 men on Roanoke Island. The garrison of 2,675 officers and men was captured and the Confederate fleet pursued to Elizabeth City and destroyed. Burnside lost 250 men.

Roanoke Island, N. C., thanks of President to forces capturing, 3305.

Robert College, establishment of, at Constantinople referred to, 3900.

Rochdale Pioneers. (See Co-operative Movement.)

Rock Creek, D. C., construction of bridge over, referred to, 1844.

Rock Island, Ill., bridge over Mississippi River at, 4148.

Rock Island Arsenal, Ill., appropriation for, recommended, 4680, 4738.

Rocky Mount (S. C.), Assault on.—July 13, 1780, Thomas Sumter, with about 75 men, made an attack upon the British post at Rocky Mount, thirty miles northwest of Camden, under command of Lieut.-Col. Turnbull. The post consisted of two log houses perforated for small arms. Three unsuccessful assaults were made. The Americans finally withdrew after a loss of 13 killed and wounded, including Col. Reed. The British loss was about the same.

Rodgers, The, dispatched for relief of Jeannette Polar Expedition, 4726.

Rogatory Letters, report regarding execution of, transmitted, 5570.

Rogue River Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Rome, Italy:

American college at, threatened confiscation of, 4801.

Occupation of, by King of Italy, 4085.

Protestants removed from, referred to, 3662, 3717.

Sanitary conference at, 4918.

Proclamation regarding, 4898.

Roorback.—A general term for political forgery, or a fictitious report for political purposes, generally promulgated before an election. The name comes from a certain political story circulated in 1844 as an extract from Baron Roorback's Tour Through the Western and Southern States.

Roosevelt Dam, view of, opposite 6732.

Roosevelt, Theodore.—Sept. 14, 1901, to March 4, 1909.

(FIRST TERM, SEPT. 14, 1901-MARCH 4, 1905.)

Twenty-ninth Administration (continued) Republican.

Secretary of State—
John Hay (continued).

Secretary of the Treasury—
Lyman J. Gage (continued).
Leslie M. Shaw.

Secretary of War—
Elihu Root (continued).
William H. Taft.

Attorney-General—
Philander C. Knox (continued).
William H. Moody.

Postmaster-General—
Charles Emory Smith (continued).
Henry C. Payne.
Robert J. Wynne.
Secretary of the Navy—
John D. Long (continued).
William H. Moody.
Paul Morton.
Secretary of Interior—
Ethan A. Hitchcock (continued).
Secretary of Agriculture—
James Wilson (continued).
Secretary of Commerce and Labor—
George B. Cortelyou.
Victor H. Metcalf.

Roosevelt became President on the death of President McKinley, and took the oath of office Sept. 14, 1901. McKinley's appointees were continued at the head of the executive departments for a time, the first change being the appointment of Leslie M. Shaw to succeed Lyman J. Gage as Secretary of the Treasury and Henry C. Payne to succeed Charles E. Smith as Postmaster-General, Jan. 8, 1902.

Vice-President.—At the Republican National Convention, at Philadelphia, in 1900, President McKinley received the whole 730 votes in nomination for President, and Roosevelt received 729 for Vice-President (he not voting). Roosevelt was the fifth Vice-President to succeed to the Presidency by the death of the President in office, and the third to succeed by the death of the President by assassination.

(SECOND TERM, MARCH 4, 1905 - MARCH 4, 1909.)

Thirtieth Administration—Republican.

Vice-President—Charles W. Fairbanks.
Secretary of State—
John Hay (continued).
Elihu Root.
Robert Bacon.
Secretary of the Treasury—
Leslie M. Shaw (continued).
George B. Cortelyou.
Secretary of War—
William H. Taft (continued).
Luke E. Wright.
Attorney-General—
William H. Moody (continued).
Charles J. Bonaparte.
Postmaster-General—
George B. Cortelyou.
George von L. Meyer.
Secretary of the Navy—
Charles J. Bonaparte.
Victor H. Metcalf.
Truman H. Newberry.
Secretary of the Interior—
Ethan A. Hitchcock (continued).
James R. Garfield.
Secretary of Agriculture—
James Wilson (continued).
Secretary of Commerce and Labor—
Victor H. Metcalf (continued).
Oscar S. Straus.

SECOND TERM—Nomination.—The Republican party in National Convention at Chicago, June 22, 1904, nominated President Roosevelt by acclamation. The platform of 1904 rehearsed the recent performances of the Republican administrations, the gold standard established, the results in the Philippines, the beginning of the Panama Canal, irrigation of arid lands, increase of the navy; pledged the enforcement of anti-trust laws; reaffirmed protection; favored extension of reciprocity; upheld the gold standard; urged the increase of the merchant marine; declared for a larger navy; endorsed the exclusion of Chinese labor; declared for civil service reform; favored international arbitration; urged inquiry into the constitutionality of negro enfranchisement; advocated equal laws for labor and capital; paid a tribute to the memory of President McKinley; and eulogized President Roosevelt.

Opposition.—The Democratic National Convention at St. Louis, July 9, nominated Alton B. Parker on the first ballot over William R. Hearst. The Prohibition party, at Indianapolis, June 30, nominated Silas C. Swallow by acclamation. The People's party, at Springfield, Ill., nominated Thomas E. Watson by acclamation. The Socialist party, at Chicago, May 5, nominated Eugene Debs by acclamation. The Socialist Labor party, at New York, July 4, nominated Charles H. Corrigan by acclamation. The United Christian party, at St. Louis, May 2; the Continental party, at Chicago, Sept. 1; and the National Liberty (Negro) party, at St. Louis, July 7, placed candidates in the field.

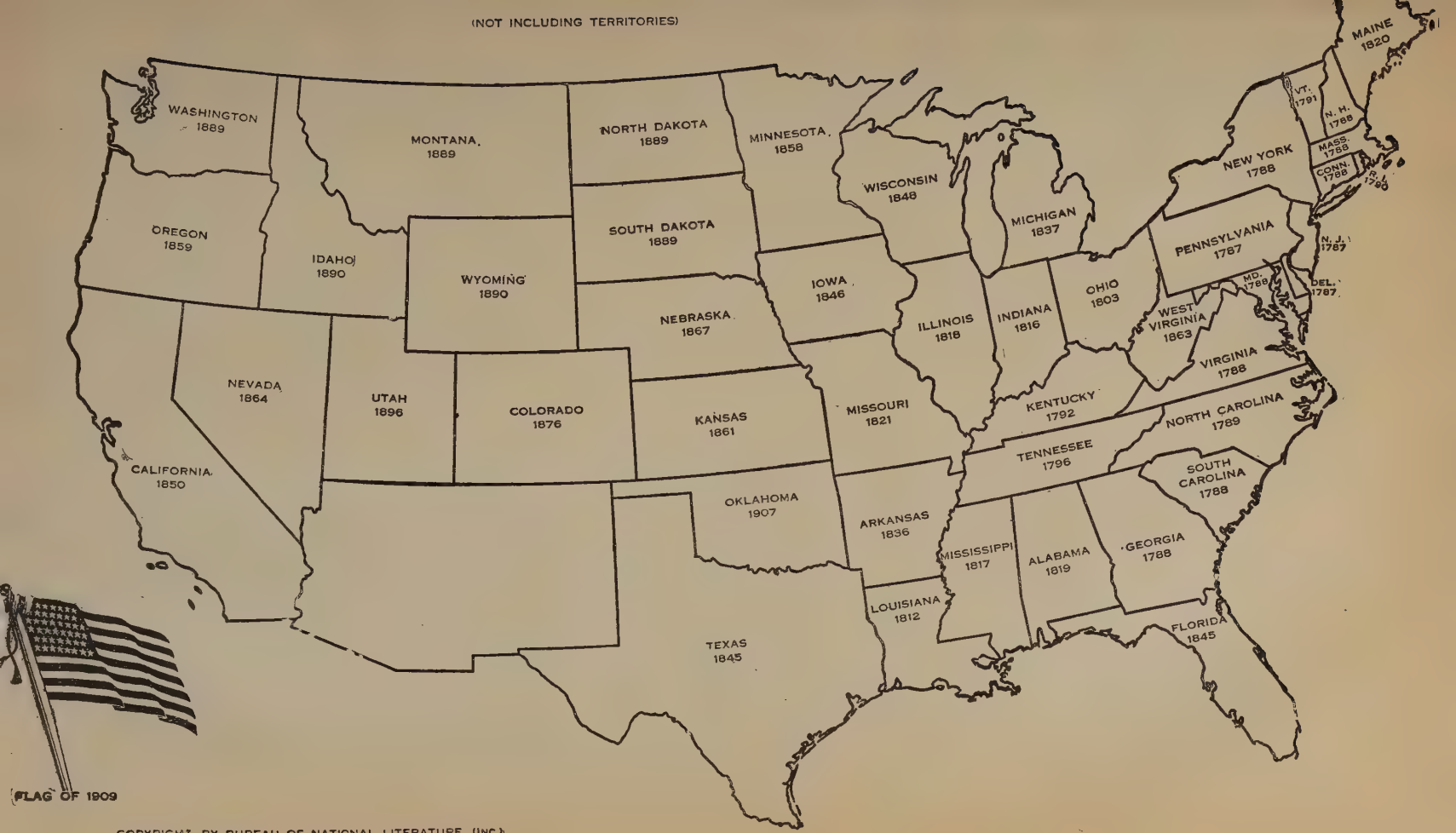
Party Affiliation.—President Roosevelt from his earliest connection with politics was attached to the Republican party. In his earliest days, as a representative to the State legislature of New York, he maintained a large degree of independence; yet he was chosen a delegate to the National Republican Convention in 1884, and was chairman of the delegation. He was an independent Republican in 1886, as a candidate for the mayoralty of the City of New York. His identity with the Republican party became very close during the Harrison administration and as Assistant Secretary of the Navy under McKinley in 1897. In 1898 he was the Republican Governor of the State of New York.

Vote.—The popular vote ran: Roosevelt, 7,623,486; Parker, 5,077,971; Debs, 402,283; Swallow, 258,536; Watson, 117,183; and Corrigan, 31,249. The electoral vote gave Roosevelt 336 and Parker 140.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the Fifty-seventh Congress (1901-1903) the Senate, of 91 members, was composed of 29 Democrats, 56 Republicans, 1 Populist, 1 Silver party, 1 Fusionist, and 2 vacancies; and the House, of 357 members, was made up of 153 Democrats, 198 Republicans, 3 Populists, 1 Silver party, 1 Fusionist, with 2 vacancies. In the Fifty-eighth Congress (1903-1905) the Senate, of 90 members, was composed of 32 Democrats and 58 Republicans, and the House, of 382 members, was composed of 174 Democrats, 206 Republicans, 2 Union Labor, with 2 vacancies. In the Fifty-ninth Congress (1905-1907) the Senate, of 90 members, was composed of 32 Democrats and 58 Republicans; and the House, of 386 members, was made up of 136 Democrats and 250 Republicans. In the Sixtieth Congress (1907-1909) the Senate, of 92 members, was composed of 31 Democrats and 61 Republicans; and the House, of 386 members, was made up of 164 Democrats and 222 Republicans.

Tariff.—President Roosevelt in his First Annual Message (page 6650) said: "There is general acquiescence in our present tariff system as a national policy. The first requisite to our prosperity is the continuity and stability of this economic policy. . . . . Our experience in the past has shown that sweeping revisions of the tariff are apt to produce conditions closely approaching panic in the business world. . . . Reciprocity must be treated as the hand-maiden of protection. Our first duty is to see that the protection granted by the tariff in every case where it is needed is maintained, and that reciprocity be sought for so far as it

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)



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can safely be done without injury to our home industries." In his Second Annual Message (page 6712) the President seeks to refute the argument that a reduction of the tariff would curb trusts. He says: "Many of the largest corporations, many of these which should certainly be included in any proper scheme of regulation, would not be affected in the slightest degree by a change in the tariff save as such change interfered with the general prosperity of the country. The only relation of the tariff to big corporations as a whole is that the tariff makes manufactures profitable, and the tariff remedy proposed would be in effect simply to make manufactures unprofitable. To remove the tariff as a punitive measure directed against trusts would inevitably result in ruin to the weaker competitors who are struggling against them." As a corrective to conditions, the President advises the extension of reciprocity treaties. "Wherever the tariff conditions," he says, "are such that a needed change can not with advantage be made by the application of the reciprocity idea, then it can be made outright by a lowering of the duties on a certain product." In his Special Session Message of Nov. 10, 1903, the President discusses the proposed reciprocity treaty with Cuba. In his Sixth Annual Message (page 7050) the President says: "I most earnestly hope that the bill to provide a lower tariff for or else absolute free trade in Philippine products will become a law. No harm will come to any American industry; and while there will be some small but real material benefit to the Philippines, the main benefit will come by the showing made as to our purpose to do all in our power for their welfare." In his Seventh Annual Message (page 7083) on tariff revision, the President says: "This country is definitely committed to the protective system and any effort to uproot it could not but cause widespread industrial disaster. . . . But in a country of such phenomenal growth as ours it is probably well that every dozen years or so the tariff laws should be carefully scrutinized so as to see that no excessive or improper benefits are conferred thereby, that proper revenue is provided, and that our foreign trade is encouraged. . . . This means that the subject can not with wisdom be dealt with in the year preceding a Presidential election, because, as a matter of fact, experience has conclusively shown that at such a time it is impossible to get men to treat it from the standpoint of public good. In my judgment the wise time to deal with the matter is immediately after such election." In the same message the President favored the incorporation of both income tax and inheritance tax as a part of the system of Federal taxation. On page 7099, the President says: "There should be no tariff on any forest product grown in this country, and in especial there should be no tariff on wood pulp."

Civil Service.—In his First Annual Message President Roosevelt (page 6673) urged appointment in all possible cases upon the merit system, which he maintained was the only fair test of fitness; "all applicants should have a fair field and no favor, each standing on his merits as he is able to show them by practical test. In my judgment," he says, "all laws providing for the temporary employment of clerks should hereafter contain a provision that they be selected under the Civil Service law." In his Third Annual Message (page 6803) the merit system is reported as working most satisfactorily: "The completion of the reform of the civil service is recognized by good citizens everywhere as a matter of the highest importance, and the success of the merit system largely depends upon the effectiveness of the rules and the machinery provided for their enforcement." In his Fifth Annual Message (page 7011) the President says: "The question of politics in the appointment and retention of the men engaged in merely ministerial work has been practically eliminated in almost the entire field of Government employment covered by the civil service law." In a veto message of Feb. 5, 1909 (page 7176), the President urges that the employees engaged in the work of taking the thirteenth census be brought into the classified service and quotes Hon. Carroll D. Wright, who had charge of the census after 1890, as estimating that more than $2,000,000 and over a year's time would have been saved had the force been so regulated.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the years of President Roosevelt's administration proper stood as follows: July 1, 1905, $989,866,772.00; 1906, $964,435,686.79; 1907, $858,685,510; Nov. 1, 1908, $897,253,990.00.

Commerce.—In his Gubernatorial Message to the legislature of New York, in 1899, Governor Roosevelt took his stand upon the principle of taxing and regulating corporations and others who enjoyed franchises. To properly adjust taxation and to apply effective restriction were to be attained by investigation of conditions. "The first essential," he said, "is knowledge of the facts —publicity." This sentiment led to the desire expressed in his First Annual Message (page 6649) for the appointment of a Secretary of Commerce and Labor. "It should be his province to deal," he said, "with commerce in its broadest sense; including among many other things, whatever concerns labor and all matters affecting the great business corporations and our merchant marine." In his Second Annual Message (page 6712) he said: "I believe that monopolies, unjust discriminations, which prevent or cripple competition, fraudulent over-capitalization, and other evils in trust organizations and practices which injuriously affect interstate trade, can be prevented under the power of Congress to 'regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States' through regulations and requirements operating directly upon such commerce, the instrumentalities thereof, and those engaged therein." In speaking of the working of the Department of Commerce and Labor, the President said in his Third Annual Message (page 6785): "Publicity in corporate affairs will tend to do away with ignorance and will afford facts upon which intelligent action may be taken. Systematic, intelligent investigation is already developing facts the knowledge of which is essential to a right understanding of the needs and duties of the business world. The Department of Commerce will be not only the clearing house for information regarding the business transactions of the Nation, but the executive arm of the Government to aid in strengthening our domestic and foreign markets, in perfecting our transportation facilities, in building up our merchant marine, in preventing the entrance of undesirable immigrants, in improving commercial and other industrial conditions and in bringing together on common ground those necessary partners in his Fourth Annual Message (page 6901) he industrial progress—capital and labor." In said: "Above all else we must strive to keep the highways of commerce open to all on equal terms; and to do this it is necessary to put a complete stop to all rebates." In his Fifth Annual Message (page 6974) the President said: "I am in no sense hostile to corporations. This is an age of

combination, and any effort to prevent all combination will be not only useless, but in the end vicious, because of the contempt for law which the failure to enforce law inevitably produces. . . . The corporation has come to stay, just as the trade union has come to stay. Each can do and has done great good. Each should be favored so long as it does good. But each should be sharply checked where it acts against law and justice." The President's Special Message of May 4, 1906, explicitly sets forth the conditions of the Standard Oil Company and the railroads as they appear to the Bureau of Corporations. Stock Yard and Packing House abuses are dealt with in his message of June 4, 1906.

In his Sixth Annual Message (page 7078) the President said: "Among the points to be aimed at should be the prohibition of unhealthy competition, such as by rendering service at an actual loss for the purpose of crushing out competition, the prevention of inflation of capital, and the prohibition of a corporation's making exclusive trade with itself a condition of having any trade with itself."

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Physical Features.—Roumania proper, or Moldavia and Wallachia, is enclosed mainly in the basin of the Danube, the plain consisting of rich pasture and agricultural land, the intermediate region of the vineyard and fruit districts and the higher slopes and valleys of birch, larch and pine forests. Bessarabia is flat, except for thickly-wooded spurs of the Carpathian Mountains; it is extremely fertile. The Dobruja is also flat and fertile, but higher. Transylvania is mountainous, with many valleys which make its agriculture and stock-raising abundant; it contains valuable mineral deposits, espe-

cially salt, gold, silver and coal. Bukowina is less mountainous and has few minerals, but also is extremely fertile.

In practically all sections of Roumania, the rivers play an important part in the development of the country, and the Danube especially is a valuable means of transportation, although it is frozen over for some of the winter months. The climate of Roumania is extreme in both winter and summer.

History.—The Kingdom of Roumania had its origin in the union of the Danubian Principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia and the addition thereto of a strip of southern Bessarabia, under the Treaty of Paris in 1856. The principalities were an integral part of the Turkish Dominions, but for many years a spirit of independence had been exhibited, although tribute was paid to the Sultan. In 1859 the Conventions of the two principalities met at Bucharest and Jassy and elected Prince Alexander John Cuza as ruler, under the suzerainty of the Porte. Prince Cuza reigned from 1859-1866, in which year he abdicated, and Prince Charles Antony of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen was elected in his stead. By the Treaty of Berlin, July 13, 1878, the new Principality was recognized as an independent State, and the territory of the Dobruja was recognized as part of the Principality. Roumania kept aloof from the First Balkan War, but entered the Second Balkan War against Bulgaria. (See Balkan Wars.) Her rivalry with Bulgaria was a prime factor in inducing Roumania to cast in her lot with the Allies in the World War on August 27, 1916. The Central Powers were prepared for that move, and in the following winter overran the country with their forces, which captured Bucharest in December, 1916. By February, 1917, almost all of Roumania was in the hands of the enemy, and in March, 1918, Roumania joined Soviet Russia in signing a humiliating peace with the Central Powers. For the gains in territory achieved as a result of the final defeat of her enemies, see above and World War.

Government.—On March 14 (27), 1881, Roumania obtained the status of a kingdom, recognized as such by all the Great Powers, the Prince being crowned at Bucharest on May 9 (22), 1881. The crown is hereditary in the male line of the house of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen, and by a law of March 14 (27), 1889, Prince Ferdinand of Hohenzollern, nephew of the King, was declared heir-presumptive to the throne.

Under the old Constitution, there was a parliament of two houses; but the change in territory has necessitated changes in government which are not yet stable. In 1920, the Senate consisted of 170 members, including the heir to the throne, 19 bishops and 4 university representatives. The geographical distribution was—Old Kingdom, 82; Transylvania, 45; Bessarabia, 24; Bukowina, 19. The Chamber of Deputies had 347 members, with 168 from the old kingdom, 112 from Transylvania, 51 from Bessarabia and 16 from Bukowina. All taxpaying citizens of the age of 21 and over are electors. The king has a suspensive veto over legislation, and exercises the executive power through a prime minister and a cabinet of ministers in charge of the several executive departments.

For local government, the new territory is divided into 77 districts each with a prefect, a tax receiver and a civic council. In 1919, Roumania had a total of 735 districts and 5,864 communes.

The law is based principally upon the Code Napoléon, and the courts consist of communal and circuit courts with appeals to the sessional courts.

Area and Population.—The area and population of the new Roumania are given as follows:

Country	*Sq. Miles*	*Population*
Old Roumania	53,489	7,904,104
Transylvania	22,312	2,678,367
Bukowina	4,030	800,098
Bessarabia	17,146	2,344,800
Banat	11,009	1,582,133
Crisana	8,038	1,316,981
Maramuresh	6,258	766,666
Total	122,282	17,393,149

The distribution of new territory to Roumania after the World War did not follow strictly the lines of nationality, so that the kingdom comprises within itself many minor nationalities. In the east, there are many Magyars, and in the southeast, many Saxons and Swabes. Bukowina contains a considerable proportion of Germans and Ukrainians. The Dobruja and Bessarabia are extremely mixed racially, with a majority of Turks and Tartars in the former; and the districts along the Danube contain many Serbs and Bulgars.

The capital and largest town is Bucharest, with an estimated population of 325,000, in 1918; since that year, it has almost tripled. There are twelve other towns with a population above 50,000.

Of the total population in 1918, there were 9,700,000 members of the Orthodox Church, 1,455,000 Greek Catholics, 1,485,000 Roman Catholics, 1,345,000 Protestants, 835,000 Jews, 45,000 Mohammedans and 17,500 Armenians. The clergy of the National Orthodox Church are paid by the state, and those of other denominations receive subventions; but free liberty of religious worship and affiliation is guaranteed to all.

Before the World War, a census showed 60% of illiteracy, with 40% among the army recruits. Pre-war figures show 5,370 public elementary schools, with 9,030 teachers and 620,000 pupils.

Finance.—Before being conquered by the Central Powers during the World War, the annual budget was in the neighborhood of $125,000,000. Latest figures for the public debt placed it at slightly above $1,000,000,000. The unit of currency is the gold leu, equal to $0.20 in United States currency.

Production and Industry.—The soil of the Wallachian Plain, and of the lower districts of Moldavia, is among the most fertile in the world, and the productive vineyards and orchards have an acreage of 470,000. Since 1886 State control has prevented the further depletion of the forest area, which lies principally in the mountain valleys of northwest Moldavia. Petroleum, salt, lignite and brown coal are found and largely worked, salt being a Government monopoly, while iron, copper, lead, mercury, cinnabar, cobalt, nickel, sulphur, arsenic, and china clay also occur. The petroleum (and ozokerite) industry is reviving, and now assumes first-class importance. Stone, granite, and marble are now largely worked, and amber is found in valuable quantities. There are many mineral springs, and some of the State-supported spas are much frequented, Baltzateshte in particular being a favorite resort for invalids from eastern Europe.

About 80% of the people are engaged in agriculture. Before the War, the official estimate of the distribution of the 35,000,000 acres of Roumania included: Ploughed

lands, 13,000,000 acres; forests, 5,700,000; fallow lands, 1,300,000; pasture, 3,000,000; meadows, 1,500,000. Estimates for the leading crops in 1919 were as follows:

Crop	Acreage	Tons Produced
Wheat	2,950,000	50,000
Barley	585,000	245,000
Rye	218,000	87,000
Oats	595,000	210,000
Maize	4,838,000	

Sugar beets also are grown, the pre-war production of sugar being about 33,000,000 kg. annually. Before the War, the annual production of tobacco was 7,700,000 kg.

The latest figures for farm animals showed 300,000 horses, 1,050,000 cattle, 1,655,000 sheep, 85,000 goats and 370,000 swine.

There are extremely valuable petroleum deposits, and the annual average pre-war production of petroleum was close to 2,000,000 metric tons. Other minerals worked are copper, iron manganese and salt.

In 1913, the imports into Roumania were valued at $115,000,000 and the exports at $130,000,000. In 1915, the imports were $65,000,000 and the exports, $110,000,000. In 1915, the chief imports were vegetable textiles and manufactures, and metals and manufactures, followed by clothing, silks, wool. The chief export was grain, followed by petroleum and beans and oil seed. The trade was chiefly with Austria-Hungary and Germany.

In a recent year the United States imported from Roumania goods valued at $22,311 and exported thither goods valued at $11,093,037.

In the last year for which figures are available, the most important products exported by the United States to Roumania, in order of value, were as follows: Boots and shoes, clothing, iron and steel pipes and fittings, mining machinery and engines and parts, automobiles, cotton cloths, copper manufactures.

Communications.—Before the War, the merchant navy of Roumania consisted of 760 vessels, of 240,000 tons, including 133 steamers, of 41,000 tons. The Danube has long been under international control, but after the World War the power of Roumania over its control was increased. The railways are under state operation; in 1915 their mileage was 2,315. Before the war there were 3,100 post-offices, 5,600 miles of telegraph lines, 16,000 miles of telegraph wire, 3,145 telegraph offices, 7 urban telephone systems, with 1,000 miles of line and 24,600 miles of wire, and 8,000 inter-urban systems, with 24,000 miles of line and 45,000 miles of wire.

Roumania:
Consular convention with, 4622, 4627.
Referred to, 4757.
Diplomatic relations with, 3989, 3994.
Evacuation and restoration of, by Germany, essential, 8424.
Independence of, announced, 4562.
New boundaries assigned to, 8731.
Persecution of Israelites in, 4017, 4121, 4122.
Trade-marks, treaty regarding, 4667.
Treaty with, 4658.

Roumania, Treaties with. (For details of the consular convention of 1881 see Consular Conventions.)

Round Island, assemblage on, dispersed, 2585.

Round Valley Reservation, Cal.:
Allotments of land to Indians on, 4955.
Payment for improvements, 4692, 4781.
Reduction of, discussed, 5178, 5494.

Rover, The, crew of, murdered, 3830.

Ruatan Island, convention between Great Britain and Honduras regarding, 2955.

Rubber Industry.—Crude rubber is prepared from a milky sap (latex) of certain plants found between the latitude of 30° north latitude and 30° south. In other words, the plants which give rubber are found only in tropical or semi-tropical climates. Crude rubber is produced in South America, Central America, Asia and Africa, and on many tropical islands, but the best rubber comes from the valley of the Amazon, of which the seaport is Para.

The first importation of rubber into the United States was regarded as a curiosity, and no commercial value was placed upon it. It could be bought for about five cents a pound. Around 1825 some hundred pairs of rubber shoes were brought in and sold, however. In 1833 the Roxbury India Rubber Company was formed to make rubber varnish, but failed several years later when its rubber varnish was found impracticable.

The history of the rubber industry in its modern aspects begins with the invention of the vulcanizing process around 1840 by Goodyear and Hancock, although methods of utilizing soft rubber had been perfected several years previously. However, many difficulties were encountered in transmitting the vulcanizing process to the various methods of manufacturing various articles, so that many branches of the rubber industry did not become stable until many years after 1840. For instance, it was not until 1860 that the manufacture of various druggists' sundries made of rubber became established on a firm basis.

In 1877, the first solid rubber tires were manufactured, followed shortly by the pneumatic tires. Soon the demand for tires became greater than the demand for other rubber goods, and the adjoining figures will show the predominating position played in the rubber industry by the production of tires. Indeed, it was the great demand for tires which stimulated so tremendously the cost of rubber which has characterized the industry of late years, although to some extent the prices have advanced because of wasteful methods of collecting rubber and because insufficient rubber acreage has been planted to atone for the acreage destroyed.

There have been many attempts to manufacture artificial or synthetic rubber, but up to the present time none of them has succeeded, although many other substances today are used as admixtures in the rubber industry.

A special report of the Census Bureau gives complete statistics of the rubber industry in the United States. The report covers twelve months just before the relations of the United States with the war in

	Total	—Establishments Producing Chiefly— Belting and Hose	Boots and Shoes	Tires and Other Goods
Number Establishments	477	15	25	437
Persons Engaged	206,202	7,449	37,929	160,824
Capital	$ 960,070,726	$45,919,568	$131,513,436	$782,637,722
Salaries and Wages	278,991,545	8,951,150	38,284,110	231,756,285
Rent and Taxes	44,445,822	1,164,456	3,080,065	40,201,301
Cost of Materials	594,343,590	18,310,401	50,346,880	525,686,309
Value of Products	1,138,216,019	34,210,540	116,917,434	987,088,045

The following figures depict graphically the growth of the Rubber Industry in the United States in recent years:—

	1919 (Pub. 1922)	1914	1904	1889
Number Establishments	477	342	265	167
Persons Engaged	206,202	88,821	56,059	Not Known
Capital	$ 960,070,726	$267,671,422	$ 98,979,636	$36,764,825
Salaries and Wages	278,991,545	60,445,980	24,623,078	9,526,909
Rent and Taxes	44,445,822	2,226,322	643,127	Not Known
Cost of Materials	594,343,590	163,034,713	80,002,476	16,527,220
Value of Products	1,138,216,019	300,993,796	148,015,391	25,309,648

Europe, upset the equilibrium of all industries. The Census of Manufactures report on the Rubber Industry taken as of 1919 was published in 1922, and its findings are summarized below and in the table above. In studying the figures, the decreasing value of the dollar in recent years must be borne in mind.

These figures cover establishments manufacturing primarily rubber goods and products of which rubber is the main ingredient. They are grouped in the three classes of rubber belting and hose; rubber boots and shoes; and rubber tires, tubes and other rubber goods. *In addition*, rubber goods were produced by establishments primarily manufacturing other goods to the value of $9,134,403.

Of the wage-earners in the industry, 79% are male and 21% female, as compared with 80% and 20% in 1914 and 76% and 24% in 1909.

There were 98 proprietors and firm members, as compared with 87 in 1914; 914 salaried officers of corporations, as compared with 514 in 1914; 4,104 superintendents and managers (998 in 1914); and 42,537 clerks and other subordinate salaried employees, as compared with 13,200 in 1914.

The greatest number of wage-earners was employed in the fall.

In the general industry, the leading state is Ohio, which employed 40% of the wage-earners and produced 48½% of the value of products. It is followed by Massachusetts, with 16% of the wage-earners and 13% of the value of products; New Jersey, 9% and 9%; and Connecticut, 7% and 5%. However, Massachusetts leads in boots and shoes and belting and hose.

The greatest number of wage-earners in 1919 (80,976) was employed where the prevailing number of hours per week was 48; 5,820 were employed 60 hours a week; 20,232, between 54 and 60 hours; 1,453, 54 hours; 20,510, between 48 and 54 hours; and 29,558 less than 48 hours a week. In 1914 and 1909, the greatest number of wage-earners was employed between 54 and 60 hours per week.

As to ownership, 407 establishments were owned by corporations, 47 by individuals and 23 by other forms. But practically all the wage-earners and all the value of the products adhere to the corporations.

Thirty-five establishments employed over 1,000 wage-earners each; 25, between 500 and 1,000 each; 40, between 250 and 500; 62, between 100 and 250; 58, between 50 and 100; 76, between 20 and 50; 93, between 5 and 20; 78, less than 5.

One hundred thirty-seven establishments produced goods with an annual value of over $1,000,000 each; 46, from $500,000 to $1,000,000; 131, from $100,000 to $500,000; 90, from $20,000 to $100,000.

The value of the specific rubber goods produced in 1919, as reported in 1922, was as follows:—

Tires, Pneumatic:	
Automobile—	
Casings (32,835,509)	$603,896,200
Inner tubes (33,255,410)	81,312,576
Motorcycles and Bicycles—	
Casings (4,656,121)	13,449,225
Inner tubes (1,125,097)	1,347,012
Tires, Solid:	
Truck (1,454,807)	43,917,152
All other (6,873,650)	9,004,543
Rubber boots (9,207,703 pr.)	26,066,647
Rubber shoes (66,145,541 pr.)	37,858,222
Canvas shoes, rubber soles (21,034,664 pairs)	25,176,684
Rubber Heels (138,468,769 pr.)	16,103,501
Belting	22,436,242
Hose	26,998,292
Drug and stationery goods	15,801,892
Hard rubber goods	34,383,231
Reclaimed rubber	20,173,040
Clothing, rubber	8,824,430
Packing, rubber	7,316,819

In the fiscal year 1921-1922, the United States imported, chiefly from the East Indies, 568,381,428 pounds of india rubber, valued at $86,751,219. In the same year, she exported rubber goods valued at $59,565,572, chiefly automobile tires (casings).

Rum, Romanism and Rebellion.—At a meeting of clergymen of all denominations held in the Fifth Avenue Hotel, New York, during the Presidential campaign of 1884, Rev. Samuel D. Burchard, in an address favoring the election of the Republican candidate, described the Democrats as the party of Rum, Romanism and Rebellion. The phrase was immediately taken up and used to alienate many persons otherwise friendly to the Republican party, and as the party in that year suffered defeat by a very small margin many attributed it to the utterance of this alliterative phrase.

Rumania. (See Roumania.)

Rump Convention.—A name designating a meeting of the minority members of a party convention who secede from the convention, and declare for a different policy or different candidates. One of the most notable instances of rump conventions occurred when Senator Teller of Colorado, aided by Senator Cannon of Utah, led a party of Free Silver advocates out of the Republican Convention in 1896, and virtually delivered

them to the Democratic party, because the Republican platform declared for the Gold Standard.

Rural Credits. (See Agriculture and Farm Loan Act.)

Rural Delivery. (See Division of Rural Delivery.)

Rural Free Delivery. (See Postoffice.) Discussed by President Roosevelt, 6724, 6798.

Rural Life, improvement of, and conference on, suggested, 8814, 8886. (See also Country Life Commission and Farmers.)

Russia.—Events following the Revolution in Russia which unseated the Tsar in March, 1917, and placed the Bolshevist Government in power in the following November, have kept the country in a state of flux. Even its political boundaries were uncertain for many months following the close of the World War, and there could be no prediction as to the extent to which the new Russia would correspond in territory to the old. By 1921, it appeared certain that Finland, Esthonia and Latvia (the former Baltic Provinces) and Lithuania would continue the independence from Russia which they obtained after the collapse of the Tsar's Government. What was formerly Russian Poland had gone to form the greater part of Poland, the existence of which as a separate and independent nation was assured. To the southeast of Russia in Europe, Ukraine had set up claims to be considered independent, and Bessarabia on the Black Sea had been definitely annexed to Roumania. In the Caucasus region between the Black and Caspian Seas, a portion had gone to make up the state of Armenia, and the new nations of Georgia and Azerbaijan also had asserted their claims to independence. And the future status of Russia in the family of nations had to be determined before it would be known if any of Siberia was to be annexed permanently by Japan.

The former Russian Empire, which covered nearly eight and one-half million square miles of the land surface of the globe, extended from the west limits of Poland, in 17° E. longitude, to East Cape, the extremity of the Continent of Asia, in 191° E. (169° W.) longitude, and from Cape Chelyuskin, in the Taimyr Peninsula (77° 40′ N. latitude), to the frontier of Afghanistan, 35° N. latitude. Of this vast area Russia in Europe was bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean; on the west by Scandinavia, the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic Sea, and by the German and Austro-Hungarian Empires and Roumania; on the south by the Black Sea and the Caucasus; and on the east by the Caspian Sea and the Ural Mountains.

European Russia had an area exceeding 2,000,000 square miles. It was 1,700 miles from north to south, and 1,400 miles from east to west. Asiatic Russia had an area of close to 6,500,000 square miles, and was 4,000 miles from east to west, and 2,400 miles from north to south (from the Kara Sea to the Pamir boundary).

The extent of the losses to Russia by the separation of the various countries mentioned above may be learned by reference to those countries in their alphabetical place in the Index.

Physical Features.—European Russia consists of a vast plain, the eastern Lowland of Europe, between the Ural Mountains and the Caucasus of the east and south and the Carpathians of the southwest. The Ural Mountains, which divide the Continents of Europe and Asia, and extend from the Kara Sea to the Caspian, culminate in Tollposs-is (5,400 feet), but the Caucasus, which run from the Black Sea to the Caspian, reach to 18,526 feet in Mount Elburz and 16,546 feet in Mount Kazbek.

Asiatic Russia is enclosed by mountain ranges within which lie the Plains of Turkestan and Siberia. The principal rivers of European Russia are the Volga, Don, Dnieper, Bug and Dniester, the Vistula, Niemen and Duna, the Neva, Onega, Dvina and Mezen, and the Pechora. Asiatic Russia contains the four great rivers, Ob, Yenisei, Lena, and Amur. Finland and the Baltic provinces contain innumerable lakes, Ladoga being the largest lake of Europe.

The climate of European Russia is typical of the most extreme Continental conditions, Moscow having a winter temperature of 12° F., while the summer temperature of the eastern portion is above 68° F. At Verkhoyansk the soil has been found to be permanently frozen to a depth of nearly 400 feet, although the summer mean temperature is higher than that of Paris.

History.—The vast Russian Empire was the outcome of the Tsardom of Muscovy, founded in the latter part of the fifteenth century by Ivan the Great, of the house of Rurik, who reigned from 1462 to 1505, and enlarged the Principality of Moscow into an autocratic kingdom over a wide territory. In 1613 the throne passed to a collateral branch of the house, Michael Romanov (1613-1645) being elected Tsar by the National Assembly. From the accession of the Romanovs the boundaries of the Empire became constantly extended. Little Russia, or the Ukraine, was annexed in 1667, and under Peter the Great (1689-1725) an outlet was acquired on the Black Sea by the capture of Azov from the Turks, and the Baltic Provinces and part of Finland were captured from the Swedes. The capital was transferred from Moscow to St. Petersburg (now Petrograd) in 1711, and Peter the Great was proclaimed Emperor of All Russia. At the close of the eighteenth century the Empire extended from Courland to the Urals, and from the Arctic to the Black Sea. In the nineteenth century Russian rule was extended over the basin of the Amur and from the Caspian Sea to Chinese Turkestan, and at the beginning of the twentieth century the present limits from the Baltic to the Pacific, and from the Arctic to the Asiatic Plateau, were prevented from spreading to the Yellow Sea by the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-1905.

Imperial Russia and France had long been allied, defensively and offensively, against Germany and hence against German's ally, Austria-Hungary. Russia was bent on expanding southward to the Mediterranean and Constantinople, her campaign for the acquisition of which drove Turkey into the international camp dominated by Germany. The Russians are Slavs, and hence supported the Slavs in the Austro-Hungarian Empire against oppression in Austria by the dominant Austro-Germans and in Hungary by the dominant Magyars. Similarly, Russia supported Servia in her attempt to thwart the designs of Austria-Hungary to extend eastward, and to include in Serbian territory those portions of Austro-Hungarian territory inhabited chiefly by the Serbs and by the other South (Jugo) Slavs. Thus when Austria-Hun-

gary threatened the practical extinction of Serbian independence in July, 1914, Russia supported Servia, Germany supported Austria-Hungary, France supported Russia, and the result of the murder of the heir to the Austro-Hungarian throne by Serbian assassins brought on a general European conflict.

For the part played by Russian troops in the World War, see World War.

Soon after the Napoleonic Wars, Russia fell far behind the other great Powers of Europe in democracy. The power of the ruling class was unmitigated by any control of the people, and even the four Dumas, or parliaments, finally achieved in the twentieth century were without power. The peasants were serfs in all but name; the people were kept illiterate; the church was firmly controlled by the Government; espionage, suppression, exile, imprisonment were used to prevent movements for a change of government from gaining power. Inefficiency and corruption gnawed persistently at the heart of the nation, and even of modern business efficiency and methods there were none.

Accordingly, it was inevitable that Russia should be unable to withstand the strain of several years of a great war, especially after her devastating defeat by German and Austro-Hungarian forces in the spring and summer of 1915. In the winter of 1916-7, the Government began to fall to pieces from sheer inner decay; and starvation and a desire for peace were instrumental factors in making successful the revolution which broke out in March, 1917. The Tsar was deposed, and Russia adopted the trappings of representative government.

The first government was composed of non-Socialist liberals, but it did not have the trust of most of that section of the Russian people which was articulate and able to function in political government. Almost inevitably, therefore, there grew up councils, or Soviets, of the workmen, soldiers and peasants, which, as they controlled the economic activities of the country, became increasingly powerful. Soon, the Government became responsible and subservient to the Central Soviet in Petrograd in much the same manner as cabinets in the European democracies were responsible to their parliaments. After several months, recognition of the Socialist elements by giving them a place in the cabinet proved of little avail; and in July, 1917, the premier became Alexander Kerenski, a conservative Socialist.

But Kerenski had not the administrative ability nor the following to remain in power. Moreover, he persisted in prosecuting the war, and Russia wanted peace. He was unable to get effective support from the Allies; and more and more he was being undermined by the Marxian or radical Socialists, headed by Nikolai Lenin. Lenin's followers were known as Bolsheviki, from the Russia word meaning "more," as they were the majority of the Marxian branch of Russian Socialism, known as the Social Democratic Party. The Bolsheviki had a definite program, promised peace and the grant of the land to the peasants, and bit by bit got control of the Central Soviet; so that they had little trouble in overthrowing Kerenski in November, 1917.

For the theories and practises of the Bolshevist Government, see Bolshevism.

Soviet Russia immediately signed an armistice with the Central Powers, and in March, 1918, made peace. The Allies retorted, in the summer of 1918, by military intervention in Russia, in the hope of re-establishing the eastern front; and this intervention persisted long after the end of hostilities with Germany. Not only did Great Britain, France, Japan and the United States dispatch their own forces into Russian territory, but also they aided Russian leaders who were conducting armed campaigns against the Bolshevist Government. In addition, Russia was completely blockaded, even so late as 1920. By 1921, Great Britain and Italy, among the great Powers, were anxious to reach an understanding with Soviet Russia, to which France and the United States were opposed —France chiefly because of the refusal of the Bolsheviki to recognize the loans furnished the Tsar's Government by France, and the United States chiefly because of the undemocratic nature of the Bolshevist Government and its avowed intention of refusing to recognize its pledges and of evoking revolutions in all non-Socialist nations.

Despite the difficulty of obtaining unbiased information about Soviet Russia, it appeared by 1921 that the Soviet Government was more firmly established than ever, that it was enforcing order and that it was mitigating the earlier severity and ruthlessness of its rule.

Area and Population.—Figures for area and population of Russia must remain inaccurate until the boundaries of Russia are finally determined. Pre-war imperial Russia had an area of 8,770,703 square miles, of which 1,862,524 was represented by Imperial Russia proper, 49,000 by Poland, 144,000 by Finland, 4,785,000 by Siberia, and the remainder by other Asiatic territory. Of the population of 175,000,000, European Russia proper accounted for 122,500,000.

Excluding Finland, Poland, Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania, Bessarabia, Armenia, Georgia and Azerbaijan, but including Ukraine, according to pre-war figures the area of Russia in Europe is approximately 1,845,000 square miles, with a population of approximately 125,000,000, of whom about 90,000,000 are farmers. The territory of that portion of Ukraine which lay within pre-war Russia may be placed at from 210,000 to 300,000 square miles, with a population of from 28,000,000 to 33,000,000.

In 1921, the statistical bureau of the Moscow Soviet reported the population of Soviet Russia as 133,000,000.

Practically all of Soviet Russia in Europe is inhabited by Slavs. The predominant race is the Great Russians. The last previous census showed some 4,500,000 Turko-Tartars. Of Jews, there were 5,070,000, of whom 3,715,000 were in European Russia proper and 1,267,000 were in Poland.

The population of the towns has greatly decreased since the War. Thus, the capital, Moscow, with a pre-war population of 1,817,100, had in 1919 a population estimated at 1,120,000. The former capital, Petrograd (before the War known as St. Petersburg), had a population of 2,318,000 in 1915.

The majority of the people belong to the Orthodox faith (Graeco-Russian). The Soviet government disestablished church and state, but guaranteed freedom of religious worship and affiliation to all denominations. Before the War, the illiteracy rate was 73%, but the Soviet government has succeeded in reducing the proportion of illiterates.

Government.—From the establishment of the Principality of Moscow, which became the dominant force in Russian affairs at the downfall of the Tartar rule (1238-1462), until the beginning of the present century the government of Russia was an unlimited autocracy. Certain reforms were

introduced from time to time. Serfdom was abolished in 1861, and elective provincial and municipal assemblies were created in 1864-1870, while the legal system was purged of many of its gravest abuses.

Finance.—Before the outbreak of the World War, the annual revenue was $1,080,829,500, and the annual expenditure, $1,065,717,700. The Soviet Government's estimate for 1919 called for a revenue of 48,000,000,000 roubles and an expenditure of 230,000,000,000. The rouble, which before the War was worth about $0.31½ in United States currency, has depreciated in value to almost nothing. In 1913, the Russian national debt was $2,701,706,000; in 1917 it was 32,300,000,000 roubles. It was estimated that the cost of the war to Russia was about $25,000,000,000, up to the time of the signing of peace with Germany.

Production and Industry.—In 1914, the cultivated area of the present Soviet Russia was 237,275,000 acres for cereals and 8,000,000 acres for potatoes. In 1918, the total cultivated area amounted to 63,000,000 acres. The cereals harvested were as follows: Rye, 580,000,000 lbs.; wheat, 64,000,000 lbs.; potatoes, 464,000,000 lbs.; oats, 302,000,000 lbs.; pulse, 58,000,000 lbs.; buckwheat, 21,000,000 lbs.; barley, 41,000,000 lbs., the unit of measurement being the English and not the Russian pound. In 1915, the tobacco production was 122,000 tons.

The pre-war cotton production of Russia, chiefly from Central Asia, was 12,800,000 English pounds annually.

In 1914, in European Russia outside of Poland and the Caucasus region the number of cattle was as follows: Horses, 22,530,000; cattle, 32,700,000; sheep and goats, 37,250,000; pigs, 11,580,000. These figures have since greatly decreased.

For mining, the latest reliable and comprehensive figures are of 1912. In that year, the mineral products were as follows: Gold (unrefined), 58,470 kilograms; platinum (crude), 5,520 kilograms; silver (unrefined), 18,018 kilograms; lead, 1,700 metric tons; zinc, 11,700 metric tons; copper, 33,530 metric tons; pig iron, 4,200,000 metric tons; iron and steel (of all kinds, rolled), 3,725,000 metric tons; coal, 30,900,000 metric tons; naphtha, 9,260,000 metric tons; salt, 1,900,000 metric tons.

In 1915, the petroleum production amounted to more than 9,000,000 tons. The production of the Baku district alone was 48,275,000 barrels of 42 gallons each in 1917.

In 1914-5, the sugar production, excluding Poland, was 1,700,000 tons.

The area of woods and forests is estimated at close on 1,000,000,000 acres. Of the total area about 60,000,000 acres were under exploitation, yielding a net profit to the State in 1909 of 46,000,000 roubles.

The Obdorsk and Ural Mountains contain great mineral riches, and are the principal seat of the mining and metallic industries, producing gold, platinum, copper and iron of very superior quality. Silver, gold and lead are also obtained in large quantities from the mines in the Altai Mountains. Among the non-metallic minerals are petroleum, coal, rock-salt, marble and kaolin clay. Russia was one of the largest producers of petroleum in the world, the output amounting to 530,000,000 poods (of thirty-six pounds) in 1910 and to 515,620,000 poods in 1911. An immense bed of coal, both steam and anthracite, and apparently inexhaustible, has been discovered in the basin of the Donetz (between the rivers Donetz and Dnieper).

Trade.—In 1913, the imports were valued at 1,375,000,000 roubles, and the exports at 1,520,000,000 roubles. In these figures bullion is not included. In 1913, the grain exports from Russia were as follows: Wheat, 3,250,000 tons; barley, 2,975,000 tons; rye, 528,000 tons; oats, 509,000 tons; maize, 570,000 tons; other grain 1,430,000 tons.

The value of the chief exports from Russia in 1913 was as follows:

	Roubles
Corn, flour, buckwheat, etc.	590,000,000
Timber and wooden goods	164,000,000
Eggs	91,000,000
Flax	87,000,000
Dairy produce	71,000,000
Furs and leather	52,000,000
Naphtha and naphtha oils	49,000,000
Oil cakes	39,000,000

In 1913 the principal imports into Russia were as follows:

	Roubles
Machinery	164,000,000
Other ores, metals, metal goods	175,000,000
Raw cotton	100,000,000
Coal and coke	87,000,000
Leather, hides, skins	57,000,000
Raw wool	53,000,000
Cotton and other textile goods	50,000,000
Timber and wooden goods	50,000,000

In 1913, the countries of chief trade were as follows:

Country	*Imports from 1,000 Roubles*	*Exports to 1,000 Roubles*
Germany	642,755	452,637
United Kingdom	170,350	266,864
United States	74,170	14,160
France	56,020	100,860
Austria-Hungary	34,635	65,260
Finland	50,965	55,290
East Indies	30,000	45
Netherlands	21,540	177,460
Turkey	16,940	34,460
Italy	16,710	73,690
Sweden	16,130	11,410
China	15,260	.....
Belgium	8,610	64,640
Denmark	2,850	35,755
Roumania	.....	21,695

The chief imports from Germany were machinery and woolens; from the United Kingdom, machinery and coal; from the United States and Egypt, raw cotton. The chief exports to Germany were cereals, eggs, timber and flax; to the United Kingdom, cereals, timber, eggs and flax; to the Netherlands, cereals and timber; to France and Belgium, cereals and flax.

Before the War, there were in Russia 134,000 miles of telegraph line and 476,000 miles of telegraph wire.

In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1914, the United States imported from Russia in Europe goods valued at $20,831,184 and exported to Russia in Europe goods valued at $30,088,643. The chief exports, in order of value, were as follows: Machinery and other iron and steel goods, cotton, agricultural implements; binder twine; leather and leather goods, copper products. In the same year, the United States imported from Russia in Asia goods valued at $2,488,973 and exported thither goods valued at $1,214,506. In order of value, the chief exports were agricultural implements, iron and steel goods, binder twine, condensed milk.

In 1910 the number of factories and works of all kinds open was 32,503, employing 2,080,896 hands. The principal manufactures were cottons, flax and silk.

sugar, tanning, boots, shoes and gloves, furniture, paper, flour, tobacco and hemp.

Railways.—The total length of lines open for regular traffic on Jan. 1, 1913, was 46,839 miles (Russian Government 29,316 miles, private companies 14,096 miles, Finland 2,347 miles, Eastern China Railway 1,079 miles). Exclusive of Finland (*q. v.*) there are in European Russia about 150,000 miles of navigable rivers and canals and lakes. In Asiatic Russia there are 85,000 miles of waterway, of which 20,000 miles are navigable. Some 175,000 persons were engaged in the traffic.

Shipping.—The sea-going Mercantile Marine on Jan. 1, 1913, consisted of 716 steamers (790,075 tons) and 500 sailing vessels (184,105 tons), the steam fleet being valued at £15,300,000 and the sailing fleet at £1,700,000. Steam fleet was manned by 17,157 persons, the sailing ships by 12,333 persons.

Russia, Imperial:
- Aid furnished Greeks by. (See Greece.)
- American insurance companies, treatment of, in, discussed, 5961.
- Bering Sea fisheries discussed. (See Bering Sea Fisheries.)
- Claims of, against United States, payment of, recommended, 6336.
- Claims of United States against, 3826, 6336.
- Colony from, to emigrate to United States, 4207.
- Confederate envoys sent to Great Britain and France referred to. (See Mason and Slidell.)
- Conference with, in relation to treaty of 1832, 7669.
- Consul of United States in, appointed, 165.
- Consuls of, in United States, authentication of passports to Jews denied by, discussed, 6067.
- Emperor of—
  - Accepts umpirage of first article of treaty of Ghent, 645, 672.
    - Decision of, 756.
    - Ratification of, 767.
  - Accession of, to throne, 950.
  - Assassination of, attempted, referred to, 3653, 3658, 3669.
  - Assassination of, resolutions of condolence on, 4626.
  - Coronation of, at Moscow discussed, 4758, 6067.
  - Death of, discussed, 916.
  - Intervention of, regarding independence of South American provinces, 892.
  - Mediation of, for peace between United States and Great Britain offered, 511.
    - Accepted by United States, 511.
    - Declined by Great Britain, 519, 532.
  - Proposition of, for reduction of military establishment discussed, and action of United States regarding, 6335.
    - Son of, visits United States, 4099.
    - South American Independence, 892.
- Famine in, recommendations regarding supplies to be sent, 5648.
- Friendly disposition of, toward United States, 449, 478, 503, 613, 638, 1068, 1113, 4714.
- Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 5398, 5871.
- Grand Duke of, visits America, 4099.
- Imprisonment of American citizens by, 4162, 4789, 4793.
- Jeannette Polar Expedition, survivors of, aided by subjects of. (See Jeannette Polar Expedition.)
- Jews in—
  - Condition of, referred to, 4690, 4714.
  - Measures enforced against, and subsequent banishment of, discussed, 5623.
  - Proscriptive edicts against, 5518.
- Minister of, to United States—
  - Appointed, 950.
  - Elevation of mission announced, 5874.
  - Recall of, requested by President Grant, 4099.
    - Referred to, 4110.
  - Received, 4718.
  - Title of ambassador conferred upon, 6335.
    - Referred to, 5874.
- Minister of United States to, 272, 456, 557, 1068, 1114, 1592.
  - Death of, referred to, 4825.
  - Title of ambassador conferred upon, 6335.
- Naturalization questions with, 5961.
- Neutrality of United States in war with—
  - Germany, 7969.
  - Austria-Hungary, 7974.
- Neutrality preserved by the United States in war with Turkey, 4418.
- Neutral rights, treaty with, regarding, 2777.
  - Referred to, 2809.
- Pacific telegraph referred to, 3329, 3382, 3445, 3564.
- Relations with, 788.
- Trade-marks treaty with, 3887, 4220, 4247.
- Treaty with, transmitted and discussed by President—
  - Adams, John, 272.
  - Cleveland, 5398, 5871.
  - Jackson, 1199, 1241, 1269.
  - Johnson, 3719, 3722, 3798.
  - Monroe, 820, 834, 849.
  - Pierce, 2777.
  - Changes needed in, 7669.
  - Expiration of, referred to and renewal of, recommended, 1369.

Renewal of, declined by Russia, 1704.
Turkey's, with, referred to, 1008.
Vessels of, detained by United States, appropriation for, recommended, 6336.
Vessels of United States seized or interfered with by, 3794, 6336.
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Austria-Hungary, neutrality of United States in, 7974.
Germany, neutrality of United States in, 7969.
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Neutrality maintained by United States in, 2864.
Japan, discussed by President Roosevelt, 6926, 7001.
Neutrality of United States proclaimed, 6868, 6892.
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Discussed by President—
Adams, J. Q., 973.
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Neutrality preserved by United States in, 4418.
Threatening aspect of, discussed, 762.
Treaty of peace referred to, 1008.
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Russia, Revolutionary (see also Bolshevism):
Armenia and, relations between, 8910.
Blockade on, to be lifted with restrictions, 8858.
Brest-Litovsk Peace Conference and Treaty discussed, 8421, 8595, 8863.
Constituent Assembly of, dispersed, 8864.
Development of, must not be hindered, 8424.
Dismemberment of, opposed, 8862-7.
German treatment of, denounced, 8483, 8595.
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Bolshevist, recognition not to be accorded to, 8859, 8862, 8864, 8865, 8910.
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Discussed, 8590, 8592, 8824.
End of, announced, 8825.
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Minority rule in, 8819.
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Policy toward, discussed, 8910, 8932.
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Territory of, must be evacuated, 8424.
Third Internationale and, discussed, 8866.
Trade relations not to be opened with, 8932.
Treaties, secret, published by, 8702, 8830.
United States, sympathy with, 8423, 8469, 8501, 8862, 8863.

Russia, Treaties with.—The convention as to the Pacific Ocean and the northwest coast of America was concluded in 1824. Free and unmolested fishing and trading rights in those parts of the Pacific Ocean as yet unoccupied are to be mutually enjoyed by both nations. Where stations are located, citizens of the one country may not resort for trade or fishing to the establishments of the other without express permission. Citizens of the United States may not erect any establishment on the northwest coast of America to the north of, nor shall Russia to the south of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes of north latitude. Spirituous liquors and firearms and other munitions of war are declared to be prohibited articles of sale to the natives or to others within the territory covered by this convention. Punishment for infraction of this article to be at the discretion of the contracting powers or their officers.

The treaty of commerce and navigation of 1832 conferred freedom of commerce, reciprocal treatment of vessels without discriminating duties by reason of the nationality of the carrying vessel, freedom of export and import (excepting the coastwise trade), the appointment of consular officers in terms of the usual consular conventions, with powers over deserters from ships and in the administration of affairs of deceased citizens, and, in general, the extension of large commercial privileges upon the most favored-nation terms. The conditions of the treaty were applicable to Poland in so far as possible.

As certain especial privileges had been extended to Sweden and Norway in regard to Poland and Finland, it is specified that such preferential conditions shall not extend to the United States.

The treaty of 1854 established the rights of neutrals at sea on the principle that free ships make free goods and that the property of neutrals on board an enemy's vessel shall not be subject to confiscation. The provisions of this treaty are to be extended to all powers formally recognizing the principles and expressing a desire to accede to the treaty.

Alaska Cession.—The treaty of 1867 ceded Alaska to the United States. The details of the boundaries contained in the first article gave rise to the long disputes between the United States and Canada over the location of the boundaries which were

the subject of later treaties with Great Britain. With the territory, Russia ceded all public property in Alaska with the records and archives of the government pertaining to affairs in Alaska, but reserved the right to make exact copies of them at any time. Citizens of Alaska who desired to retain their allegiance to Russia might return to that country within three years from the date of cession. The native tribes were to be subjected to such laws as the United States might in their interests and its own discretion make for their government. In consideration of the cession of territory and rights over it, the United States agreed to pay within ten months after ratification the sum of seven million two hundred thousand dollars in gold to Russia, at Washington. (For extradition agreements, see Extradition Treaties.)

In 1894 a *modus vivendi* was arranged in relation to the fur-seal fisheries in Bering Sea and the North Pacific Ocean, by which it was agreed that citizens of the United States might not fish within a zone of ten nautical miles from the shores of Russian possessions in Bering Sea and the Pacific Ocean, nor within thirty nautical miles of the Commander Islands and Robben Island. Vessels of the United States so infringing are to be seized by duly qualified Russian officers and handed over as soon as practicable to the United States authorities, who shall cause the cases to be tried by the ordinary courts. The Russian government agreed to limit the seal catch for the year 1894 in the vicinity of the islands named to thirty thousand head. The provisions of this treaty are in nowise retroactive.

Oct. 22, 1911, Russia became a party to the convention for the preservation of fur seals by signing the agreement with Great Britain, Japan and the United States.

In June, 1904, it was agreed that corporations having a legal existence in either country should be recognized in the other, and in 1906 an agreement for the protection of trade-marks was effected.

Russian America. (See Alaska.)

Russian Revolution, 1917. (See Russia.)

Russo-Japanese War.—Russia's occupation of Manchuria after the uprising of the Boxers (q. v.) was a matter of vital importance to Japan, as it endangered the independence of Korea, and brought Russia into dangerous proximity to Japan on the shores of the China and Japan seas. In April, 1902, Russia had promised to withdraw from Manchuria in eighteen months, but in September, 1903, she informed the Powers that it would be impossible for her to withdraw at the time specified.

In June, 1904, the Japanese Government opened negotiations with Russia, looking to the latter's withdrawal from Manchuria; but, losing patience at what she regarded as the dilatory tactics of the Russian officials, on Feb. 6, 1904, Japan broke off diplomatic relations with Russia, and four days later attacked the Russian fleet at Port Arthur, damaging several ships and driving the Russians into the harbor.

From that time until the fall of the port, Jan. 2, 1905, the Japanese fleet under Admiral Togo blockaded and bombarded Port Arthur, losing two battleships and several smaller vessels, but inflicting still more damage on the Russians.

Japan formally declared war on Feb. 11, 1904, and China and the United States issued proclamations of neutrality. Japanese troops at once occupied Korea, and on May 1 forced the passage of the Yalu River. Three days later the Japanese began to land troops on the Liao Tung Peninsula, north of Port Arthur, and moving down the peninsula defeated the Russians at Nanshan Hill and Kinchau, seizing Dalny at the end of the month. A Russian force from the north under Stackelberg, attempting a diversion in favor of Port Arthur, was decisively defeated at Vafangow, June 15, and while Generals Kuroki and Oku followed up the retreating Russians, General Nogi after driving General Stoessel, the Russian commander, from his outlying positions, laid siege to Port Arthur at the end of July. On Aug. 10, the Russian fleet in the harbor of Port Arthur, finding its position desperate, attempted to break out, a part of the vessels succeeding in reaching neutral ports, but the greater number being driven back into the port. Four days later the Russian squadron from Vladivostok, which had been making desultory raids on Japanese commerce, was defeated by a Japanese fleet, under Admiral Kamimura, one Russian vessel being sunk and the rest badly damaged. On Aug. 16, General Nogi demanded the surrender of Port Arthur, and, on General Stoessel's refusal, began an unsuccessful general assault which cost the Japanese 14,000 men. While Nogi's forces pressed the siege of the fortress the Japanese armies in the north, under the command of Marshal Oyama, the Japanese commander-in-chief, drove the Russians under Kuropatkin from Liao-Yang (Sept. 4), and checked a last attempt to relieve the city by repulsing a Russian advance over the Sha River (Oct. 14). By assaults and siege operations the Japanese steadily advanced upon Port Arthur, the capture of 203-meter Hill (Nov. 30) enabling them to bombard the fleet in the harbor, and on Dec. 31 they broke through the inner line of defenses. On Jan. 2, 1905, General Stoessel surrendered the city with 47,000 men. The Japanese loss during the siege was 50,000; the Russian not less than 20,000. The fall of Port Arthur left Nogi's forces free to join the army of the north under Oyama. After repulsing a Russian forward movement at the Hun River (Jan. 28), the Japanese assumed the offensive and again defeated Kuropatkin in a fifteen days' battle (Feb. 23-March 10) near Mukden, the ancient capital of Manchuria, and entered the city. About 750,000 men were engaged in this battle, operating on a front eighty miles long. The Russian loss was 90,000 killed and wounded, and 40,000 prisoners, the Japanese loss being less than half that of the Russian.

Meanwhile the Russian Baltic fleet, under Admiral Rogestvensky—their last naval resource, for the Black Sea fleet was confined within the Dardanelles by treaty stipulations, and demoralized by a mutiny of its sailors—had sailed from Libau (October, 1904), and was making its way to the East in several divisions by way of the Suez Canal and Cape of Good Hope. An attack on an English fishing fleet in the North Sea (Oct. 21)—the Russians mistaking the fishing boats for Japanese torpedo boats—nearly involved Russia in war with England, the affair being finally settled by arbitration; and the prolonged stay of the Russians off Madagascar and in Kamranh Bay, Saigon, led to a protest from Japan to the French Government.

On May 27 the Russian fleet encountered the Japanese under Admiral Togo, at the entrance to the Sea of Japan, and was practically annihilated, only 1 cruiser escaping to Vladivostok, and 3 to Manila, where they were interned. Six battleships, a coast defense battleship, and 4 cruisers were sunk; 2 battleships and 2 coast de-

fense battleships surrendered; many torpedo boats and smaller vessels were sunk or captured; Admirals Rogestvensky and Nebotatoff were taken, with 3,000 of their men; and 14,000 Russians perished. The Japanese losses were inconsiderable. Shortly after the battle a Japanese force occupied the Island of Sakhalin.

On June 11, President Roosevelt, after conference with the Japanese minister and the Russian ambassador, sent to Tokyo and St. Petersburg identical notes, urging the two governments to open direct peace negotiations with each other. This action resulted in the ending of the war by the Treaty of Portsmouth (q. v.). Dissatisfaction with the result of the negotiations led to some rioting in Japanese cities. (See illustrations opposite pages 6549, 6796 and 6924.)

Ruthenians, contribution day for stricken, proclaimed, 8273. (See also Ukraine.)

Saare Valley. (See Sarre Valley.)

Sabbath Observance enjoined upon Army and Navy, 3326, 8433.

Sabina, The, American seamen rescued by, compensation for, requested by owners of, 2005.

Sabine Cross-Roads (La.), Battle of.—Gen. N. P. Banks's army, which had been concentrated at Alexandria, La., advanced up the Red River March 25, 1864, by way of Natchitoches, Pleasant Hill, and Mansfield, toward Shreveport. April 8, arriving at Sabine Cross-Roads, on the Sabine River, the Federals encountered a part of the Confederate army under Gen. Kirby Smith, commanded by Gen. Richard Taylor. The Confederates attacked and Banks was badly defeated, losing 3,000 in killed, wounded, and missing. The Confederates captured 19 guns and an immense amount of ammunition and stores. The Confederate loss was reported by Gen. E. Kirby Smith as over 2,000 killed and wounded.

Sabotage. (See Industrial Workers of the World, Socialism, Syndicalism.)

Sabotage Bill.—An act of Congress approved April 20, 1918, providing a fine of not more than $10,000 or imprisonment for not more than 30 years, or both, for the wilful injury of war materials, war industries or war utilities. Under "war materials" were included not only all munitions and supplies intended for the military or naval use of the United States or its Allies, but also articles of every description which were suitable for such use. Injury might be direct or might consist in causing defectiveness; and all premises in or on which such supplies were manufactured or transported, such as mines, farms, forests, railroads, vessels, water supplies, telephones and telegraph, were protected under the terms of the Bill.

Sac and Fox Reservation, Okla.:
Cession of portion of, to United States proclaimed, 5591.
Sale of—
Bill providing for, 4959.
Referred to, 4972.

Sac Indians (see Indian Tribes):
Treaty with, 4001.
War with. (See Indian Wars.)

Sacketts Harbor (N. Y.), Attack on.—May 29, 1813, a British force of 1,000 or 1,200 regulars and a large body of Indians was convoyed from Kingston, Canada, to Sacketts Harbor, N. Y., by a squadron under Sir James Yeo, the whole expedition being under the command of Sir George Prevost, Governor-General of Canada. The Americans, mostly raw militia, were at first forced back, but later rallied and the British were driven to their boats, leaving their dead upon the field.

Sacketts Harbor, N. Y.:
Barracks built at, 653.
British attack on, repulsed, 524.

Sackville-West Affair.—Lord Sackville, the British Minister to the United States from 1881 to 1888, wrote a letter during the Presidential campaign of 1888 in which he advised an alleged naturalized citizen, of English birth, by the name of West, to vote the Democratic ticket, on the ground that the success of the Democratic party, with its free trade policies, would be beneficial to Great Britain. President Cleveland promptly rebuked Lord Sackville for his conduct, and in December handed him his passports. See 5365, 5396.

Sacramento Pass (N. Mex.), Battle of.—When Gen. Kearny had established the supremacy of the United States authority at Santa Fé he dispatched Col. Donipran with 800 men to join Wool in an expedition against Chihuahua. Dec. 27, 1846, Doniphan reached El Paso del Norte, a town of about 5,000 inhabitants on the road to Chihuahua, at one of the principal crossings of the Rio Grande. Here he was joined by Wightman's artillery, consisting of 100 men. He then proceeded toward the Sacramento River. Where the road to Chihuahua crosses the river the Mexican General Heredia was posted with 1,575 men. Feb. 28, 1847, he was attacked by the Americans and driven from his position with a loss of 110 pieces of artillery. Col. Doniphan and his little army entered the city of Chihuahua March 1 and 2.

Safety-Appliance Law:
Discussed by President—
Roosevelt, 6803, 6897, 6982.
Taft, 7378, 7449, 7553.
Judgment of Supreme Court on, 6982.

Safety at Sea:
Confirmation of convention for, 6982.
Convention for, 8019.
International discussion of, 7912.

Safety First.—The movement to decrease the number of accidents in industry. The movement really has its definite beginning with the advent of workmen's compensation laws (see Workmen's Compensation; also Employers' Liability); although even previously there had been isolated attempts within different business enterprises to make them safer for the workers. Along with the interest toward safety stimulated by the workmen's compensation laws has come also an interest stimulated by a new humanitarian impulse and by a new realization of the loss to the employers themselves by injuries to their employees. The Safety First movement falls loosely within three channels—one to safeguard machinery; one to improve sanitation; and one to lessen fire dangers. There are national and international congresses and museums of safety engineering.

Safety Fund.—Owing to the unstable character of the currency issued and the insecurity of deposits of State banks, the New York legislature in 1829, upon the suggestion of Martin Van Buren, passed a law known as the safety-fund act. Under the provisions of this law banks chartered by the state were required to pay into the state treasury a certain percentage of their capital stock to serve as a fund out of which the liabilities of any of them that might fail should be made good. This was the beginning of reform in the banking system. Under this law there were ten bank failures, resulting in a loss of all their capital, amounting to $2,500,000, which proved conclusively the inadequacy of the safety fund. In 1838 the free-banking system was adopted.

Sag Harbor, N. Y., survey of, referred to, 1043.

Saganaw Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Saginaw, Mich., bill to provide for

purchase of site and erection of public buildings at, returned, 5571.

Sa-heh-wamish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sah-ku-méhu Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sailors, American. (See Seamen, American.)

Sailors Creek (Va.), Battle of.—After the Confederate defeat at Five Forks and the retreat of Lee's army from Richmond and Petersburg, Lee made his way due west and reached the Danville Railroad at Amelia Court-House on April 4, 1865. Sheridan passed him and reached the railroad at Jetersville, 7 miles southwest. Lee, finding retreat cut off in this direction, moved westward toward Farmville. At Sailors Creek, April 6, Custer, joined by Crook and Devin, succeeded in piercing the Confederate column, took 16 guns, 400 wagons, and many prisoners. Ewell's corps and part of Pickett's division were thus cut off. The cavalry detained this force of between 6,000 and 8,000 until, having been surrounded by Wright with the Sixth Corps, Ewell surrendered. Five generals, more than 7,000 prisoners, several hundred wagons, and many guns were taken.

St. Albans, Vt., privileges of other ports granted, by proclamation, 2473.

St. Augustine, Fla., harbor of, referred to, 1040.

St. Bartholomews, unlawful expedition planned in, 769.

St. Clair Flats, acts making appropriations for deepening channel over, vetoed, 2919, 3130.

St. Domingo. (See Santo Domingo.)

St. Elizabeth's Hospital. (See Government Hospital for Insane.)

St. Germain, Treaty of.—The treaty of peace between the Allies and Austria at the close of the World War (q. v.). It was signed on September 10, 1920.

St. Helena.—A British island possession in the South Atlantic, about 1,200 miles west of Africa. It has an area of 47 square miles, and a population of 3,500. The chief product is flax. The island is famous as the scene of the final exile and the death of Napoleon Bonaparte.

St. John Island, treaty concluded with Denmark for cession of, to United States transmitted and discussed, 3777, 3779, 3796, 3886.

St. John River, navigation of, referred to, 2273, 2675.

St. Lawrence River, navigation of:
Correspondence with Great Britain regarding, 960.
Referred to, 2675.
Right to exclude American citizens from, claim of, by Canada discussed, 4058.

St. Louis, The:
Mentioned, 6313.
Refuge given Gen. Miller and Vice-President of Peru by, 1133.

St. Louis and San Francisco Railway Co., application of, for right of way across Indian Territory, 4653.
Bill granting, referred to, 4655.

St. Louis Harbor, survey of, referred to, 2135.

St. Marys Falls Canal, toll imposed upon vessels passing through, by United States as retaliatory measure, proclaimed, 5725.
Referred to, 5749.
Revoked by proclamation, 5812.

St. Marys River:
Act making appropriation for deepening channel over flats of, in the State of Michigan vetoed, 2920.

St. Mihiel, American victory at, 8638.

St. Paul, The, mentioned, 6391.

St. Petersburg, Russia:
Fourth International Prison Congress at, discussed and recommendations regarding, 5117.
International Statistical Congress in, 4221.

St. Pierre, destruction of city of, 6680.

St. Regis, Capture of.—At the outbreak of the War of 1812 it was agreed between the British and Americans that the village of St. Regis, on the boundary line between Canada and New York, occupied by Christian Indians, should remain neutral. In violation of this agreement the Canadian commander-in-chief put a garrison in the place and many of the Indians were induced to join the British army. On the morning of Oct. 22, 1812, Maj. Young, with about 200 men, surprised this garrison and took 40 prisoners, some muskets, and a quantity of blankets, after killing 7 men. None of the American force was injured.

St. Regis Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

St. Thomas Island, treaty with Denmark for cession of, to United States transmitted and discussed, 3777, 3779, 3796, 3886.

Sakhalin.—An island off the east coast of Siberia. The southern portion belongs to Japan, and is known as Karafuto. (See Japan.) It has an area of 13,200 square miles and a population of about 80,000. The most important industry is the herring, but Karafuto is suitable also for farming and stock-raising. There is also a valuable stand of timber. More than 100,000 tons of coal are mined annually, and there are also deposits of alluvial gold.

The northern part of the island belonged to Imperial Russia, but since the Russian Revolution of 1917 has been the object of Japanese expansion. It has an area of 14,670 square miles and a population of about 35,000.

Salaries, Congressional.—Under the Articles of Confederation each state paid its own members of Congress, but the Convention of 1787 made the members inde-

pendent of the states in this respect. The first clause of Article I., section 6, of the Constitution provides that "the Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law and paid out of the Treasury of the United States." Members of the First Congress were paid $6 per day and $6 for each twenty miles of travel going and coming. The salaries have frequently been changed. From 1789 to 1815 they were $6 per day; from 1815 to 1817, $1,500 per year; from 1817 to 1855, $8 per day; from 1855 to 1865, $3,000 per year; from 1865 to 1871, $5,000 per year; from 1871 to 1874, $7,500 per year; from 1874 to 1908, $5,000 per year. A mileage of twenty cents is allowed both ways. Senators and representatives have received the same salaries except during 1795, when senators received $7 per day while members received but $6. At present members of both houses receive $7,500 per annum. The speaker of the House receives $12,000 per year.

Salaries, Division of Postmasters', in Post-Office Department.—This division falls under the supervision of the First Assistant Postmaster-General (q. v.). (See Post-Office Department; Division of City Delivery; Civil Service; Division of Rural Delivery.)

Salaries, Executive.—Sept. 24, 1789, Congress fixed the salary of the President of the United States at $25,000 per annum, at which figure it remained until 1873, when it was increased to $50,000. The Constitution provides that the salary of the President shall not be diminished during his term of office, and for this reason that part of the "salary-grab" act of 1873 which increased his salary was not repealed in 1874 with the other provisions of that act. The salary of the Vice-President, placed at $5,000 in 1789, was raised to $8,000 in 1853, to $10,000 in 1873, reduced to $8,000 in 1874, and in 1908 increased to $12,000, and the President's salary was fixed at $75,000. The President receives also $25,000 as allowance for travelling expenses. The secretary to the President receives a salary of $7,500 annually.

Of the Cabinet officers the Secretaries of State and the Treasury received in 1789 salaries of $3,500 each, the Secretary of War $3,000, the Attorney-General $1,500, and the Postmaster-General $2,000. In 1819 the pay of the four Secretaries (State, Treasury, War, and Navy) was made $6,000, that of the Postmaster-General $4,000, and that of the Attorney-General $3,500. The Cabinet officers and Vice-President now receive $12,000 per year. Washington at first declined to receive any pecuniary compensation as President. He asked that the estimates for his station be limited to such actual expenditures as the public good might be thought to require (page 45).

Salaries, Judicial.—In 1789, when the United States courts were organized, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court was paid $4,000 and the associate justices $3,500 each. The district judges received from $1,000 to $1,800. Judicial salaries have been increased from time to time. At the present time, the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court receives $15,000, the associate justices $14,500, the circuit court judges $8,500, and the district court judges $7,500. The Chief Justice of the United States Court of Claims receives $8,000 and the four associate judges, $7,500 each. The Constitution provides that the salaries of Federal judges may not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Salaries, Judicial, increase urged in, 7525. (See also Judges.)

Salaries of Public Officers (see also the several officers):
Commissions claimed by, referred to, 1730.
Fee system, abolition of, as applicable to certain officials discussed, 6161.
Recommended, 4939, 5879, 5968.
Fixed salaries recommended, 1387, 4718, 4838, 4922, 4939, 5879, 5968.
Increase for head of Secret Service recommended, 7253.
Increase in, recommended, 4107.
Mode of paying, referred to, 1954.
Recommendations regarding, 195, 198, 4107.
Referred to, 1807.
Tariff of fees for clerks, marshals, etc., recommended, 2666, 2714, 4770, 4836, 4939, 5103.

Salary as President, Washington declines to accept, 45.

Salary Grab.—A popular name for the act of March 3, 1873, whereby the salaries of the President and Vice-President, members of Congress, justices of the Supreme Court and other Federal officials were materially increased. The provisions for the increase were introduced by Benjamin F. Butler, of Massachusetts, and made a rider to the appropriation bill. By this law the President's salary was increased from $25,000 to $50,000 per year; that of the Chief Justice from $8,500 to $10,500; those of the Vice-President, Cabinet officers, associate justices, and Speaker of the House from $8,000 to $10,000, and of Senators and Representatives from $5,000 to $7,500. Another act, passed the next day, made that part of the law relating to salaries of members of Congress retroactive, thus giving themselves $7,500 instead of $5,000 a year from March 4, 1871, to March 4, 1873, and following years. This excited the indignation of the people to such an extent that the laws were repealed the following year, except such provisions as related to the President and justices of the Supreme Court.

Sales Tax advocated for adjusted compensation for war veterans, 9099, 9149.

Salmon Fisheries, decrease in, 7230. (See also Alaska.)

Salt, duties on, discussed, 397, 1470.

Salt Springs:
Cession of, to United States, 342.
Referred to, 803, 892.

Salt Works in Kentucky, act for relief of owners of, vetoed, 4170.

Salvador.—Salvador occupies part of the south coast of Central America, between Guatemala and Nicaragua (Gulf of Fonseca), the northern boundary being conterminous with the Republic of Honduras, and the southern boundary being the Pacific Ocean. It is situated approximately between 13°-14° 20′ N. latitude and 87° 45′-90° W. longitude, and is about 140 miles from east to west, and about 60 miles from north to

south. Estimates of the area range from 7,225 to 13,175 square miles.

Physical Features.—There are distinct areas in the low alluvial plains of the coast and the interior plateau, with a mean elevation of about 2,000 feet, broken in many places by volcanic cones, of which the highest are Santa Ana (8,300 feet) and San Miguel (7,120 feet). The lowlands are generally hot and unhealthy, but the climate of the plateau and mountain slopes is temperate and healthy. There is a wet season from May to October, and a dry season from November to April.

Hydrography.—The principal river is the Lempa, which rises in Guatemala and flows into the Pacific, being navigable for most of its course by small steamers. In the eastern districts the Rio San Miguel rises near the Honduras boundary and flows into the Bay of Fonseca, and in the center of the Republic is the large volcanic lake Ilopango.

History.—Salvador was conquered in 1526 by Pedro de Alvarado, and formed part of the Spanish viceroyalty of Guatemala until 1821. In 1840 the Republic broke away from the federation of Central American States.

Government.—The constitution rests upon the fundamental law of 1864 (revised in 1886), the President and Vice-President being elected for four years by direct vote of the people, the President being ineligible for a successive term in either office.

The National Assembly, consisting of a single chamber of forty-two Deputies (three for each Department) elected for one year by the direct vote of all adult male Salvadorians, meets annually from February to May, and elects a President and Vice-President for each session.

There are local courts of first instance, district courts, and a supreme court at the capital. Each of the fourteen Departments has a governor appointed by the central executive, but the municipalities have elective magistrates and officials.

Population.—There are fourteen departments with an estimated population of 1,300,000. Of the total population about 10 per cent are creoles and foreigners, 50 per cent half-castes, and 40 per cent Indians, the negro element being negligible. The language of the country is Spanish.

Roman Catholicism is the prevailing religion. Latest figures of education show 989 primary schools, with 1,475 teachers and 57,500 pupils; and 27 higher schools, with 2,350 pupils.

The capital is San Salvador, with a population of 66,000. The other large towns are Santa Ana, 60,000; San Miguel, 30,000; Nueva San Salvador, 23,000; San Vicente, 26,500.

Production and Industry.—The principal products are coffee, sugar, indigo, "Peruvian" balsam (grown in Salvador, but formerly shipped from Callao in Peru), tobacco, cocoa, rice, cereals, and fruits. Cotton is being grown under a Government subsidy.

Gold, silver, copper, mercury, and lead are found, and there are indications of coal and iron, but only gold and silver are systematically worked, mainly in the department of Morazan.

Latest figures for trade show annual imports of $6,000,000 and exports of $12,000,000. The commerce is mainly with the United States, Great Britain and France. The chief exports included in above figures were coffee (36,000,000 kilograms), indigo (245,000 kilograms), sugar (4,550,000 kilograms). More than half of the coffee exported went to the United States. The chief imports are cottons, hardware, flour, drugs and chemicals.

In a recent year the United States imported from Salvador goods valued at $11,915,320 and exported to Salvador goods valued at $8,148,018, the leading exports being cotton goods and flour. The chief export was coffee.

Finance.—The last annual budget was estimated at $9,500,000. The total outstanding debt is about $5,000,000.

Communications.—There are about 215 miles of railroad open to traffic, and about 1,500 miles of good roads. There are 175 postoffices and 230 telegraph offices, with 2,000 miles of wire. The telephone stations number 220, with 1,450 miles of telephone wire.

Salvador:
Commercial relations with, 5663.
Consular convention with, 4070, 4212, 4880.
Difficulties of, with Great Britain, 2643.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 4033, 4212, 4247.
Questions arising under, discussed, 5961.
Guatemala, war with, 5543.
Insurrection in, and refuge on board American vessels sought by insurgents discussed, 5961.
President of, confirmed, 5544.
Report of Thomas C. Reynolds on, transmitted, 5116.
Tariff laws of, evidence of modifications of, proclaimed, 5684, 5800. Discussed, 5747.
Treaty with, transmitted and discussed, 2572, 2694, 3280, 4033, 4070, 4212, 4247.
Vessel condemned by, subsequently presented to United States, recommendations regarding, 4988.
War with Guatemala, 5543.

Salvador, Treaties with.—Our earliest treaty with Salvador, then known as the Republic of San Salvador, was a convention of amity, navigation and commerce, which was proclaimed April 18, 1853. This was superseded by the treaty of Dec. 6, 1870, which provided for reciprocal privileges in business, religious freedom, protection of persons and property in each country by the government of the other, consular prerogatives, and the usual restrictions of neutrality in case of war. It also contained the most favored nation clause. On notice given by Salvador this treaty was abrogated May 30, 1893. Dec. 19, 1901, a protocol for the arbitration of certain claims against Salvador by citizens of the United States was signed. Naturalization and arbitration conventions were concluded in 1908. The arbitration convention, which was for five years, was extended in 1914 for another five years. Salvador also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection

of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington, July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Salvation Army.—This body was founded in the slums of East London, England, by William Booth in 1865. It was and is independent of church organizations—representing a new religious organization itself; but the basis of its creed is orthodox Christianity. It differs from other missionizing efforts in its military organization and in its prosecution of any methods, no matter how unconventional, to further the ends of salvation and conversion and relief. At first, the Army had no separate organization, but in 1869 it took the name of Christian Mission, adopting its present name in 1878. Similarly, the original ecclesiastical nomenclature was later changed to a military one, the government of the Army being along military lines, although the uniforms and the methods vary in the different countries. The United States branch was organized by G. S. Railton in 1889.

In a recent year there were in the United States 957 corps and outposts; 177,159 indoor meetings with an attendance of 6,300,000; 132,229 outdoor meetings with an attendance of almost 18,000,000. There were 32,202 converts, beds were supplied on 2,861,000 occasions to men, women and children, with 3,912,000 meals, and more than 200,000 Christmas dinners were provided. With the entrance of the United States into the World War, the Salvation Army prosecuted its work in the Army and Navy, both at home and abroad.

The Army in the United States is divided into a western and an eastern division, with Evangeline Booth in general control.

In 1896 the Volunteers of America were incorporated in New York by Commander and Mrs. Ballington Booth, as a protest against what was felt to be over-emphasis upon militarism within the Salvation Army, although the work done by both bodies is almost identical.

The international organization of the Salvation Army comprises 9,859 outposts and corps in 63 countries and colonies, preaching salvation in 40 different languages. The Army carries on its endeavors in more than 60 different countries and provinces.

Sam-ahmish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Samana Bay:
- Convention with Dominican Republic for—
  - Lease of, 3999.
  - Transfer of, 3799.
- Possession of, desired by European powers, 4015.
- Proposition of foreign power to purchase right to, referred to, 4017.

Samoan Islands.—A group of fourteen islands in the South Pacific Ocean. The principal islands are Savaii, Upolu, and Tutuila. The United States has a coaling station in the harbor of Pago-Pago, granted in 1872. The neutrality of the islands was guaranteed by the United States, Great Britain, and Germany in 1889 by treaty. This convention of treaty between the three countries provided for a foreign court of justice, a municipal council for the district of Apia, the chief town, with a foreign president thereof, authorized to advise the King; a tribunal for the settlement of native and foreign land titles, and a revenue system for the Kingdom.

In 1899 the kingship was abolished, and by the Anglo-German agreement of Nov. 14, accepted Jan. 14, 1900, by the United States, Great Britain and Germany renounced in favor of the United States all rights in the Island of Tutuila and others of the Samoan group east of 171° east, the islands to the west of that meridian being assigned to Germany. After the World War the former German part of the islands was assigned to New Zealand, under a mandate of the League of Nations.

Tutuila has an area of about 77 square miles, with a population of about 6,000. The other islands of American Samoa have a total area of about 25 miles, with a population of about 2,000. The total population of American Samoa in 1920 was 8,056. Tutuila is mountainous and well-wooded, and its soil is extremely fertile. Its excellent harbor at Pagopago is a United States naval station, the commandant of which is the Governor of the islands.

The islands are governed by means of three political subdivisions—Eastern Tutuila, including Aunuu; Western Tutuila, and the District of Manua, composed of Tau and the neighboring islands. Each district is administered by a native governor, who controls the native chieftains under him. The natives also control their own courts.

The only export and chief product is copra, although fruits also are grown. There are about 50 miles of good roads. There are four religious missions active in the islands, and the 69 schools have an enrollment of more than 2,000.

Samoan Islands:
- Affairs of, and policy of United States regarding—
  - Discussed by President—
    - Cleveland, 5088, 5389, 5391, 5397, 5871, 5963, 6067.
    - Harrison, Benj., 5469, 5545.
    - McKinley, 6414.
  - Reports on, transmitted, 5197, 5367, 5385, 5392, 5395, 5397, 5909, 5911, 6001.
- Application of inhabitants of, for protection of United States, 4116, 4421, 5089.
- Application of Tutuila Island for protection of United States, and offer of naval station by, 4122.
- Autonomy and independence of, should be preserved, 5390.
- Conference regarding, at—
  - Berlin discussed, 5391, 5397, 5469, 5871, 5963.
  - Washington referred to, 5469.
- Government of, discussed, 4563, 6336.
- Insurrection in, discussed, 5871, 5963, 6375, 6428.
- King of, death of, 6336.
- Privileges ceded to United States in harbor of Pago-Pago by—
  - Discussed, 4449, 4522.
  - Referred to, 5367.
- Report on, referred, 4217, 4473.
- Settlement of questions regarding, referred to, 5747.

Special agent to, power of, referred to, 4315, 5382.
Treaty between United States, Great Britain, and Germany regarding, 5469, 5545.
Discussed, 5871, 5963, 6067.
Referred to, 6336.
Treaty with, 4433, 4449.
Tutuila, naval station on, agreement regarding, 4122.
Vessels of United States—
Disabled and destroyed at, 5479.
Sent to, 5390, 5871.
Weakness of, discussed, 5088.

Samoan Islands, Treaties with.—In 1899 a convention was made between the United States, Germany, and Great Britain, relating to settlement of claims of American citizens, German, and British subjects, for damage sustained by unwarranted military action in Samoa. It was agreed that the King of Sweden and Norway should be invited to act as arbitrator therein, and that his decision in the premises be final, and that the three governments be bound to make good the losses in accordance therewith. Oct. 14, 1902, Oscar II., King of Sweden and Norway, as arbitrator, rendered his decision, in which he found the action of the United States culpable in bringing back the Malietoans after deportation, and supplying them with arms and ammunition without the knowledge of the German consul. For this and for other reasons, King Oscar held the British and United States responsible for damages.

The convention of 1899 contained the renunciation by Germany in favor of the United States of all claims and rights in respect to the Island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171 degrees west. The United States renounced all claims and rights in favor of Germany of the islands of Upolu, Savaii, and all other islands of the Samoan group west of longitude 171 degress west. The three signatory nations continue to enjoy equal rights in respect of commerce and commercial vessels in the islands. (See also Germany.)

San Carlos Reservation, Ariz., coal lands on, referred to, 4683.

San Domingo. (See Santo Domingo.)

San Fernando, The, seizure of, and claims arising out of, 4114, 5198, 5547, 5673, 5873, 5962.
Award in case of, 6070.

San Francisco, Cal.:
Cable communication between Pacific coast and Hawaiian Islands recommended. (See Ocean Cables.)
Presidio of, appropriations for buildings at, recommended, 4161.

San Francisco Bay, Cal., floating dock to be constructed at, 2669.

San Gabriel (Cal.), Battle of.—Dec. 29, 1846, Gen. Kearny with 500 men left San Diego for Los Angeles, 145 miles away. Jan. 8, 1847, Flores, acting governor and captain-general, with 600 men and 4 pieces of artillery, was encountered on the commanding heights of San Gabriel, prepared to dispute the passage of the Rio de los Angeles by the Americans. The baggage train and artillery crossed under a harassing fire and then the enemy was charged, and in 10 minutes Kearny was master of the field. One seaman, acting as an artilleryman, was killed and 1 volunteer and 8 seamen wounded, 2 mortally.,

San Jacinto, The:
Collision of, with the *Jules et Marie*, appropriation for owners of latter, recommended, 3343.
Removal by, of Confederate envoys from British vessel *Trent*. (See Mason and Slidell.)

San Juan (Cuba), Battle of. (See Santiago (Cuba), Battle of.)

San Juan, Cuba, captured by American troops, 6317.

San Juan de Fuca Explorations.—Certain explorations on which are based the American claims to possession of territory bordering on the Pacific. The portion of the Pacific Coast between the parallels of lat. 40° and 50° north was visited on behalf of Spain in 1592 by a Greek pilot named De Fuca, in 1640 by Admiral Fonte, and subsequently by other explorers, and maps of the coast line had been made. The treaty of 1790 between Spain and Great Britain only gave the latter fishing and trading rights in the vicinity of Puget Sound. The discovery and exploration of Columbia River by Capt. Gray, an American; the purchase from France in 1803 of the Louisiana territory; the exploration of Columbia River by Lewis and Clark, by order of the United States, in 1804-5, and the treaty of limits concluded with Spain in 1819, by which all the territory north of lat. 42° north was expressly declared to belong to the United States, were held to be sufficient proofs of the latter's title to the territory. Great Britain nevertheless claimed a large portion of the region, while the United States claimed the country to lat. 54° 40′ north. In 1846 the boundary was settled at the forty-ninth parallel as far as the channel between Vancouver Island and the mainland, and from that point on a line through the middle of that channel and the Strait of Juan de Fuca to the Pacific. (See Northwestern Boundary.) Navigation of the channel was to be free to both countries. Under this treaty the United States claimed the Canal de Haro as the channel through which the boundary was to run, and Great Britain claimed Rosario Straits. San Juan and other islands were thus in dispute. To avoid conflict, the occupation by both nations of the Island of San Juan at opposite ends was agreed upon. The Emperor of Germany, who was selected as arbitrator of the dispute, decided in favor of the United States in 1872 (4140). (See also "Fifty-four Forty or Fight.")

San Juan Hill, Battle of, referred to, 6637.

San Juan Hill, Cuba. (Capture of, illustration, opposite page 5950.)

San Juan Island:
Conflicting claims of Great Britain and United States to, discussed, 3092, 3171, 3197.
Settlement of, by arbitration, 4139.
Recommended, 3198, 3213.
Gen. Scott sent to, 3094.

Correspondence of, referred to, 3110.
Joint occupancy of, 3659.
Military force placed on, 3093.
Possession of, awarded United States, 4140.
Referred to, 3110, 3171, 3819.

San Juan, Nicaragua:
Bombardment of, 2778.
Military expedition under authority of Great Britain landed at, discussed, 2903.
Transactions between Capt. Hollins and authorities of, 2760.

San Juan, Porto Rico, shelled by American fleet, 6316.

San Juan Question. (See San Juan de Fuca Explorations.)

San Juan River:
Survey of, to be made, 3444.
Territorial controversies between States bordering on, 2736.

San Nicolas Island, referred to, 6702.

San Remo, Italy, conference of Allied statesmen at, 8854.
Petroleum agreement of, referred to, 8879.

San Salvador. (See Salvador.)

Sanders Creek (S. C.), Battle of.—Generally known as the battle of Camden. In the summer of 1780 Gen. Gates had been appointed to the command of the Southern army, and, reenforced by Baron De Kalb, Armand's Legion, Porterfield's Virginia regiment, and Rutherford's North Carolina militia, his force numbered over 4,000, of whom less than 1,000 were regulars. Cornwallis, with about 2,000 British and Tories, of whom 1,500 were regulars, proposed to surprise Gates's army. Gates had determined to surprise Cornwallis. Both advancing, the two armies unexpectedly met at Sanders Creek, near Camden, S. C., on the night of Aug. 16, 1780. After some skirmishing hostilities were suspended until the morning, when, with the first British attack, the Virginia and South Carolina militia fled, after a feeble resistance, due in part to an imprudent order by Gen. Gates. Baron De Kalb bore the brunt of the battle and fell, being wounded 12 times. The American defeat eventually became a rout. Their loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners was upward of 2,000. The British lost 325 men, 68 of whom were killed. Previous to this action Sumter, with about 400 men, captured a British convoy with stores and 200 prisoners, but was himself surprised the next day by Tarleton, who recaptured the stores, killed 100 men, and took 300 prisoners. The British, in the Camden battle, came into possession of 7 pieces of artillery, 2,000 muskets, the entire baggage train, and nearly 1,000 prisoners, including Generals De Kalb, Gregory, and Rutherford.

Sandusky, Ohio, British attack on, repulsed, 524.

Sandwich Islands. (See Hawaiian Islands.)

Sandy Bay, Mass., harbor of, referred to, 1040.

Sandy Creek (N. Y.), Battle of.—May 19, 1814, while the British squadron on Lake Ontario was blockading Sacketts Harbor, where Commodore Chauncey was fitting out a squadron for active service, certain heavy guns and cables destined for some of the American ships were yet at Oswego Falls. The blockade preventing their being convoyed by water to the harbor, Capt. Woolsey, commander of the *Oneida*, volunteered to transport them by way of the Big Sandy Creek, partly overland, to their destination. Sir James Yeo, of the blockading squadron, sent 2 gunboats, 3 cutters, and a gig to intercept Woolsey. The latter had detailed 130 riflemen and the same number of Oneida Indians to proceed along the banks of the creek to assist in repelling any possible attack. May 30 the British gunboats sighted Woolsey's flotilla and began firing. Within 10 minutes the British squadrons, with officers and men to the number of 170, were prisoners and prizes. Not a single American life was lost. The British loss was 18 killed and 50 wounded. The cannon and cables were safely landed at Sacketts Harbor.

Sanitary Bureau, International, appropriation to, 6823.

Sanitary Conference, International, at—
Rome, 4898, 4918.
Washington, 4564, 4622, 4631, 6737.

San Marino, the smallest republic in the world, and outside of Monaco, the smallest country; lies along the Adriatic, 14 miles southwest of Rimini, in northern Italy. It has an area of 38 English square miles. The population is 12,000. Marino is named in consequence of its traditional foundation by Saint Marinus, in the reign of the Emperor Diocletian (284-305 A. D.) and possesses a monastery founded in the ninth century. The independence of the republic has survived all attempts at suppression and is secured by a treaty with the King of Italy. The supreme power resides in the Arringo, or general assembly, which meets twice a year at the capital, the executive being entrusted to two *Capitani Reggenti*, selected every six months from the sixty members of the Great Council, who are elected by universal suffrage in three classes (twenty from the nobility, twenty from the landowners and twenty from the people) for nine years, and are renewable as to one-third every three years. There is a defence force of about 1,200 men, and all citizens between the ages of sixteen and sixty are liable for service. The last budget was in the neighborhood of 2,000,000 lire. Exports are wine, cattle, and stone. The Capital (San Marino, population 1,500) stands on Mount Titain, and has an impregnable castle.

Santa Fé, N. Mex., capitol at, appropriation for completion of, recommendation regarding, 5872.
Grant of land to, 6872.

Santa Fé Trail.—There is said to be in the ancient palace at Santa Fé a Spanish document proving the existence of a trail in the last quarter of the 18th century from the old French settlements in what is now Illinois, to some of the Spanish towns in New Mexico, and from one of these to California. In 1814 a merchant of Kaskaskia, Ill., dispatched a courier with goods to Santa Fé. In 1822 the Santa Fé trail proper was opened—a wonderful road some 800 miles

in length, rising so imperceptibly for three-quarters of its distance as to seem perfectly level, and without a bridge from end to end. The eastern terminus was first at Franklin, Mo., then at Independence, and later at Westport, on the Missouri River. The early traders carried their merchandise on pack horses or mules, and in 1824 the prairie schooner appeared. Along this road General Kearny and Colonel Doniphan led the expedition which annexed the western states to the Union during the Mexican war. The Santa Fé railroad now closely follows the trail, which was the scene of many stage-coach robberies and Indian attacks. Wagon trains bound for the Pacific coast rendezvoused at Emporia, Kan., whence they were escorted by scouts or military guards.

Santa Maria, The, presented to United States by Spain discussed and recommendation regarding, 5872.

Santa Rosa Island (Fla.), Battle of.—Oct. 9, 1861, a force of 1,500 or 2,000 Confederates landed on Santa Rosa Island, Pensacola Harbor, Fla., and surprised the camp of Wilson's Zouaves about a mile from the fort. Maj. Vogdes was sent to the relief of the camp with two companies. He was captured, but the assailants retired to their boats under the heavy fire of the regulars after setting fire to the camp. The Federal loss was 60 killed and wounded. The Confederate loss was not reported.

Santiago, Cuba:

American army under Maj.-Gen. W. R. Shafter lands near, 6317.

American interests in, confided to British consul, 6331.

Movement against and subsequent capitulation of, discussed, 6317.

Thanks of President tendered commander and men, 6574, 6577.

Postal communication with, order regarding, 6577.

"Slaughter House" at, illustration, opposite 5355.

Santiago (Cuba), Battle of.—On Monday, June 20, 1898, the American fleet of about 55 ships, including the naval convoy which had left Tampa, Fla., on June 7, came within sight of the town of Daiquiri, about fifteen miles east of Santiago, which was the point selected for the landing. Upon landing at Daiquiri, Gen. Wheeler's command of cavalry was ordered to take position on the road to Siboney. Gen. Young's brigade (about 965 men), during the night of June 23-24, passed Gen. Lawton's division, which was on the road from Siboney to Santiago.

About three miles from the former place, near Las Guasimas, June 24, they encountered the enemy posted in a strong natural position. The Spanish forces occupied a range of hills in the form of obtuse angles, with the salient toward Siboney. The attack, says Gen. Young, of both wings was simultaneous, and the junction of the two lines occurred near the apex of the angle, on the ridge, which had been fortified with stone breastworks flanked by blockhouses. The Spanish were driven from their position and fled precipitately toward Santiago. The American forces numbered about 965, the Spanish 2,000 to 2,500. American losses, 1 officer and 15 men killed; 6 officers and 46 men wounded. Forty-two dead Spanish soldiers were found on the field, while the Santiago (Spanish) papers the day after the battle gave their loss as 77 killed.

After this battle the Spaniards retired to the outer defenses of Santiago. These were the village of El Caney to the northeast, and the San Juan Hill extending south from that village and forming a natural barrier to the eastward of the city. July 1 these defenses were attacked by forces under Gen. Lawton, who was expected to take El Caney and then move toward Santiago and support the attack of Wheeler's and Kent's divisions upon the main Spanish army. The battle began at 6 A. M. and soon became general. The enemy fought with much obstinacy, but were slowly driven back. After Lawton had become well engaged, Grimes's battery, from the heights of El Poso, opened fire on the San Juan blockhouses, and Wheeler's and Kent's divisions moved forward, crossed the river, and formed for an attack on San Juan Hill. During this formation Col. Wikoff was killed. The command of the Second Brigade then devolved upon Lieut.-Col. Worth, who was soon severely wounded, and then upon Lieut.-Col. Liscum, who fell a few minutes later, and Lieut.-Col. Ewers took command. The Spaniards strongly intrenched upon the hills in front of the American forces, San Juan Hill and Fort San Juan, the latter position being a few hundred yards nearer Santiago.

The American forces charged up San Juan Hill in the face of a heavy fire, captured this point, crossed the plain below, and charged Fort San Juan, driving the enemy before them. At midnight of July 1 Gen. Bates arrived with reenforcements, and at daylight on the 2d his brigade was placed on the ridge to the left of the American lines. Gen. Lawton's forces were placed on the right. All day a brisk fire was kept up by the two armies, part of the time in a drenching rain. At nightfall the firing ceased, but at 9 P. M. a vigorous assault was made all along the lines, which was repulsed, the Spaniards retiring to their trenches. The following morning firing was resumed and continued until near noon, when a white flag was displayed by the enemy.

The total losses of the American forces during the three days' fighting (July 1, 2, and 3) were: Officers killed, 13; privates, 87; officers wounded, 36; privates, 561; missing, 62. The entire strength of the command which fought the battle of San Juan was 362 officers and 7,391 privates. The defenses of Santiago were constructed with much engineering skill, as were also the batteries in the harbor. The city was at once surrounded by the American army, so that the Spaniards could not escape. The ridge upon which the Americans were stationed was favorably located and overlooked the city. The fortifications and barbed wire fences could easily be seen. The Spaniards seemed to realize that their condition was hopeless, and on Sunday morning, July 3, their fleet steamed out of the harbor. The destruction of this fleet was complete.

On the 16th Gen. Toral informed the American commander that the Spanish Government at Madrid had authorized the surrender, and thereupon final terms of absolute capitulation were duly signed. The conditions of the surrender included all forces and war material in the division of Santiago. The United States agreed to transport, without unnecessary delay, all the Spanish troops in the district to Spain. Officers were to retain their side arms and officers and men their personal property.

The Spanish commander was authorized to take the military archives of the district. The Spanish forces were to march out of Santiago with honors of war and deposit their arms at a point to be mutually agreed upon, to await the disposition of the United States Government, etc. The troops surrendered and returned to Spain were about 24,000.

Illustrations of the battle will be found opposite pages 5699 and 5950.

A view of the surrender of Santiago will be found opposite page 6357.

Santiago Harbor, Cuba:

Forts at mouth of, shelled by American squadron, 6316.

Spanish fleet in, 6316.

Attempting to escape, destroyed by American squadron, 6317. (See also encyclopedic article, Santiago Harbor, Battle of.)

Thanks of President tendered officers and men of American squadron, 6573.

The *Merrimac* sunk in, by Lieut. Hobson, 6305, 6316.

Naval Cadet Powell to be made ensign for attempting to rescue force of, 6306.

Thanks of President to Lieut. Hobson and promotion of, recommended, 6306.

Santiago Harbor (Cuba), Battle of.—This engagement, which is also known as the battle of July 3, was the decisive naval combat of the Spanish-American War. For six weeks the Spanish fleet under Rear-Admiral Pascual Cervera had been imprisoned in the harbor of Santiago by the American blockading squadron in command of Acting Rear-Admiral Sampson. On the morning of July 3, 1898, at about 9.30 o'clock, while the men of the American vessels were at Sunday quarters for inspection, the Spanish fleet, consisting of the *Infanta Maria Teresa, Vizcaya, Cristobal Colon, Almirante Oquendo, Pluton,* and *Furor,* attempted to escape. The ships, coming out of the harbor at the rate of eight or ten knots an hour, passed without difficulty the collier *Merrimac,* which had been sunk in the channel by Lieut. Hobson. Signals were at once made from the United States vessels, "Enemy's ships escaping," and general quarters were sounded. Rear-Admiral Sampson being about seven miles from the scene of battle, the command of the American vessels during the engagement devolved upon Commodore Schley. Under his direction, the squadron closed in on the fleeing vessels, and in about two hours the entire Spanish fleet was destroyed. The Spanish losses were 600 killed and about 1,400 prisoners, including the admiral. The loss on the American side was 1 killed and 1 wounded, while not a vessel was materially damaged. From this crushing defeat Spain was unable to recover, and her effort upon the ocean ceased. (See illustration opposite page 5731.)

Santo Domingo.—The Republic occupies the eastern part of the island of Haiti, covering 19,332 square miles of its total area of 29,537 square miles, or slightly less than two-thirds of the whole island, the remainder forming the Republic of Haiti (*q. v.*), and lies between 17° 37′-20° N. latitude and 72°-68° 20′ W. longitude.

Physical Features and Climate.—Santo Domingo is distinctly mountainous. The highest point in the republic is Loma Tina (10,300 feet), an isolated mountain in the south of the island. Between the Sierra de Monti Cristi in the north and that of Cibao in the center is a vast well-watered plain, known as the Vega Real, from Samaná Bay in the east to Manzanillo Bay in the west, a distance of close on 150 miles. In the southeast is another great plain, stretching from Ozanam River to the east coast, about 100 miles distant.

The principal rivers are the Yaqui del Norte and the Yaqui del Sur, which rise on either side of the central range and flow into the Bays of Manzanillo (northwest) and Neyba (south), and the Yuna, which drains the Vega Real and flows into Samaná Bay; the Ozama, upon which the capital stands, is the most important of the lesser streams. The republic lies entirely with the tropics, but the climate has a wide range on account of the diversity of levels, and the capital, in particular, is healthy and comparatively cool. Rainfall is abundant and the wet and dry seasons are clearly marked. The prevailing wind is from the east, and the island is generally free from hurricanes.

History.—The Dominican Republic is the Spanish portion of the island of Haiti (or Santo Domingo), which was discovered by Columbus in 1492 and peopled by the Spaniards with imported African slaves, who soon exterminated the Indian tribes. In 1821 an independent republic was proclaimed and the Spaniards abandoned the country, but from 1822-1844 the territory was made part of the neighboring republic of Haiti. The Dominican Republic was founded in 1844, with a constitution which has since been re-proclaimed a number of times. In 1916, disorders on the island induced the United States Government to intervene, and the native government of the island was largely superseded by a military government of the United States Navy. In 1920, it was announced that steps were being taken looking to the withdrawal of the armed occupation.

The population is estimated at 955,160. The city of Santo Domingo, with a present population of about 27,000, was founded in 1496, and thus is the oldest city in the New World. Recent figures show about 900 public schools, with some 100,000 pupils.

The President is chosen by an electoral college for a period of six years. There is no vice-president, and in case of the President's death or inability, Congress designates a person to take the executive office. The President has a cabinet of seven members, who head the executive departments.

Congress consists of a Senate and a Chamber of Deputies. The Senate contains one member from each province, and the Chamber twice that number, the houses thus numbering twelve and twenty-four, elected in each case by indirect vote, Senators for six years, one-third renewable every two years, Deputies for four years, one-half so renewable.

Each of the twelve Provinces is administered by a Governor appointed by the President. The governing classes are mainly white.

There are three main elements in the population, the most numerous being mulattoes of Spanish-Negro descent, with many full-blooded negro descendants of slaves imported by Spain from the sixteenth to

the nineteenth centuries, and native-born and settled whites, principally Spanish, but partly French and English, with a few Turkish Christians from Turkey. The religion of the country is Roman Catholic, but all creeds are tolerated. Spanish is the language of the Republic, with a sprinkling of French and English in the towns.

Finance.—In 1907 the Republic ratified a treaty with the United States, under which the latter country collects the customs and acts as an intermediary between the Dominican Republic and its foreign creditors. A recent figure for the foreign debt was $15,290,613, composed of $7,069,613 of the bond issue of 1908, $1,521,000 of the issue of 1918 and $6,700,000 of the 1922 issue.

Until 1919, the revenue came chiefly from the customs, the total revenue in that year being about $8,700,000. In 1919, a property tax was instituted, and recent budgets have been around $10,000,000. The unit of value is the United States gold dollar, but there is a silver peso valued nominally at twenty cents.

Production and Industry.—The plains of the Republic and, in particular, the Vega Real and Santiago valley in the north, and Los Llanos or the plain of Seybo in the southeast, are well watered and extraordinarily fertile, and contain the finest sugar lands in the West India Islands, while the mountainous districts are especially suited to the culture of coffee, and tropical fruits may be grown throughout the Republic with a minimum of attention. The sugar industry is in a flourishing condition, and the exports are increasing and cacao is now the second most important industry; coffee, cotton, tobacco, and rice are grown with variable success. The country abounds in timber, including mahogany and other cabinet woods and dye-woods, but the industry is undeveloped and transport facilities are lacking. There is much raising of cattle.

Gold and silver were formerly exported in large quantities, and platinum is known to exist, while iron, copper, tin, antimony, and manganese are also found; but copper is the only metal now produced, and one gold-washing plant is in course of construction. Of the non-metallic minerals the principal production is salt, of which great quantities exist in the Neyba district of the south.

About 65% of the area is cultivable, with 15% more suitable for grazing. About 200,000 tons of sugar, 50,000,000 pounds of cocoa, and 10,000,000 pounds of tobacco are produced annually. There is also some exportation of cocoanuts.

In a recent year, imports were valued at about $24,500,000, more than three-fourths from the United States. In order of value, the chief imports were foodstuffs, iron and steel manufactures, cotton goods. In the same year, the exports were valued at about $20,500,000, chiefly to the United States. In order of value, the chief exports were sugar, cocoa and tobacco.

In the fiscal year 1923, the United States exported to Santo Domingo goods valued at $11,808,262 and imported thence goods valued at $5,166,754.

Communications.—The two public railroad lines have a total length of 153 miles. There are about 255 miles of private railroads on the estates. There are few good roads in the interior.

In a recent year, about 850 vessels entered in the foreign trade and 775 cleared. The tonnage of the former was about 1,100,000 and of the latter, about 985,000.

There are 58 postal and telegraph offices and 29 post offices. The telegraph, run by a French company, is about 300 miles long and the Government telephone sytem has a total length of about 1,000 miles.

Santo Domingo:
Annexation of, to United States—
Discussed by President—
Grant, 4006, 4015, 4053, 4082, 4176, 4365.
Johnson, 3886.
Roosevelt, 6997.
Report of Secretary of State on, transmitted, 4072.
Treaty for, submitted, 4000, 4015.
Failure of ratification of, discussed, 4053, 4176, 4365.
President declines to communicate privileges relating to, 4012.
Referred to, 4006, 4082.
Views of Cabral on, communicated to Senate, 4071.
Application of, to United States to exercise protectorate over, referred to, 4193.
Claim of United States against, 6329.
Claims of citizens of United States to guano on Alta Vela Island, 3827.
Colony of negroes on coast of, order regarding return of, 3433.
Commerce with restraints on, removed, 278, 280, 285, 292, 294.
Complaints of France against, 379.
Commercial relations with, 287, 773, 5663.
Condition and resources of, report on, 4009, 4070, 4071.
Creditors of, to be paid under the direction of United States, 6950.
Customs of—
Collection of, rules for, 8976, 8978.
Receivership in, commended, 7416.
Taken over by United States, 6997, 6999.
Benefits of, 6998.
Diplomatic intercourse with, provision for, recommended, 4083.
Economic condition of, 6997.
Elections in, provided for, 8976.
Evacuation of, arrangements for, 8977, 9152.
Export of coal and arms to, forbidden, 6968.
Financial obligations of, guarantees fixed concerning, 8976, 8978.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 3669.
Imprisonment of American citizens by authorities of, 4004, 4013.
Incorporation of, with Spanish Monarchy referred to, 3233.
Instructions to naval officers in command on coast of, referred to, 4023, 4075.

Minister of United States to, nominated, 2909.
Monroe Doctrine, relation of, to case of, 6997.
Occupation of, by United States forces, discussed and end of, promised, 8902.
Payment of moneys claimed to be due, from United States referred to, 4382.
Peace concluded between contending parties in, 2658.
Political condition of, referred to, 773.
Proposition of foreign power to purchase, referred to, 4017.
Report of George B. McClellan on, transmitted, 4071.
Revolution in, referred to, 3826, 6427.
Samaná Bay, convention for transfer of. (See Samaná Bay.)
Social condition of, discussed, 3885.
Tariff laws of, evidence of modifications of proclaimed, 5587.
Referred to, 5615, 5747.
Treaty with, transmitted and discussed, 3669, 4826, 4842, 4921, 6950, 8903.
Withdrawn, 4888, 4922.
Vessel of United States fired upon at Azua, 6095.
War in, discussed, 2619, 3445, 6365.
Peace concluded, 2658.

Santo Domingo, Treaties with.—A convention of amity, commerce and navigation and for the surrender of fugitive criminals was concluded with the Dominican Republic in 1867. This provided for reciprocal privileges of citizens and the exchange of diplomatic and consular officers, and the extradition of criminals. This convention terminated Jan. 13, 1898, on notice from the Dominican Republic.

In 1903, by an arbitration protocol the claim of the San Domingo Improvement Company of New York was submitted to a board of arbitrators consisting of John G. Carlisle, Manuel de J. Galvan and Judge George Gray. These rendered an award July 14, 1904, providing for the redelivery of the various properties to the Dominican Republic and the payment by the republic of $4,481,250 in monthly instalments to the financial agent of the United States and for the security for such payments the customs revenues and customs houses of Puerto Plata, Sanchez, Samaná and Montecristy, and all other ports of entry or custom houses now existing or as might thereafter be established on the coast or in the interior north of eighteen degrees and forty-five minutes and east of the Haitian boundary, were to be assigned and designated, which custom houses were to be turned over to a financial agent, to be appointed by the United States, who was to have entire charge of such custom houses and of the collection of the revenues therefrom.

Receiver of Customs.—In 1907 a convention was concluded providing for the assistance of the United States in the collection and application of the customs revenues of the republic. In the preamble to this treaty it is stated that owing to the disturbed political conditions of the country, debts and claims had been created to the amount of more than $30,000,000, and that these same conditions had prevented the peaceable and continuous collection of revenue, and that the debts were continually increasing. Fiscal agents of the republic effected a compromise whereby all its foreign creditors agreed to accept $12,407,000 for debts and claims amounting to about $21,184,000 of nominal or face value, and the holders of internal debts or claims of about $2,028,258 nominal or face value agreed to accept about $645,817 therefor, and the remaining holders of internal debts or claims on the same basis as the assents already given will receive about $2,400,000 therefor, which sum the Dominican Government fixed upon as the amount which it will pay to such remaining internal debt-holders; making the total payments under such adjustment and settlement, including interest as adjusted and claims not yet liquidated, amount to not more than about $17,000,000.

Part of the plan of settlement was the issue and sale of bonds of the Dominican Republic to the amount of $20,000,000, bearing five per cent interest payable in fifty years and redeemable after ten years at 102½. It was agreed that the President of the United States should appoint a receiver to collect all the customs duties accruing in the several custom houses of the Dominican Republic until the payment and retirement of any and all bonds thus issued. It is also provided that until the whole of the public debt is paid no further obligations shall be incurred and no modification of internal or customs duties shall be made, except with the consent of the President of the United States.

Santo Dominigo also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Santo Domingo City, building of Ozama River bridge at, by American citizens, 5784.

Sao Thomé. (See Portugal.)

Saratoga, Battle. (See Bemis Heights.)

Sarawak.—A division of British Borneo. (See Borneo.)

Sardinia.—A large Italian island possession in the Mediterranean Sea west of the Italian peninsula. It has an area of 9,300 square miles and a population of almost 900,000.

Sardinia:
Commercial relations with, 820.
Treaty with, 1729, 1749, 1916.

Sarre Valley, disposition of, discussed, 8732.

Sassacus, The, engagement with the *Albemarle* referred to, 3411.

Sault Ste. Marie Canal, passage of English or Canadian steamer through, referred to, 4014. (See also Canals.)

Savages Station (Va.), Battle of.—One of the Seven Days' Battles before Richmond. June 29, 1862, Sumner and Heint-

zelman retired from Fair Oaks and took up a position near Savages Station, on the Richmond and York River Railroad. After destroying the supplies there, Heintzelman moved south across the swamp. Magruder, in pursuit, finding Fair Oaks abandoned, advanced to Savages Station and made an attack on Sumner's corps in the afternoon. The latter maintained his ground till dark. During the night he retreated into the White Oak Swamp, leaving 2,500 sick and wounded in the hospital at the station.

Savannah (Ga.), British Occupation of.—Nov. 27, 1778, Commodore Hyde Parker convoyed a fleet of transports to Savannah, which carried about 3,500 British soldiers. The troops landed at Tybee Island, fifteen miles from Savannah, and captured the city Dec. 29. The American force under Gen. Robert Howe consisted of about 800 Continentals and 400 militia. The British loss was officially reported as 3 killed and 10 wounded. Eighty-three American dead and 11 wounded were found on the field. Some 450 were taken prisoners, while the others retreated up the Savannah River and reached South Carolina. Forty-eight cannon, 23 mortars, 94 barrels of powder, and a large quantity of provisions fell into the hands of the British.

Savannah (Ga.), Fall of. (See Fort McAllister, Ga.)

Savannah (Ga.), Siege of.—In 1779 Washington sent Gen. Lincoln to take command of the army in the South, and requested Count d'Estaing, in command of the French fleet in American waters, to cooperate in an effort to retake Savannah, Ga., Sept. 16, 1779; the latter appeared off Savannah with 33 vessels and 6,000 men. After the capture of 2 frigates and 2 storeships a regular siege was commenced by the allies. The city was defended by a force of about 3,000 British troops under Gen. Prevost. On the morning of Oct. 9, 1779, about 3,500 French and 850 Americans advanced to the attack. The fighting was fierce for nearly an hour, when the assailants gave way after a loss of nearly 1,000 men. Count Pulaski was killed and Count d'Estaing was wounded. The loss to the garrison was only 56 in killed and wounded. Next to Bunker Hill this fight was the bloodiest of the war.

Savannah River, survey of, referred to, 1128.

Savings Banks. (See Banks, Savings.)

Saxony.—A republic of Germany, bounded on the north and east by Prussia, on the south by Czecho-Slovakia, and on the west by Bavaria and several small German states. It is noted for its rich mines of coal, iron, silver, tin, lead, etc., and is primarily an industrial region.

Its area is 5,787 square miles, and its pre-war population, about 4,980,000. The great majority of the people are Lutherans. The leading cities, with their 1910 populations, are as follows: Leipzig, 613,940; Dresden, 551,697; Chemnitz, 301,099.

Saxony entered the North German Federation in 1866 and the German Empire in 1871, proclaiming itself a republic on November 9, 1918.

The chief crops raised before the War were potatoes, rye, oats, wheat. The average annual coal production ran to 5,000,000 tons, with 6,500,000 tons of lignite.

The name Saxony also is applied to the republic (former Grand Duchy) of Saxe-Weimar, one of the states of Germany, with an area of 1,394 square miles and a population of about 425,000; and to one of the provinces of Prussia, which has an area of 5,787 square miles and a population of 3,150,000.

Saxony, convention with, 2267.

Saxony, Treaties with.—The convention of 1845 abolished the *droit d'aubaine* and all other taxes on emigration; provided for a period of two years in which an alien may close up the affairs of a legator from whom by alienage he is unable to inherit or hold property; settled questions of the disposal and holding of property by aliens, and the settlement of disputes concerning the same. (See Germany, Treaties with.)

Schedule K. (See Tariff, Wool.)

Scheldt Dues, discussed and treaty regarding, 3381, 3395, 3459.

Schleswig-Holstein. (See Slesvig-Holstein.)

School Children urged to join Red Cross, 8358.

School Hygiene, International Congress of, appropriation urged for, 7841.

Schools. (See Education; Indian Schools.)

Schuylkill Arsenal, at Philadelphia, appropriation for, recommended, 4785.

Science and Art:
- Promotion of advocated, 58, 60, 61, 194, 878.
- Tariff discriminations against foreign works of art, 4794, 4824, 4826, 5091.

Sciences, National Academy of. (See National Academy of Sciences.)

Scientific Work of Government, coordination of, 7105.

Scotan Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Scotland. (See Great Britain.)

Scutari, disposition of territory around, 8838.

Sea Areas, Defensive, established, 8234, 8240, 8338.

Sea Witch, The, wreck of, near Cuba, 2907.

Seacoast Defenses. (See Defenses, Public.)

Seal Fisheries. (See Alaska, Bering Sea Fisheries, Great Britain, claims against, and Russia, claims against.)

Seal of United States.—Immediately after the declaration of independence a committee was appointed to prepare a device for the great seal of the United States. The committee consisted of Benjamin Franklin, John Adams, and Thomas Jefferson. They reported various devices during several years. William Barton, of Philadelphia, was appointed to submit designs. Sir John Prestwich, an English antiquarian, suggested a design to John Adams in 1779. It was not until June 20, 1782, however, that a seal was adopted. This was by the Congress of the Confederation. It was a combination of the various designs of Barton and Prestwich, and consisted of: Arms—

Paleways of thirteen pieces argent and gules; a chief azure; the escutcheon on the breast of the American eagle displayed proper, holding in his dexter talon an olive branch and in his sinister a bundle of thirteen arrows, and in his beak a scroll with the motto *E Pluribus Unum* (out of many, one). Crest—A glory *or* (gold) breaking through a cloud proper and surrounding thirteen stars, forming a constellation *argent* (silver) on an azure field. Reverse —A pyramid unfinished, symbolizing the strength and growth of the states; in the zenith an eye in a triangle surrounded with a glory proper; over the eye, around the rim, the words *Annuis coeptis* (God has favored the undertaking); beneath the pyramid MDCCLXXVI and the words *Novus ordo sæclorum* (a new order of things). This seal has never been changed, and is in charge of the Secretary of State.

The seal is stamped upon all signatures of the President, attested by the Secretary of State.

Accompanying the report and adopted by Congress were the following remarks and explanation: "The escutcheon is composed of the chief and pale, the two most honorable ordinaries. The pieces pales represent the several states all joined in one solid compact entire, supporting a chief which unites the whole and represents Congress. The motto alludes to this union. The pales in the arms are kept closely united by the chief, and the chief depends on that union and the strength resulting from it for its support, to denote the confederacy of the United States of America and the preservation of their union through Congress. The colors of the pales are those used in the flag of the United States of America; white signifies purity and innocence; red, hardiness and valor; and blue, the color of the chief, signifies vigilant perseverance and justice. The olive branch and arrows denote the power of peace and war, which is exclusively vested in Congress. The constellation denotes a new state taking its place and rank among other sovereign powers. The escutcheon is borne on the breast of an American eagle without any other supporters, to denote that the United States of America ought to rely on their own virtue. The pyramid on the reverse signifies strength and duration. The eye over it and the motto allude to the many signal interpositions of Providence in favor of the American cause. The date underneath is that of the Declaration of Independence, and the words under it signify the beginning of the new American era which commences from that date."

Seals, Fur:

International dispute concerning. (See Bering Sea Fisheries and Paris Tribunal.)

Preservation of, discussed, 7063, 7477, 7540, 7823.

Treaty on, progress, details and enforcement of, discussed, 7410, 7670, 7779, 7823, 7877.

Seamen, American:

Appropriation for relief of, 472.

Captured by Tripolitans, 356.

Impressment of, by—

Chile, 2772.

Great Britain, 383, 430, 495, 934, 2016.

Account of J. B. Cutting for expenditures incurred in liberating, 108.

Japan, convention with regarding shipwrecked seamen, 4561.

Tripolitans captured by captain and crew of the frigate *Philadelphia*, 356.

Maltreatment of, on ships plying between New York and Aspinwall, 3413.

Number of, on vessels, 374.

Outrages committed upon, by pirates in West Indies and Gulf of Mexico, 765.

Pirates, outrages on, 765.

Protection for, measure providing, proposed, 6348.

Relief of—

Agent appointed for, 192.

Appropriation for, 472.

Convention with Japan regarding shipwrecked seamen, 4561.

Provision for, 343.

Recommended, 6333.

When discharged abroad recommended, 331.

Rights of, in foreign part, 8091.

Shipment and discharge of, 4740.

Wages of, payment of, regulated, 8860.

Welfare act suspended, 8101.

Seamen's Act.—The La Follette bill to promote the welfare of American seamen in the merchant marine of the United States was one of the much discussed administration measures of the Sixty-third Congress. It was signed by President Wilson, March 4, 1915.

General provisions fix the percentage of a crew that must be able seamen, the percentage of each department that must understand the language of the officers, and define seamen as men over nineteen years old having had three years' experience of a specified kind.

Perhaps the most important provision in the act imposes upon foreign vessels leaving American ports the same requirements as to life-saving appliances as are demanded of American ships. All ships built after July 1, 1915, must carry life-saving equipment for all persons on board, of which 75 per cent must be regular lifeboats and not more than 25 per cent life rafts or collapsible lifeboats. For the lake and river steamers a distinction is recognized between the excursion season, from May 15 to Sept. 16, when the restrictions are somewhat relaxed.

Another provision affecting foreign as well as American seamen is that providing that seamen reaching American ports may demand and receive half of their pay already earned. If this demand is refused the seaman is freed from his contract and is then entitled to all he has earned up to that time.

Other provisions abolish arrest and imprisonment as a penalty for desertion, and seek to abrogate treaty provisions in relation thereto.

All the selected countries except Japan have laws requiring adequate quarters for the crew. Germany has since 1905 required 123 cubic feet of air space in the sleeping quarters for each sailor, and France has required the same space since 1908. England fixed its requirement at 120 feet in 1907, and Norway adopted this minimum in

1909. Requirements for American vessels were not raised to 120 feet until 1915.

Seamen's Act:
Discussed, 9162.
Operation of, suspended, 8101.

Seamew, The, satisfaction due for detention of, admitted by Great Britain, 2111.

Seaport Towns, protection for. (See Defenses, Public, provision for.)

Search, Right of. (See Right of Search.)

Seas, Freedom of the. (See Freedom of the Seas.)

Seat of Government:
Boundaries of, referred to and proclaimed, 86, 192, 194.
Removal of, from Philadelphia to Washington, 281, 295, 298, 299, 300.

Seattle Post-Intelligencer, statement in, regarding land elimination in Alaska, 7612.

Sebois River, referred to, 1128.

Secession.—The act of going aside or withdrawing, as from a religious or political organization. The word has received world-wide notoriety from its use in connection with the secession of certain of the United States from the Union in 1860 and 1861. After the adoption of the Constitution in 1787 the idea of the sovereignty of the individual states remained familiar to the minds of many Americans. The Federalists of New England made threats of secession in 1811 and 1814, and secession was generally looked upon as an available remedy for Federal aggression. This claim has been advanced, directly or indirectly by many of the states in turn and has on such occasions usually been condemned by the others as treasonable. It was involved in or explicitly put forward by the Kentucky Resolutions, the Hartford Convention, and the South Carolina Nullification Ordinance (q. v.). While Jefferson condemned "secission," some of his writings admitted it to be a remedy of the last resort. As agitation against slavery became more intense secession was looked upon as the right and destiny of the southern states. South Carolina was ready to secede in 1850. The Nullification Ordinance of 1832 and other measures passed by that state were early steps in that direction.

Gen. Jackson, then President, felt that such a power lodged in a state would be fatal to the Union and altogether unconstitutional. His emphatic opposition, as expressed in his military preparations, as well as his strong message and proclamation on nullification, in 1833 (1166, 1203), checked this feeling for a time, but the postponement to a final test was perhaps chiefly due to the unpopularity of the nullification doctrine among the states-rights people themselves. Another reason why the South Carolina nullification movement was stopped was the adoption by Congress of the Clay-Calhoun compromise tariff bill, which gave satisfaction to the nullifiers and their states-rights friends in the south who did not accept nullification as a rightful or expedient remedy.

The secession doctrine was revived on the election of Lincoln in 1860. Many of the southern people felt that the triumph of the Republican party meant the adoption of a policy of such interference with the institution of slavery as to make it impossible for the southern states any longer to secure and enjoy their constitutional rights, within the Union.

Accordingly, Dec. 20, 1860, after the election of Lincoln, South Carolina, by convention, passed an ordinance repealing her adoption of the Constitution in 1788, and reviving her independence. Mississippi seceded Jan. 9, 1861; Florida, Jan. 10; Alabama, Jan. 11; Georgia, Jan. 19; Louisiana, Jan. 26; Texas, Feb. 1; Virginia, April 17; Arkansas, May 6; North Carolina, May 20; Tennessee, June 8, all by conventions. Opposition to secession in many states was based rather upon the ground of inexpediency than unconstitutionality. The National Government never recognized the validity of the ordinances of secession adopted by the southern states.

Secession:
Ordinance of South Carolina, facsimile of, 3103.
Right of, discussed, 3159, 3186, 3206, 3221.

Second Assistant Postmaster-General. (See Assistant Postmasters-General.)

Second Assistant Secretary of State.—This office, created in 1866, carries an annual salary of $4,500. It has direction of the passport and visa activities of the State Department and makes decisions and gives advice in cases involving citizenship, diplomatic procedure, international law and the traditional policy of the Department. The Second Assistant Secretary of State is appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate.

Second Assistant Secretary of Labor.—This office, created in 1922, in addition to general assistance in the administration of the Labor Department, has direct supervision over the Immigration Service.

Second-class Mail Matter. (See Postal Service, Second Class Mail.)

Secret Diplomacy denounced, 8230.

Secret Lodges, proclamation against lawless incursions of, on northern frontier, 1925.

Secret Service.—The Secret Service of the United States is under the Department of the Treasury and is directly under charge of the assistant secretary of the treasury. The first formal appropriation for this service was made in 1865, to the amount of $100,000 included in the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill.

The original purpose of the Secret Service organization was that of detecting counterfeiting, but its functions have been enlarged and widened.

The Secret Service force has been called upon to protect the Presidents, especially after the assassination of McKinley; to gather evidence against violators of the Customs Laws and the Excise Laws; to gather evidence against land frauds, resulting in many arrests and convictions, as well as in the recovery to the United States of vast tracts of land illegally acquired by private individuals and public officials; and to gather evidence against violators of the anti-trust laws and generally against violators of any Federal Statutes.

An auxiliary arm of the Secret Service in the Department of Justice, directly under the administrative branch, is the Bureau of Investigation. Another auxiliary force consists of the Post-Office Inspectors, work-

ing under the Post-Office Department. Each of the departments can avail itself of the services of the Secret Service Department for detecting criminals.

During the Spanish-American War the confidential agents of Spain were detected by the Secret Service and evidence procured which caused the expulsion from Canada of the Spanish Legation, members of which were acting as spies.

During a recent year there were 510 arrests made by or under the direction of the Secret Service agents. Note raisers and check forgers accounted for many of these cases. Counterfeit notes to the value of $22,839 and counterfeit coin to the amount of $16,187 were seized, together with 157 plates, 15 dies, 110 molds and miscellaneous counterfeiting apparatus. In addition, the Service investigated many cases of thefts of Government property, violation of the laws relating to customs, gold exports, etc.

Secret Service:
Amendment to law a benefit to criminals, 7225.
Assertion that Congress did not wish to be investigated by, 7226.
Complaint of amendments to law, 7225.
Defense of use of Secret Service men in discovering land frauds, 7245.
Evidence of land and timber frauds secured by, 7225.
Increase in salary of chief of, recommended, 7253.
Land frauds investigated by, 7249.
Report of special committee on President's message relating to, 7238.
Senator and member of Congress indicted on evidence secured by, 7226.

Secret Treaties between Entente Allies in World War discussed, 8703, 8830, 8836, 8839.

Secretaries.—By a series of acts passed in the early part of 1781 Congress organized the Government under several Departments, at the head of which were placed secretaries with duties similar to those of the secretaries of the British Government. The Secretary of the Navy was originally the Secretary of Marine. The Secretary of the Treasury was originally the Superintendent of Finance. Now all the heads of Departments, ten in number, are denominated secretaries, except the Attorney-General and the Postmaster-General. (See also Cabinet; Presidential Succession, and Administration.) The duties and powers of the several secretaries are described under the departments which they administer.

Secretary of Agriculture, Commerce, Interior, Labor, State, Treasury, War. (See Agriculture, Commerce, Interior, Labor, Navy, State, Treasury, War Departments.)

Secrets, Official, no punishment for divulging, 7003.

Sectionalism, evil effects of, 208, 209.

Securities, Issue of, government supervision of, urged by President—
Roosevelt, 7194.
Wilson, 8771.
(See also War Finance Corporation.)

Sedition Law.—In 1798, when war between the United States and France was imminent, there were in the United States by estimate 30,000 Frenchmen organized into clubs, and 50,000 sympathizers with France, who had been English subjects. Many of the newspapers of the country at the time were controlled by aliens, mostly French, English, Irish, and Scotch refugees. Those alien residents who sympathized with France—the larger number—attacked the Government fiercely through the press for its attitude toward that country. In order to restrain this feeling, which excited bitter animosity among those Americans who resented the French attitude toward the United States, the Federalists in control of Congress passed the famous alien and sedition acts. The sedition act of July 14, 1798, was modeled on two English acts of 1795. It provided heavy fines and imprisonment for any who should combine or conspire against the operations of the Government, or should write, print, or publish any "false, scandalous, and malicious writings" against it or either House of Congress or the President, with intent to bring contempt upon them or to stir up sedition.

The penalties imposed were fines of $5,000 and five years' imprisonment, and $2,000 and two years' imprisonment, respectively. This, as well as the alien act, was regarded by the Republican party as unconstitutional and subversive of the liberty of press and speech. They called forth the Virginia and Kentucky resolutions (q. v.). The sedition act expired in 1801. (See also Alien and Sedition Laws.)

For the regulations concerning and the definition of sedition during the war against the Central Powers, see Espionage Law.

Seed Distribution:
Act making special, in draught-stricken counties in Texas, vetoed, 5142.
Recommendations regarding, 5888, 5982, 6171.

Seigniorage:
Act for coinage of, vetoed, 5915.
Discussed, 5875.

Seizures. (See Vessels, United States.)

Selden, Withers & Co., reimbursement of Indians on account of failure of, recommended, 2836.

Selective Service Law. (See Draft.)

Self-determination of Nationalities. (See Nationality.)

Seminaries of Learning (see also Education; National University):
Establishment of, discussed and recommended, 470, 878.
Power to establish should be conferred upon Congress, 587.

Seminole Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Seminole Wars.—After the War of 1812 the combined British and Indian stronghold known as the Negro Fort, on the Appalachicola River, was a constant menace to the Georgia settlers. During 1817 there were several massacres of whites. Gen. E. P. Gaines was intrusted with the task of

subjugating the Indians. He destroyed an Indian village on the refusal of the inhabitants to surrender certain murderers, and the Indians retaliated by waylaying a boat ascending the Appalachicola with supplies for Fort Scott and killing 34 men and a number of women. Gen. Jackson took the field against the Indians in January, 1818, and in a sharp campaign of six months defeated them completely, destroying their villages and driving them from every stronghold. Among the prisoners taken were two English subjects, Arbuthnot and Ambrister, who were charged with inciting the Indians to hostilities. These were tried by court-martial and hanged.

Jackson pursued the Indians into Florida, which was then Spanish territory, captured Pensacola and St. Marks, deposed the Spanish government, and set up an American administration. This territory was later returned to Spain, but the outgrowth of the incident was the cession of Florida to the United States in satisfaction of the latter's claims, and the payment to Spain besides of $5,000,000 The second Seminole war was the most stubborn and bloody in all the Indian wars. It originated in the refusal of part of the tribe to cede their lands to the whites and remove to the Indian Territory. Osceola, one of the chiefs opposed to immigration, was placed in irons by Gen. Thompson, an agent of the United States. Osceola regained his liberty, killed Thompson and others at Fort King, and cut to pieces a body of troops. Operations against Osceola and his warriors were conducted with great severity, but with varying success, under Scott, Call, Jesup, Taylor, and others. The Indians were supposed to be subjugated in 1837, but Osceola fled and renewed the struggle. He was taken by strategy in 1842 and the war ended. (See illustration opposite 1681 and description on back.)

Seminole Wars:

American forces in, and officers commanding, discussed, 611, 1472, 1833.
Appropriation for suppression of, recommended, 1473.
Brevet nominations for army officers participating in, 2008.
Discussed, 600, 611, 617, 1447, 1448, 1453, 1472, 1508, 1511, 1833, 1933, 2007, 2051, 2583.
Massacre of Maj. Dade's command, 1834.
Origin of, referred to, 1944.
Spain furnishes aid to Indians in, 611.
Termination of, 1417.
Troops in, rations furnished, referred to, 611.

Senate.—The upper branch of the legislature of the United States. The Senate is composed of two representatives from each state, until 1913 chosen by the state legislature for a period of six years; accordingly the membership has varied in number, from time to time, from twenty-two members representing eleven states in the First Congress to ninety-six members representing forty-eight states in the sixty-third Congress. Senators must be thirty years of age, residents of the state they represent, and must have been citizens of the United States for at least nine years; they receive a salary of $7,500 per annum and a small allowance for stationery and mileage. Should a vacancy occur in the Senate during a recess of the state legislature, the governor of the state makes a temporary appointment which is valid until the next meeting of the legislature. The Constitution provides that the terms of Senators shall so overlap that one-third of the members retire every two years. The presiding officer of the Senate is the Vice-President of the United States who votes only in case of the votes being equally divided. Besides the legislative functions, the Senate ratifies or rejects all treaties negotiated by the President; confirms or rejects all appointments to the higher Federal offices; exercises the functions of high-court of impeachment; and in case the electors fail to make a choice, elects the Vice-President of the United States from the two candidates receiving the largest number of electoral votes. The exercise of these wide powers given to it by the Constitution, has rendered the Senate more powerful than the House; the reverse being usually the case with upper houses.

In the Constitution adopted by Virginia in 1776 the name Senate was given to the Virginian upper chamber, but the term was not applied to the upper house of the Federal Congress until Aug. 6, 1787; which up to that time had been known as the "second branch." Since the name has been adopted in the Congress of the United States it has spread to all states whose legislatures are divided into two chambers.

The composition of the Senate is due to one of the most important proposals in the constitutional convention at Philadelphia, known as the "Connecticut Compromise" which was brought forward by Oliver Ellsworth and Roger Sherman. This compromise settled the conflicting claims of the large and small states by providing for equal representation of states in the Senate, the House being chosen on a population basis. The seventeenth amendment to the Constitution, adopted May 31, 1913, provides for the election of senators by direct vote of the people, instead of by the legislatures of the states as formerly. Some of the states had already, before the adoption of this amendment, provided for the election of their senators by direct vote of the people.

A view of the Senate chamber will be found as frontispiece of Volume XI, and a view of the Senate Office Building is the frontispiece of Volume XIII.

Senate. (See Congress.)

Senatorial Courtesy.—In order that the dignity of the body may be preserved, the Senate gives considerable attention to the personal wishes of its members. In addition to the observance of courteous address, polite language, and the exercise of those acts of kindness which tend to lighten official duties and render social life a pleasure, there is a tacit understanding as to the conventional privileges to be accorded to each in the official deliberations. Should the name of any former member of the Senate be presented to that body by the President for their advice as to his appointment to a Federal office, Senatorial courtesy requires immediate confirmation without reference to a committee. The privileges of speaking as long as he may choose on any question before the Senate is a courtesy granted each Senator, and though it is charged that undue advantage has sometimes been taken of this privilege it was not abridged until on the closing session of the Sixty-fourth Congress on March

5, 1917, a small group of Senators was enabled by employing a filibuster (q. v.) to prevent action upon President Wilson's request for power to use armed neutrality (q. v.). At the President's request, the Senate continued its meetings, and on March 8, by a vote of 76 to 3, adopted a rule whereby closure (q. v.) may be enforced. The rule provides that two days after notice in writing from sixteen Senators the question of closing debate on a particular bill shall be settled without debate, and if settled in the affirmative, by two-thirds, that bill shall be held before the Senate till its final disposition, and each Senator shall be limited to one hour's debate in all on the bill itself, amendments to it and motions arising from it. To prevent endless roll calls the rule further provides that after the two-thirds vote no amendment may be offered without unanimous consent.

Senators of United States:

Appointments to office, relation of, to. (See Executive Nominations.)

Constitutional amendment regarding election of, recommended, 3840, 3889.

Loyal Representatives and, denial of seats in Congress to, discussed, 3644.

Seneca Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Senegal.—One of the divisions of French West Africa (q. v.). Its area is 74,000 square miles and its population, about 1,250,000. The capital is St. Louis (23,000). The natives pay chief attention to the raising of nuts, millet, maize and rice. The chief exports are nuts, hides and rubber. Latest figures show imports of $1,000,000 and exports of $1,050,000.

Sequoia National Park. (See Parks, National.)

"Serapis," capture of. (See illustration opposite page 346.)

Serbia. (See Servia.)

Serbs, Croats and Slovenes, Kingdom of the. (See Jugo-Slavia.)

Servia.— Servia is situated in the north of the Balkan Peninsula and is bounded on the north by Hungary, on the south by Greece, on the east by Rumania and Bulgaria, and on the west by Bosnia, Montenegro and Albania. Shortly after the collapse of Austria-Hungary in the World War in the first days of November, 1918, Servia joined Montenegro and the Croats, Slovenes and Serbs of the former Austro-Hungarian Empire to make the new state of Jugo-Slavia (q. v.). Servia forms the kernel of the new state, which is sometimes called also the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats and Slovenes.

Physical Features.—The country is generally mountainous, and consists of extensive forest-clad slopes, uncultivated heaths, and fertile meadows and valleys. The Transylvania Alps, the Balkans and the Rhodope ranges extend from Rumania and Bulgaria into eastern Servia, while outliers of the Bosnian and Albanian highlands cross the western border. In the north the Drina and Save effect a confluence at Belgrade with the Danube, which forms the remainder of the northern (and part of the northeastern) frontier, and is joined in the northeast by the Timok, which is also a frontier river for part of its course. The chief inland river is the Morava, which rises in Bulgaria and flows through Servia, from south to north, into the Danube. The valleys of these rivers contain the most fertile districts of the kingdom. The principal river of Macedonian Servia is the Vardar, which rises in the Shar Mountains on the Albanian frontier and flows southward to the Greek frontier and thence to the Gulf of Salonica. The climate is generally mild, but is subject to the continental extremes.

History.—The earlier Serb kingdom was extinguished by the Turks at the battle of Kossovo in 1389, and from that date until the early years of the nineteenth century the country formed a Turkish pashalik. After heroic struggles the pashalik was recognized as an autonomous principality by the Treaty of Adrianople (1829), and by the Treaties of San Stefano and Berlin (1879) the complete independence of the country was recognized, a kingdom being proclaimed on March 6, 1882. On May 29 (June 11), 1903, the descendant of the Obrenovich dynasty, which had ruled Servia as Princes and Kings since 1830, was assassinated, and a grandson of Karageorge, a national hero of the risings of the early nineteenth century, was elected King by the Skupshtina and Senate, and was crowned in September, 1904.

For Servia's part in the Balkan Wars, see Balkan Wars. For her part in the World War, see World War,

Ethnography.—In 1910, the area of Servia was 18,650 square miles, and the population, 2,911,701. The new acquisitions as a result of the Balkan Wars amounted to about 15,240 square miles, with a population of about 1,500,000. The total area of Servia at the outbreak of the World War thus was 33,890 square miles, with an estimated total population of 4,400,000. The capital and chief town is Belgrade, with a population estimated in 1914 as close to 100,000.

In old Servia, the overwhelming majority of the people belong to the Serbian Orthodox faith. In the new territories are a large number of Roman Catholics and many Mohammedans.

In 1914 the budget of Servia was in the neighborhood of $42,500,000. The unit of value is the dinar, normally equal to about $0.20 in United States currency.

Of the total area of Servia, about 21% is arable land; 4% is devoted to vine, fruit, garden, etc.; 11% is meadow, 6½% is forest, and the remainder is state property, consisting mainly of forests. The fruit-growing was particularly important before the War, especially plums. Other important crops were wheat, barley, maize, oats, rye, beets. About 15,000 tons of tobacco were grown in Servia in 1919, and the silk culture also occupies a large number of persons.

The mineral wealth of Servia awaits development. Gold, silver, antimony, nickel, mercury, manganese, graphite, copper, iron, lead, and zinc are found, and coal, marble, sulphur and oil are mined in small quantities. Mineral springs abound. The industrial population is small, the sixty principal establishments in 1910 employing 5,000 hands.

In 1912, the imports into Servia amounted to about $20,000,000 and the exports to about $16,000,000. The chief imports were cotton tissues, cotton yarn, hides and machinery. The chief exports were wheat and meat, followed by maize, hides and poultry.

The imports came chiefly from Germany; the exports went chiefly to Austria-Hungary.

In a recent year the United States exported to Jugo-Slavia, Albania and Fiume goods valued at $972,041. The imports from those countries amounted to $73,597.

In the last year for which figures are available, the most important products exported by the United States to Servia, Montenegro and Albania were as follows in order of value: Mineral oils, flour, cotton manufactures, rye, boots and shoes, blankets.

Communications.—Before the World War, there were 975 miles of railroad open to traffic. There are few good roads, and much of the transportation is by means of the Danube, Drina and Save Rivers. Before the War, there were 2,730 miles of telegraph line, with 6,420 miles of wire, and 211 telegraph offices. There were 2,129 urban telephone stations, with 500 miles of line and 4,900 miles of wire; and 52 interurban systems, with 1,825 miles of line and almost 7,000 miles of wire. The number of post-offices was 1,555.

Servia:

Access to the sea must be granted, 8425.

Bulgarian territory assigned to, after World War, 8840.

Consular convention with, 4627, 4658. Referred to, 4757.

Diplomatic relations with, referred to, 4522, 4718.

Evacuation and restoration of, by Germany, essential, 8424.

Freedom to be granted to, 8403.

Neutrality of United States in war with—

Austria-Hungary, 7969.

Treaty with, 4658.

Servia, Treaties with.—The convention of commerce and navigation of 1881 provided for freedom of commerce, navigation, and trade upon full, equitable, and reciprocal bases; established the rights of real and personal property holders; conferred trade privileges; restricted the prohibition of imports; exempted citizens of the one country from enforced military service or contributions in the country of the other; granted terms of the most favored nation in matters of import and export duties; exempted goods from any form of transit duty; goods for the one country to be conveyed over the railroads of the other on terms equal to those of the citizens of the country. (For terms of the consular convention of 1881, see Consular Conventions. For terms of the extradition treaty of 1901, see Extradition Treaties.)

Service Bureau of Public Information Committee created, 8472.

Service Corps established, 7800.

Settlements. (See Social Settlements.)

Seven Days' Battles.—A series of battles fought in the Peninsular campaign, in the vicinity of Richmond, Va., between the Army of the Potomac, under McClellan, and the Confederate army under Lee. The first conflict occurred on June 25, 1862, and a battle was fought each succeeding day but one to July 1. June 25 McClellan's army before Richmond, numbering 115,102, received orders to advance. Lee's army on both sides of the Chickahominy aggregated 80,835. Hooker advanced beyond Fair Oaks and secured his ground. Meantime the Confederates had placed Richmond in a state of security and determined upon aggressive movements. Lee had succeeded Johnston in command, and it was determined to bring the mass of the army down the Chickahominy and threaten McClellan's communications with the York River. Jackson had moved out of the Shenandoah Valley and was at Hanover Court House, ready to render what assistance might be required. Some Federal historians say that McClellan determined to change his base of operations to the James River, seventeen miles south of Fair Oaks. The writers on the Southern side deny this. The retreat was accomplished with a loss to the Federal army of 15,249 men. The operations of the two armies are described under the headings Mechanicsville, Gaines Mill, Savages Station, Frayser's Farm, and Malvern Hill. A few weeks later the Federal army was withdrawn from the James and the Peninsular campaign was ended.

Seven Nations. (See Indian Tribes.)

Seven Pines and Fair Oaks (Va.), Battle of.—From Williamsburg to Richmond, Va., the distance is about fifty miles. By May 30, 1862, Casey's and Couch's divisions of Keyes's corps of McClellan's army had crossed the Chickahominy and advanced respectively to Fair Oaks and Seven Pines, six and seven miles, respectively, from Richmond. Heintzelman's corps had also crossed and was encamped several miles to the rear of Couch on the Williamsburg road, and Sumner was ready to make the passage of the stream when a heavy rain, which occurred on the night of May 30, rendered this impracticable. Joseph E. Johnston, who was in command of the Confederate forces, sent Generals Longstreet, Huger, D. H. Hill and Gustavus W. Smith to attack this advance guard of the invading army. The fighting began at 1 P. M., May 31. The Federals gradually fell back. At 4:30 the arrival of Sedgwick's division of Sumner's corps turned the tide of battle. At sunset Gen. Johnston was severely wounded by a piece of shell, and the command devolved upon Gen. Smith. In the morning the Confederates renewed the attack. They were finally repulsed about noon. The Confederates lost 4,233. The Federals lost 5,739, of whom 890 were killed. Gen. Lee assumed command of the Confederate army the day following the battle. (See illustration opposite 3225.)

Seven Sisters.—The nickname applied to seven laws against trusts passed by the New Jersey legislature, at the instigation of Governor Woodrow Wilson, in February, 1913, becoming Chapters 13 to 19 of the Laws of New Jersey, 1913.

Sévres, Treaty of.—The treaty of peace between the Allies and Turkey at the close of the World War (q. v.).

Seventy-First Regiment in the trenches in the Spanish-American War. (See illustration opposite 6293.)

Sèvres, Treaty of, discussed, 8910, 8916. (See also Turkey, League of Nations, Mandatory.)

Seward's Folly.—The action of William H. Seward, Secretary of State, in negotiating the purchase of Alaska in 1867, was criticised severely by many people, and referred to as Seward's Folly. The

value of Alaska to the United States has long since robbed the phrase of any but historical value. (See Alaska.)

Sewells Point, Va., evacuation of batteries on, referred to, 3313.

Sexton Valley, disposition of, 8837.

Shadrach Case.—One of many exciting fugitive slave cases of ante-bellum days. In May, 1850, Frederic Wilkins, a Virginian slave, made his escape and found his way to Boston, where he obtained employment under the name of Shadrach. Subsequently he was arrested and imprisoned in the United States court-house, pending trial. He was liberated by a body of colored people and assisted to Canada. Intense excitement prevailed in Boston, which spread over the entire country when Congress turned its attention to the infringement of the law. Clay introduced a resolution requesting the President to inform Congress of the facts in the case. President Fillmore issued a proclamation (2645) announcing the facts and calling upon the people to prevent future disturbances.

Shanghai, China, Tariff Revision Commission meeting at, referred to, 9091.

Shantung.—A maritime province of China, with an area of 55,970 square miles and an estimated population of more than 25,000,000. Part of the province consists of a mountainous peninsula about 200 miles long and 100 miles wide, extending eastward into the Yellow Sea toward Korea. Shantung has valuable mineral deposits, especially coal and iron; and the soil is fertile and well-watered. There is much agriculture, silk-culture and -weaving, and fruit-growing. The province is held especially sacred by the Chinese because it was the birthplace of both Confucius and Mencius.

At the very end of the nineteenth century, Germany obtained a 99-years lease and other valuable concessions in the district around Kiaochau, on the eastern coast of Shantung. German enterprise was responsible for the construction of the railroads leading westward from this district. With the outbreak of the World War, Kiaochau was occupied by Japanese troops, and its final disposition was one of the main sources of international friction at the close of the World War. The terms of the Treaty of Versailles provided that Japan was to retain temporary control of the district, agreeing ultimately to restore it to China. President Wilson defended this settlement on the grounds that it was necessary in order to procure Japan's adherence to the League of Nations. Great Britain has a lease over Weihaiwai, a district of some 285 square miles at the easternmost end of the Shantung promontory into the Yellow Sea.

At the Armament Limitation Conference in Washington an agreement was privately reached between Japan and China on the return of Shantung to the latter and a treaty to that effect was signed on February 4, 1922. By the terms of the treaty, the peninsula returns to Chinese sovereignty and the Japanese troops are withdrawn. The railroad and other property were bought by China and the mines leased to a joint Chinese-Japanese company. The port of Tsing-tao is thrown open. By the beginning of 1923 the Japanese evacuation was practically completed.

Shantung (see also China):
Award of, to Japan discussed, 8774.
Return of, to China, summary of agreement for, 9064.
Referred to, 9071.

Shantung Railway, arrangements for return of, to China, 9065.

Sharpsburg (Md.), Battle of. (See Antietam (Md.), Battle of.)

Shawanese Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Shawnee Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Shays's Rebellion.—An insurrection of some people of western Massachusetts against the state government in 1786-87, under the leadership of Daniel Shays. After the close of the Revolution much discontent and actual want prevailed throughout New England, especially in Massachusetts. The annual state tax amounted to $1,000,000. Riots and armed mobs were frequent. The chief grievances complained of were that the governor's salary was too high; that the senate was aristocratic; that lawyers' fees were extortionate and the taxes burdensome. The relief demanded was the issue by the state of paper money. This was refused. Shays, at the head of 1,000 armed men, took possession of Worcester, Dec. 5, 1786, and prevented the session of the Supreme Court. The court having adjourned to Springfield, the same men attempted to prevent the session there, but were forestalled by the militia. In January, 1787, three bodies of insurgents, under Shays, Luke Day, and Eli Parsons, marched upon Springfield with the purpose of capturing the Continental arsenal. Shays's army, numbering about 1,000, was attacked by about 4,000 militia under Gen. Benjamin Lincoln, and was put to flight with a loss of 3 killed and 1 wounded. Shays and some of his followers joined Parsons's force, but were dispersed by the militia at Petersham in February, 1787. Shays escaped, but 150 others were captured and their leaders sentenced to death. All, however, were ultimately pardoned on laying down their arms.

Sheep Husbandry, report of Commissioner of Agriculture on, 4462.
Experiment station established, 8101.

Sheep Islands. (See Faeroes Islands, under Denmark.)

Sheepeater Indians. (See Indian Tribes.

Shell Castle Island, N. C., beacon to be erected on, 182.

Shenandoah, The.—Notwithstanding the provisions of the British foreign enlistment act of 1819, which forbids the equipment of any land or naval forces within British dominions to operate against any friendly nation, the *Florida*, *Alabama*, *Georgia*, *Shenandoah*, and other Confederate vessels were allowed to escape in spite of the protest of the United States minister. The *Shenandoah* sailed from London as the *Sea King* Oct. 8, 1864, commanded by Capt. James Iredell Waddell, of the Confederate navy. Making for Madeira her name was changed to *Shenandoah*. From Madeira she sailed for Melbourne, destroying a number of United States merchant ships on the way. Thence she went to Bering Sea and did great damage to whaling vessels. At the close of the war the *Shenandoah* was surrendered to the British Government, and later turned over to the United States. The depredations of the *Shenandoah* were made a part of the Alabama claims against Great Britain. (See also Alabama Claims.)

Shenandoah, The (see also Alabama Claims):
Judgments rendered by claims commission on claims arising from captures by, referred to, 4322.
Reported surrender of, referred to, 3575.
Shenandoah Valley, ride of Sheridan through, referred to, 9300.

Sheppard-Towner Act.—This legislation of November, 1921, provided for federal cooperation with the states in promoting the welfare of maternity and infancy. The administration of the Act is vested in the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor and a Board of Maternity and Infancy Hygiene is set up for purposes of review and ratification. The Act carries an annual appropriation of $1,240,000, only a small portion of which goes to administrative expenses. The bulk of the appropriation is to be divided among the states which formally indicate a willingness to cooperate with the federal Government in administering the Act. Some of the money is to be divided equally among such states, but much of it is available only in amounts equal to state appropriations for safeguarding maternity and infancy. Specific clauses guarantee independence of action for parents.

Sheppard-Towner Act, passage of, predicted, 8945.

Sherman Act.—A compromise financial measure introduced into Congress by Senator John Sherman, of Ohio, and passed July 14, 1890. It repealed the Bland-Allison Act of 1878 and directed the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase silver bullion to the amount of 4,500,000 ounces per month, at the market rate, issuing Treasury notes in payment therefor. These notes were to be redeemed in coin at the Treasury on demand. The act also directed the coinage each month of 2,000,000 ounces of the bullion into standard silver dollars. The repeal of the Sherman Act was frequently urged. In the summer of 1893 the law was claimed to be a leading cause of the business depression, and President Cleveland summoned Congress to meet in special session Aug. 7. Congress, after a long debate, passed Nov. 1 the Voorhees bill, repealing the silver-purchasing clause of the Sherman Act, but affirming bimetallism as a national policy.

Sherman Act:
Discussed, 5548, 5628.
Repeal of purchasing clause of, discussed, 5875, 6073, 6074.
Recommended, 5833.
Sherman Act. (See Anti-trust Law.)
Sherman's March. (See illustration opposite page 3385.)

Shilling.—The name of a coin in use in several European states, varying in its value. The English shilling is one-twentieth of a pound sterling, the Danish copper shilling is one-ninety-sixth of a rixdaler, and equal to one-fourth of a penny of English money. The Swedish shilling is twice the value of the Danish. In some parts of Germany the shilling is used as a fractional coin of the value of one penny sterling. In America this coin was first issued from the mint at Boston. The first struck were known as the New England shilling, Willow Tree, Oak Tree, and Pine Tree coins. One of the earliest coins used in America was the Bermuda shilling. Lord Baltimore had shillings coined in London for use in Maryland. As money of account the shilling varied greatly in the Colonies.

Shiloh, or Pittsburg Landing (Tenn.), Battle of.—One of the most hotly contested battles of the Civil War. After the first line of Confederate defenses in the West had been broken by Grant, Gen. Beauregard was sent to establish another. He selected the line of the Memphis and Charleston Railroad. The Confederate army to the number of 45,000 was concentrated at Corinth, Miss., under command of Albert Sidney Johnston. Polk, Bragg, Hardee, and Breckinridge were there with their corps, and Van Dorn and Price were on the way from Arkansas with 30,000 more. After taking Fort Donelson, the Federal army under Grant proceeded up the Tennessee River to Pittsburg Landing, a point 219 miles from its mouth, on the west bank, near the intersection of the state lines of Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee, and about twenty miles from the Confederate camp at Corinth. Five divisions of Grant's army, under Generals W. T. Sherman, Hurlbut, W. H. L. Wallace, McClernand, and Prentiss, were here encamped, and, including Gen. Lew. Wallace's division, about seven miles down the river, numbered 40,000 men. Buell's army of 40,000 was expected to reenforce them here, and it was the intention upon his arrival to proceed against Johnston at Corinth. The latter, however, without waiting for his own reenforcements, resolved to attack Grant before the arrival of Buell's forces. April 3, 1862, Johnston marched his army from Corinth and on the 6th attacked the Federal army. After a day's hard fighting Grant's army was driven back from the vicinity of Shiloh Church nearly to the river, a distance of three miles. A part of the expected reenforcements arrived just in time to help to check the last charge of the victorious Confederates. The battle was reopened on the morning of the 7th by Buell, who had arrived during the night with 20,000 men. The second day's fighting was as stubborn as the first had been, but the Confederates were outnumbered. At 2 P. M. Beauregard ordered preparations made for the retreat, which by 4 o'clock was under way. He was not pursued. The casualties were: Confederates—killed, 1,728; wounded, 8,012; prisoners, 959; total, 10,699. Federals—killed, 1,735; wounded, 7,882; prisoners, 3,956; total, 13,573. Gen. Albert Sidney Johnston was killed on the first day of the battle and was succeeded by Gen. Beauregard in the command of the Confederate army.

Shimonoseki Indemnity.—Shimonoseki is a seaport of Japan whose forts command a strait of the same name. In 1864 these forts were attacked and destroyed by a squadron of war vessels, representing the United States, England, France and Holland, in retaliation for the firing on merchant vessels of those nations by the forts. The Japanese Government was compelled to pay damages for the injuries inflicted by the forts, besides an indemnity, amounting together to $3,000,000. Our share in this sum was $785,000. Only a small portion of it was needed for damages inflicted, and the remainder lay in our public treasury for some years. It was not applied to any public use, and finally, after repeated attempts to refund the extortionate excess, it was repaid to Japan in 1884.

Shinplasters.—The term colloquially applied to paper currency of small denominations issued by private sources without

	Total	Steel Vessels	Wooden and Boats	Government Yards (1919)
Number of establishments..	640	126	514	22
Persons engaged	114,709	100,003	14,706	71,186
Capital (1919 figures) ...	$1,389,447,820	$1,268,640,254	$120,807,566	
Salaries and wages	179,844,325	157,705,601	22,138,724	$105,434,091
Cost of materials	169,368,425	153,818,179	15,550,246	95,539,667
Value of products	400,834,105	356,214,854	44,619,251	239,603,243

legal security. It was issued to replace small coins which had disappeared from circulation, notably during and immediately after the Revolutionary War, during the panic of 1837 and in the first years of the Civil War; and had value, if any, only in the locality in which issued.

Ship Island, utility of forts on, for protection of Mississippi coast, 2266, 2293.

Shipbuilding.—A report on this industry was published by the federal Census Bureau in 1923, as part of the census of manufactures. Data for shipyards operated by the Government were also collected, but are not included in the statistics, which are as of 1921. A summary of the industry is presented at the top of the page. As generally used in the report and in this article, craft of five gross tons measurement or over are designated as "ships" or "vessels," and under five tons as "boats."

In the preceding seven-year period, which included the participation of the United States in the World War, the number of establishments decreased 44%, the number of persons engaged increased 136%; salaries and wages increased 377%; cost of materials increased 339% and value of products increased 352%.

There were 143 establishments with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each and 27 at from $500,000 to $1,000,000 each.

The total number of vessels launched in the report year was 825, with a gross tonnage of 1,325,885. Of the total, 387 were steel, with tonnage of 1,206,866 and 449 were wooden, with gross tonnage of 126,719.

Of the total, 196 were steam vessels, with gross tonnage of 1,120,063; 145, motor, tonnage of 19,088; 38, sail, tonnage of 7,535; 457, unrigged, tonnage of 186,899. In addition, 1,010 power boats of less than 5 gross tons were launched.

By divisions, the number and gross tonnage of vessels launched in 1919 were as follows:—

	Number	Tonnage
North Atlantic	781	1,826,365
South Atlantic	205	295,321
Gulf	164	313,474
Pacific Coast	419	1,356,017
Great Lakes	354	657,816
Mississippi River System...	95	38,700
Other inland waters.....	15	2,116

Of the 4,489,809 total tonnage launched in 1919, 3,655,544 was freight tonnage.

The leading states in vessels launched in 1921 were as follows:—

State	No.	Tonnage
California	70	281,609
New Jersey	69	245,072
Pennsylvania	154	174,730
Maryland	30	149,184
Virginia	10	82,597
New York	103	55,122
Washington	25	50,710
Alabama	14	47,838
Massachusetts	24	42,364

For the status of American shipping, see Merchant Marine. See also Seaman's Act; Shipping Board; Shipping to and from United States; Commerce.

A detailed table in the article on World War gives an account of the number, kind and tonnage, month by month, of the ships built in the United States during its hostilities against Germany and Austria-Hungary.

Shipbuilding:
- Consular returns on, in foreign countries, referred to, 2955.
- Decline in American, discussed, 4200.
- On Great Lakes during World War discussed, 9036.
- Support for, urged by President—
  - Arthur, 4727.
  - Cleveland, 5984.
  - Grant, 4060, 4255.
  - Harding, 9107.
  - (See also Merchant Marine.)
- World War, discussed, 9036, 9102, 9160.

Ship-owners impede government by charging high freight rates, 8313.

Shippers, right to choose transfer routes for goods should be vested in, 7446.

Shipping (see also Commerce and Merchant Marine):
- Acquired by Government during World War discussed, 9103.
- Foreign interests eliminated from, 8564.
- Importance of, in World War, 8250.
- Load lines of, legislation needed concerning, 9349.
- Sale of, discussed, 9107.
- Supervision of, discussed, 8642.

Shipping Act of 1920.— This act of June 5, 1920, often called the Jones Act, was designed to liquidate the shipping activities and legislation of the Government during the World War. Much of the war-time legislation was repealed. The existence of the United States Shipping Board was continued and provision was made for it to operate certain lines of shipping. The Board was also authorized to sell Government vessels if and how it deemed wise. Ship-owners and builders were exempted from certain taxes and preferential railroad rates were established on goods transported to or from United States vessels. One section provided that sections of treaties be denounced which restricted the United States from imposing discriminatory duties, but Presidential action to that effect was withheld.

Shipping Act of 1920:
- Denouncement of commercial treaties under, objected to, by President—
  - Harding, 9022.
  - Wilson, 8871.
- Preferential rates as provided in, realization of, urged, 9106.

The Department of Commerce made public in December, 1923, the following figures of shipping to and from the United States, covering the preceding calendar year. For the value and kinds of the imports and exports, see Commerce.

Section	American No.	American Tons, Net	Foreign No.	Foreign Tons, Net
ENTERING				
Atlantic Coast	5,065	12,643,463	7,226	18,859,843
Gulf Coast	3,665	7,997,307	2,237	3,990,374
Mexican Border	21	21,557	3	3,699
Pacific Coast	4,968	2,970,892	3,809	5,213,394
Northern Border	8,234	8,105,263	5,698	5,385,221
Total	21,953	31,738,482	18,973	33,452,531
Sailing	2,478	1,054,466	2,076	562,805
Steam	19,475	30,684,016	16,897	32,889,726
CLEARING				
Atlantic Coast	5,043	12,654,736	6,867	17,953,925
Gulf Coast	3,679	8,022,845	2,450	4,632,340
Mexican Border	21	21,557	3	3,699
Pacific Coast	3,403	3,056,198	3,839	5,453,797
Northern Border	8,050	8,003,855	5,059	5,035,983
Total	21,096	31,759,191	18,218	33,079,744
Belgium—Entered from	95	448,722	147	638,100
Cleared for	87	418,596	165	703,742
Denmark—From	11	49,532	78	290,864
For	19	77,491	107	249,173
France—From	106	370,499	320	1,432,262
For	138	516,300	561	2,234,917
Germany—From	301	1,650,589	306	1,213,476
For	303	1,607,139	361	1,395,179
Italy—From	49	167,917	254	1,011,202
For	52	185,383	375	1,447,456
Netherlands—From	121	489,222	182	933,795
For	124	500,662	203	995,672
Norway—From	11	38,348	95	329,704
For	9	32,032	128	488,189
Poland & Danzig—From	7	36,500	8	54,282
For	5	14,707	31	143,933
Russia—From	12	36,606	3	8,352
For	66	217,778	20	41,091
Spain—From	35	106,728	162	444,228
For	34	106,831	139	338,303
Sweden—From	33	110,898	118	349,780
For	11	43,801	69	231,908
Turkey, Europe—From	49	153,763	15	79,410
For	47	152,329	37	178,582
United Kingdom:				
England—From	379	1,468,417	1,481	7,029,031
For	351	1,405,653	1,030	5,755,622
Scotland—From	57	192,211	173	647,655
For	41	143,617	108	422,326
Ireland—From	31	95,957	13	47,977
For	40	134,948	37	127,375
Canada—From	13,492	10,187,498	10,450	8,958,266
For	12,603	10,150,565	9,997	9,050,332
Central America—From	371	900,331	636	713,189
For	345	829,747	549	633,793
Cuba—From	1,849	3,022,226	1,066	1,653,115
For	1,810	2,875,391	941	1,451,919
Mexico—From	2,962	8,527,866	863	1,467,544
For	2,945	8,411,032	856	1,507,388
West Indies—From	721	406,089	806	889,635
For	613	411,483	929	1,023,640
Haiti and Dominican Republic—From	210	281,756	191	136,460
For	258	396,977	227	177,377
Argentina—From	93	435,250	131	459,630
For	42	165,805	99	295,817
Brazil—From	28	106,907	103	289,116
For	73	360,300	125	431,209
Chile—From	80	273,580	102	363,794
For	79	282,249	71	253,096
China—From	62	260,424	88	360,940
For	49	214,188	110	422,392
Hongkong—From	25	142,798	58	287,947
For	26	157,125	56	304,322
India, British—From	20	86,468	76	276,966
For	24	103,216	32	126,872
Japan—From	86	434,931	280	1,160,814
For	106	552,650	344	1,444,921
Philippine Islands—From	47	235,673	11	42,698
For	33	154,294	8	27,756
Australia—From	34	121,164	59	258,254
For	39	128,040	136	563,274

Shipping Board, United States.—A body created by Act of Congress approved on September 7, 1916, providing for a board of five members, appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, with annual salaries of $7,500 each. The members were to be appointed for terms of six years, with not more than three of the same political party, and with none of them in any relations with or holding securities of any common carrier, nor engaging in any other business. The Board was authorized to construct merchant vessels, up to a cost of $50,000,000, suitable for auxiliary naval or military purposes, but to be operated in peace as merchant vessels.

The Board was authorized to form a corporation to carry out the purposes of the Act, but always to remain the majority stockholder in such corporation. The Board was also to investigate the condition of the United States merchant marine, and to report suggestions for its improvement.

During actual hostilities against the Central Powers, the Board left the construction of new shipping largely in the hands of the Emergency Fleet Corporation (q. v.), the corporation organized by the Board for that purpose. The Shipping Board acquired vessels constructed or partly constructed; and operated, managed and disposed of vessels used by the United States for direct or indirect war purposes. This power adhered to the Board largely from power entrusted to the President, and delegated by him to the Board. The Board also entered into international cooperation with the Allies of the United States in prosecuting the war, and laid down regulations for the conduct of the merchant marine, thus practically becoming the medium by which the merchant marine was operated as a national enterprise. After the close of the War, the Board operated the vessels left in the hands of the United States Government as a result of the war.

A view of one of the war transports being launched from a ship-building yard of the United States Shipping Board will be found opposite page 8348.

The report of the Board for the fiscal year 1923 shows the vessels owned and controlled by it as follows:—

Steel	*No.*	*Dead Wt. Tons*
Passenger and cargo	40	472,407
Cargo	1,188	8,236,605
Tankers	52	453,617
Refrigerators	14	102,620
Transports	6	38,235
Tugs	24	.....
Concrete	9	54,861
Wood and composite	23	16,299
Total	1,357	9,384,044

Of these, 210, of 1,477,773 tons, had been requisitioned and 30, of 280,946 tons, were seized enemy vessels.

There were 101 above 10,000 dead weight tons each, for a total of 1,178,180; 172, between 9,000 and 10,000; 335, between 8,000 and 9,000; 177, between 7,000 and 8,000; 35, between 6,000 and 7,000; 142, between 5,000 and 6,000; 183, between 4,000 and 5,000; 150 between 3,000 and 4,000; 19, under 3,000.

The summary of keels laid follows:—

	Requisitioned		Contract	
Year	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*
1916.....	30	225,049	...	.....
1917.....	201	1,308,187	261	1,095,375
1918.....	126	909,260	984	5,042,640
1919.....	18	159,670	633	4,305,180
1920.....	6	61,400	48	472,950
1921.....	..	.....	5	57,000

The summary of ships delivered follows:

	Requisitioned		Contract	
Year	*No.*	*Tons*	*No.*	*Tons*
1917.....	50	305,215	...	.....
1918.....	247	1,623,881	286	1,401,925
1919.....	65	560,700	1,175	5,823,723
1920.....	20	175,570	453	2,953,993
1921.....	2	31,900	70	721,400

The gross appropriations and allotments to the Board from its inception to June 30, 1923, had been $3,542,324,148.

The steel shipyards which completed the largest ship construction for the Emergency Fleet Corporation were:—American International Shipbuilding, Hog Island, 921,000; Submarine Boat Corporation, Newark, 598,850; Bethlehem Shipbuilding, Alameda, 502,100; Moore Shipbuilding, Oakland, 427,900; Skinner and Eddy, Yard No. 1, Seattle, 419,400; New York Shipbuilding, Camden, 393,995; Northwest Steel Company, Portland, 392,000; Merchants Shipbuilding, Bristol, 360,000.

Marine risks written and renewed during 1920 totaled $50,817,723,136, with net premiums aggregating $96,251,034.

During the fiscal year 1922 52% of the water-borne foreign commerce of United States ports moved in American vessels, but only 30%, excluding Great Lakes traffic and tankers. Of the 52%, 14% moved in Shipping Board vessels and 38% in independent American. At the end of the year, about 7,500,000 tons of Shipping Board vessels were inactive and 3,500,000, active.

The Board's organization and powers were modified by the Shipping Act of 1920 (q. v.). The membership was increased from five to seven, and the section of the country from which each member was to be appointed was designated.

Shipping Board, United States:
American Relief Administration to receive surplus supplies from, 9097.
Appropriation for, 9171.
Idle vessels of, illustration, 8946.
Powers of, 8316, 8558.

Shipping to and from United States.—During the fiscal year 1918-1919, there entered United States ports shipping to the extent of 44,953,617 tons, of which 19,649,012 tons were United States; and there cleared from United States ports shipping to the extent of 47,922,730 tons, of which 21,326,734 were United States.

During the calendar year ending on January 1, 1920, there entered United States ports, in the foreign trade, 46,701,674 net tons of shipping and there cleared 51,256,651 net tons. (See adjoining table.)

Ship Purchase Law discussed, 8018, 8072.

Ships, Foreign-Built, admitted to American registry, 8006.
Law regarding, suspended, 8354.

Shire.—A division of the Kingdom of Great Britain, dating back to the time of the Saxon invasion. It is now taken to mean almost the same as county, as most of the English county names terminate in the word shire. The shire has been extended to Scotland and Wales. In 1643 the general court of Massachusetts Bay Colony ordered that the whole Colony, which then included the present State of New Hampshire, be divided into four shires—Essex, Middlesex, Suffolk, and Norfolk. The name was used for county in all the Colonies.

Shirt and Collar Industry.—A study of the shirt and collar industry reveals the fact that American manufacturers have the home market pretty much to themselves, as foreign competition in these lines is of very little importance.

The manufacture of shirts was founded as a systematic industry in 1832 in New York, and in 1909 that city manufactured 27.74 per cent of the total output of the country. Troy and Albany produced 8.85 per cent, Philadelphia 8.68 per cent, Baltimore 8.53 per cent, and St. Louis 4.07 per cent.

Separate collars for men's shirts are said to have been first made about 1825 by the wife of a blacksmith in Troy, N. Y. This woman did the family washing and ironing, and realized that shirts with separate collars would not have to be washed as often as did shirts with collars attached. She applied the idea not only by making separate collars for her husband's shirts, but by making them also for sale. This innovation attracted the attention of the Rev. Ebenezer Brown, a retired Methodist minister, who kept a small dry-goods store in Troy. With the aid of the female members of his own family, the Rev. Brown, about 1829, began offering "string collars" for sale and soon developed a profitable new branch of his business. The demand for "store" collars increased and during the thirties and forties several companies were formed to carry on the manufacture of separate collars, cuffs, and shirt bosoms, either in connection with the manufacture of shirts or as a separate industry. The sewing machine was introduced into the collar industry in 1852, and steam power in 1855. Electric cutting-machines were introduced about 1870, button-holing machines about 1880, and button-sewing machines about ten years later. The collar and cuff industry has been centered in Troy from the first. In 1909, 80.46 per cent of the collars and cuffs manufactured in the whole country was manufactured in that city.

The percentage of cost of direct labor on the low-grade shirts is higher than on the high grades, the cost of materials is highest in silk negligee shirts and lowest in laundered shirts, and the cost of labor is relatively highest in the laundered shirts and lowest in the silk shirts.

In the fiscal year ending on June 30, 1923, the United States exported to foreign countries shirts to the number of 2,753,688, valued at $2,500,153. In the same period, collars and cuffs exported numbered 253,608 dozen, valued at $417,516.

The Census of Manufactures, published in 1923, included a survey of the manufacture of shirts in the United States as of 1919. A summary is given below. In addition, shirts to the value of $5,423,759 were reported by establishments whose chief product was men's clothing and to the value of $12,849,069 by those in other industries, chiefly collars and cuffs and men's furnishing goods.

Number of establishments	896
Wage-earners, average number	39,603
Capital	$102,012,000
Wages	25,834,000
Cost of materials	127,088,000
Value of products	205,327,000

In the preceding five-year period, the number of establishments increased 13%, the number of wage-earners decreased 20%, the primary horsepower decreased 15%, the capital increased slightly more than 100%, the wages increased 35%, the cost of materials increased 150% and the value of products increased 105%.

The leading states were as follows:—

State	*Value Products*	*Wage-Earners*
New York	$97,852,000	12,136
Pennsylvania	24,775,000	8,932
New Jersey	12,249,000	2,884
Maryland	12,175,000	2,486
Missouri	11,705,000	2,715

The same census reported upon the manufacture of collars and cuffs. A summary of the findings is given below. In addition, collars and cuffs to the value of $825,078 were produced by establishments engaged primarily in other lines of manufacture.

Number of establishments	39
Wage-earners, average number	11,103
Capital	$30,147,000
Wages	7,431,000
Cost of materials	19,434,000
Value of products	47,565,000

Practically all the product comes from the state of New York.

In the preceding five-year period, the number of establishments increased 11%; the number of wage-earners, 10%; the primary horsepower, 36%; the capital, about 100%; the wages, 65%; the cost of materials, 200%; the value of products, 155%.

S'Homamish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Shop Craft Employees on Railroads, strike of, 9132, 9142 *et seq.*

Shoshone Indians. (See Indian Tribes.) Treaty with, 3397, 3898.

Shoshone Reservation, Wyo., agreement for cession of portion of, 5649.

Shrine, Mystic, Imperial Council of Ancient Arabic Order of Nobles of, address of President Harding to, 9232.

Siam.— Siam occupies the central portion of the Indo-Chinese Peninsula, and lies between 4° 20′-20° 15′ N. latitude and 96° 30′-106° E. longitude. The area is stated at 195,000 square miles. It is bounded on the north by British India and French Laos, east by French Laos and Cambodia, south by the Gulf of Siam and the British Malay States, and west by British India. East and west are Spheres of Influence, in which the French and British governments, while disclaiming any intention of annexing territory (Agreement of April, 1904), are entitled to obtain concession from Siam. Between these spheres is a Neutral Zone, which is declared to be inviolable by France and Britain.

Physical Features.—Northern Siam, which is occupied by Laos States under the suzerainty of the King of Siam, contains a series of parallel ranges of no great mean elevation, but with precipitous heights in the extreme north. These hills are covered with forests, from which most of the teak is obtained. Eastern Siam, which also contains Laos States, conquered by Siam about a hundred years ago, consists of a vast river basin encircled by hills, the central portions being sandy desert. Central Siam is also a great plain flanked on the west by high mountains (Mulai 6,886 feet), and contains the richest and most fertile tracts of the kingdom. Southern Siam extends down the Malay Peninsula, which has a broken range of mountains parallel with the coasts, and consists principally of dense and valuable forests.

The principal Siamese river is the Menam (Menam Chao Phaya), which rises in the northern hills and flows into the Gulf of Siam at the port of Bangkok. For six months in every year the river overflows its banks, leaving rich deposits of silt, which provide the most fertile tracts of the kingdom. The wet season lasts from May to October, when the heat is not excessive, and in the dry season the nights are cool.

History.—The Kingdom of Siam is believed to have been founded some time in the sixth century A. D., by a race that had migrated many years earlier from southwest China. The kingdom was extended over the Malay Peninsula toward the close of the twelfth century. Intercourse with Europe was first established at the beginning of the sixteenth century when the Portuguese conquered part of the Malay Peninsula and the French and English have gradually worked their way to the borders of the kingdom, relations with the latter having been always friendly, while the rival claims of France and Siam over the frontiers of Annam led to a Franco-Siamese war in 1893.

Ethnology.—The number of inhabitants in 1919 was given as 8,925,000. Most of the population is Siamese and Lao. There are, however, a large number of Chinese and, in the south, Malays. There are no reliable figures showing the proportion of each race. The foreign residents number about 2,000, of whom nearly one-half are British, with 244 Germans, 218 French, 163 Danes, 135 Americans, 123 Italians. The Siamese, Laos and Cambodians, are Buddhists, but the Malays of the peninsula are almost all Mohammedans. The language of the central districts is Siamese; in the eastern and northern districts the Laos have their own tongue, and the peninsular montons and states are partly Malay speaking.

Government.—The kingdom is now secured from further aggression by the Anglo-French Convention of 1896, under which Central Siam is declared to be inviolable, and each Power renounces the right to annex territory adjoining its borders, although preserving the right of commercial penetration. The Government is an absolute monarchy, and the sovereign appoints his successor from among the male members of the Royal Family.

The Kingdom is divided into 18 Provinces or Montons, each under a High Commissioner controlled by the Minister of the Interior. These comprise several subprovinces, which are subdivided into districts. Sub-divisions of the district are under village headmen. Bangkok is directly governed by the Minister of Local Government.

Recent reforms, including the final abolition of slavery in 1905, have brought into existence an organized system of local and divisional courts, with magistrates trained at a school of law and assisted by European advisers.

Service in the Army is universal and compulsory, and although the law is only partially applied there is a standing army of about 25,000 men.

Education.—Education is generally in the hands of the priests from the Buddhist monasteries scattered all over the country, and scarcely any adult Siamese are illiterate. Government effort is not only coordinate but is directed toward a general advance in the system practised by the monasteries. An estimate of the pupils of the various schools states their number at close on 160,000 throughout the Kingdom, exclusive of the capital, while government effort has provided accommodation for some 15,000 others, including secondary, special and technical schools. The English language is very generally taught in the capital and there are three English schools with English masters, while many Siamese are educated in Europe, particularly in England.

Production and Industry.—The principal industry is the cultivation of rice, which is the national food and principal commodity exported. Irrigation is bringing large areas of northern Siam into cultivation, and the standard of cultivation is being systematically raised. Siamese rice is in great demand abroad. Other crops are tobacco, pepper, coco-nuts, cotton and maize, while fruit is abundantly grown. The forests are protected, and the teak industry flourishes. The last teak exports amounted to 36,930 tons, valued at $2,000,000.

The most recent figures showed about 5,500,000 acres given over to rice, with an annual rice export of 845,000 tons, valued at some $50,000,000. There are about 70 rice mills.

Most recent figures for the live stock include 2,108,072 buffaloes, 5,333 elephants, 105,078 horses, 2,336,935 cows, oxen and calves.

The mineral resources are extensive and varied. Tin mining in particular is prosecuted on a large scale, and about 9,000 tons of tin are produced annually.

Practically all of the trade is in the hands of the foreigners. With the exception of the mining in the South, the center of foreign trade is the capital, Bangkok, which has a population of about 540,000, of whom between 35% and 40% are Chinese. In a recent post-war year, the imports were valued at $38,500,000 and the exports at $61,000,000. The chief countries of imports, in order, were United Kingdom, Hong Kong, Singapore, Japan, British India, China, United States, Dutch India. The exports went chiefly to Singapore and Hongkong, followed by Dutch India and Japan.

In rank of value, the chief imports into Siam are cotton goods, foodstuffs, metals, metal manufactures and machinery, bags, oils, silk goods and tobacco.

In a recent year, Siam imported from the United States goods valued at $1,593,104, largely iron and steel goods, and exported to the United States goods valued at $453,301.

Finance.—The average annual ordinary budget is in the neighborhood of $30,000,000, with an extraordinary expenditure against the capital account of about $6,500,000. The national debt is about $33,000,000. The unit of value is the tical, or baht, valued normally at $0.37 in United States money.

Communications.—In 1918-9, 826 vessels, representing a tonnage of 683,000, entered Bangkok. There are 1,135 miles of railroads. There are 110 post-offices, 73 telegraph offices and 4,532 miles of telegraph line.

Siam:
American representative at coronation of King of, 7667.
Claim of United States against, 6184.
Adjustment of, 6336.
Diplomatic relations with, 6336.
Appropriation for, recommended, 4799.
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Legation of United States in, premises for, presented by Government of, 4823, 4825, 4923.
Appropriation for erection of building on, recommended, 5494.
Liquor traffic in, agreement with, for regulation of, 4803.
Minister of United States to, mission created, 4718, 4761, 4825
Treaty with, 1272, 1457, 1593, 2951, 3061, 3834.
Treaty with, revision of, 7420.

Siam, Treaties with.—Treaties of amity and commerce with Siam were concluded in 1833 and 1856, and a treaty regulating the liquor traffic in Siam in 1884, but were superseded by a treaty and protocol concluded on December 16, 1920, ratified by the United States Senate on April 27, 1921.

The citizens of each of the two countries shall have rights similar to the citizens of the other, with respect to commercial, religious, educational, trade activities, travel, subject to the laws of the respective countries. They shall not be subjected to taxes higher than those paid by native citizens, and shall receive the same protection of life and property as enjoyed by the native citizens. However, they shall be exempt from compulsory military service and from all forced loans, receiving full rights of liberty of conscience and freedom of worship, subject to the laws of the country involved.

The property and premises of each of the contracting parties shall be respected and free from domiciliary visit or search, and their papers and documents shall be free from inspection, except under the laws and regulations of the countries involved.

There shall be complete freedom of commerce and navigation in all the ports of the contracting parties open to foreign commerce, with the exception of that in liquors, opium and other drugs, arms and ammunition, which may, subject to the principle of the most favored national treatment, be regulated at will within its borders by each of the parties to the treaty. Sale of goods shall be free from restrictions designed to create or maintain a private or public monopoly. Courts of justice shall be open to the citizens of each of the parties on the same terms as to those of the other, and shall enjoy the same rights of loading and the citizens of each unloading vessel, of transit duties, warehousing, merchandise appraisement, etc., as the native citizens and as citizens of the most favored nation. So long as there is no discrimination, the coasting trade is excepted from this treaty.

The United States recognizes Siam's national autonomy in import and export duties, and, without discrimination, to increase the duties beyond the points fixed in previous treaties, provided that other nations involved grant similar assent without compensation.

There are provisions for granting shelter and facilities to men-of-war and to merchant ships aground or wrecked.

The right of protection for patents, copyrights, trade marks, etc., is guaranteed. Consular and other agents may be appointed, subject to the approval of the party to whom dispatched, and shall be informed, so that they may take the requisite steps, when a citizen of one of the parties dies in the country of the other without having therein heirs or executors. In case no will has been left by such deceased person, the consular agents may take temporary charge of the property left by the deceased.

It is expressly stipulated that this treaty shall not affect any regulations of the respective countries regarding immigration, naturalization, trade, police and public security. The treaty shall last for ten years and beyond that time up to one year after it shall have been denounced by one of the contracting parties.

Protocol.—The former system of jurisdiction for United States citizens in Siam, and privileges and exemptions formerly enjoyed by them, shall cease when the treaty goes into effect. Until the stipulated Siamese Codes of law go into effect and for five years thereafter, the United States may evoke any case pending in any Siamese court, except the Siamese Supreme Court, in which American interests are involved. Any case thus evoked is taken from the jurisdiction of the Siamese court, and is left to the consular agent designated by the United States for adjudication in accordance with United States law, except that it shall be adjudicated by Siamese law if it comes under a code of Siamese law which has already been promulgated. There are provisions for the right of appeal and change of venue for United States citizens or firms in Siamese courts, and for preventing other difficulties due to the transfer of jurisdiction involved in the protocol, as above set forth.

Siberia, Intervention in. (See Russia, Intervention in.)

Siberia, survivors of *Jeannette* expedition aided by people of. (See *Jeannette* Polar Expedition.)

Siboney, burning of, illustration, opposite 5822.

Sibyl, The, English schooner, appropriation for, recommended, 3890.

Sicily (see also Italy):
Claims of United States against, 1113.
Act to authorize Secretary of Treasury to compromise, vetoed, 1365.
Commissioner appointed to consider, 1244.
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Neutral rights, treaty with, regarding, 2836.
Relations opened with United States, 1706.
Treaty with, transmitted and discussed, 1170, 1196, 1244, 2271, 2479, 2836, 2870, 2884.

Sickness Insurance. (See Health Insurance.)

Sierra Leone.—A British colony and protectorate on the west coast of Africa, lying between Liberia and French Guinea. The colony proper has an area of about 4,000 square miles, with a population of 80,000; the entire protectorate has an area of 27,000 square miles, with a population of 1,340,000. The chief exports are palm kernels, kola nuts and palm oil; in a recent year, exports amounted to $8,500,000 and imports to $7,500,000.

Signal Corps (see also Army and War Department):
Aviation section of, placed under Director of Military Aeronautics, 8514.

Signal Officer, Chief, powers of, redistributed, 8513, 8516.

Signal Service:
Building for, recommended, 4657.
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Discussed, 4148.
Establishment and organization of, discussed, 4304, 4934.
Reorganization of, recommended, 5487.
Separate organization of, recommended, 4637, 4934.
Services of, in Spanish-American War, discussed, 6314.

Silesia.—(1) Before the World War, a division of the Austro-Hungarian Empire. (2) A province of Prussia.

(1) Silesia in Austria was made a part of Czecho-Slovakia by the Treaty of Versailles after the World War. It has an area of 1,988 square miles and a population of 756,949 in 1910, estimated at 800,000 in 1920. The eastern portion, around Teschen, rich in coal and the centre of a flourishing iron industry, was to have its final cession to Czecho-Slovakia dependent upon a plebiscite to be held upon the desire of the inhabitants to be annexed to Czecho-Slovakia or Poland. The Teschen plebiscite area had an area of about 880 square miles and a population of some 435,000.

(2) Prussian Silesia before the World War had an area of 15,569 square miles and a population (1910) of 5,225,962. By the Treaty of Versailles, a plebiscite was held in the eastern portion of Silesia, known as Upper Silesia, to decide the rival claims of Germany and Poland to this territory. The area of the Upper Silesia plebiscite area is about 5,108 square miles, with a population of 1,931,240 in 1910. Upper Silesia is rich in coal and iron ore.

Silesia, problem of nationality in, 8791.
United States will not interfere in, 8967.

Silk and Silk Goods.—China discovered the value of the substance secreted by the silkworm, probably as early as 2500 B. C. That knowledge was transmitted, so the story runs, to the Western world first in 530 A. D., by two Christian missionaries returning to Constantinople from China and bringing some silkworms with them.

Silk is an especially delicate substance secreted by the silkworm during the three or four weeks of its development. The worm wraps itself in a cocoon of silk filaments, which it leaves when it enters the chrysalis stage. The filament is of double and continuous threads, very sticky, and so fine and fragile that several of them must be wrapped together to form one silk thread strong enough to be used for any purpose.

The usual processes in manufacturing the silk are as follows: 1—Unwinding the filaments; 2—Bathing them in hot water, to loosen the gum, so that the threads may be separated; 3—Making thicker threads by combining the thinner, the gum being sticky enough to hold them together, and winding them on skeins; 4—Throwsting the threads, that is, twisting and doubling them; 5—Getting rid of the gum by hot water and soap; 6—dyeing the silk; 7—Placing it in skeins.

For a large number of years after the American Revolution, premiums and bounties for planting mulberry trees and for producing raw silk were authorized by a number of states, especially in New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania and the New England States. Dr. Ezra Stiles, president of Yale College, and Benjamin Franklin were among the notable early promoters of the movement. The establishment of the industry in England and France was due to royal patronage and it was considered not inconsistent with public policy here to extend state encouragement to an industry which, when established, would undoubtedly prove profitable. In December, 1825, the subject was introduced into Congress by Mr. Miner, of Pennsylvania, and the Secretary of the Treasury was instructed to prepare a well digested manual on the growth and manufacture of silk. This resulted in the publication by Congress of the document known as the "Rush Letter" of 220 pages, besides illustrations of machinery, and is a carefully executed work.

Sericulture gained the public ear, and for ten years all went well. Silk conventions and meetings were held in many states, and the agricultural literature of the country became suffused with descriptions of the Chinese mulberry tree and the possible profits in raising silk worms. Speculation began and the price of trees advanced far beyond the value of all the silk they could ever raise. Silk culture companies were organized and manufacturers and farmers were induced to invest in them. The bubble burst in 1839. One speculator who had put $80,000 in trees and cuttings vainly offered them to his neighbors for pea brush at $1 a hundred. Notwithstanding the favorable climatic conditions both in France and the United States for the growth of mulberry trees and the rearing of silk worms and cocoons silk culture has dwindled in both countries, because more remunerative occupations are afforded by other lines of industry. In other words, it don't pay. Although in France the raisers of cocoons and reelers of silk are protected by a considerable bounty, payable by the French government to her citizens as against the Italians, that country produces less than 4 per cent. of the world's supply of raw silk. Her silk manufacturers are well content to purchase, as America does, the raw silk from Italy, Japan and China, in all of which countries the ruling rates of wages are much less than in the United States. Both France and the United States pursue the same fiscal policy of admitting raw silk free of duty, and therefore both are on a par in this respect.

Meanwhile, step by step, but slowly, improvements have been effected here in the manufacture of silk goods. The making of sewing silk became a household industry in New England, at first by hand, and later by machinery. The manufacture of silk trimmings of various kinds was commenced in Philadelphia in 1815, and ribbons in Baltimore in 1829. These goods, together with fringes, gimps and tassels, and silk thread, especially suited for use on sewing machines, continued to be the principal products of the silk industry in the United States until the outbreak of the Civil war.

In England the silk industry has suffered a great decline since 1860. In recent years

leading manufacturers there have emphasized the importance of specially organized technical schools for the education of artisans and for teaching drawing and designing to selected pupils. In the United States every large silk plant is a school of design, a teacher of scientific and technical education. All such plants have a corps of special designers and many are in touch with artists and establishments abroad, whence is derived the latest information concerning novelties in all lines of manufacture. Skillful chemists are likewise attached to these plants.

The silk manufacturing industry includes two classes of establishments: (1) Those for making finished silk products, such as woven fabrics, braids and trimmings, sewing, embroidery, and wash silks; and (2) Those making silk yarn, known technically as organzine, tram, and spun silk. Organzine and tram constitute respectively the warp and woof of silk fabrics, and are made from the best grades of raw material by the process of throwing (doubling, twisting and winding the filaments into yarn.) Spun silk is produced by spinning, in much the same manner as wool fabrics are spun, the short fibered silk from pierced cocoons or from waste silk of any sort which cannot be thrown in the usual manner. The concerns engaged only in the manufacture of organzine and tram are known as throwsters and winders. Few establishments include the entire process of silk making. Including both branches of the industry there were 852 establishments in operation in 1909. These were capitalized at $152,158,002, and employed 105,238 persons, to whom $46,097,364 was paid in salaries and wages. The total value of the finished product was placed at $196,911,667.

The last federal census of silk manufacturing, summarized below, was published in 1923, but the findings were as of 1919. The survey covered the manufacture of finished silk products, such as woven fabrics, braids, trimmings, sewing, embroidery and floss silks; machine twist, etc., thrown silk (organzine and tram); and spun silk. Establishments engaged in the manufacture of hosiery and knit goods are not included. Silk used in other industries is also omitted.

Number of Establishments	1,369
Persons Engaged	136,775
Capital	$532,732,163
Salaries and Wages	134,597,292
Cost of Materials	388,469,022
Value of Products	688,469,523

In the preceding five-year period, the number of persons engaged increased 18% and the primary horsepower, 51%.

The leading state in the industry is Pennsylvania, which employs 42% of the wage-earners and produces 34% of the total value of products. Similar figures for New Jersey are 25½% and 31%; New York, 10½% and 12%; Connecticut, 9% and 10%.

Of the wage-earners, 40% were male and 60%, female. There were 6,584 under 16 years of age, or 5%, as compared with 7% in 1914 and 8% in 1909. Of the 137,716 total wage-earners, there were 54,235 spinners, winders, etc., and 46,528 weavers.

There were 14 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 19, with between 500 and 1,000; 69, with from 250 to 500; and 218, with from 100 to 250. There were 178 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 and 175, at between $500,000 and $1,000,000.

Of the total number of establishments, 811 were under the corporate form of ownership, covering about 85% of the industry.

Of the $388,469,022 total cost of materials, $206,222,609 was for raw silk; $62,487,939 for thrown silk; $16,136,213 for frisons, noils, other waste, etc.; $25,874,715 for spun silk. In quantity, there were used 25,890,728 pounds of raw silk; 6,125,490 lbs. thrown; 4,767,679 lbs. of spun; 11,461,588 of frisons, noils, other waste, etc.; 3,039,257 of artificial silk, and 18,000,000 of cotton yarns.

The chief separate products of the industry were as follows:—

Broad Silks, yards	310,132,060
Value	$391,735,902
All-silk, above, yards	245,860,918
Value	$322,502,765
Mixed goods, above, yards	64,271,142
Value	$ 69,233,137
Velvets, yards	16,150,689
Value	$ 20,950,239
Plushes, yards	5,860,427
Value	$ 21,601,280
Ribbons, value	$ 66,186,609
Tram, for sale, pounds	3,611,901
Value	$ 31,494,535
Spun silk, for sale, pounds	3,956,637
Value	$ 23,807,338
Braids and Binding, value	$ 13,218,284
Machine twist, pounds	773,843
Value	$ 10,644,095
Organzine, for sale, pounds	886,014
Value	$ 9,122,457
Sewing, embroidery, silks, lbs.	553,329
Value	$ 7,590,384

The following table shows the silk imports into the United States in recent years, as compiled by the Silk Association of America:

SILK IMPORTS

Year Ending June 30	Raw Silk Pounds	Raw Silk Value	Spun Silk Pounds
1873	1,159,420	$ 6,460,621	3,579
1880	2,562,246	12,024,699	37,239
1887	4,599,574	18,687,245	172,617
1895	7,974,810	22,029,068	843,647
1900	11,259,310	44,549,672	2,336,946
1905	17,812,133	59,542,892	2,305,847
1910	20,363,327	65,424,784	3,159,595
1914	28,594,672	97,828,243	3,054,071
1915	26,030,925	80,531,785	2,026,479
1916	33,070,902	119.484,223	3,411,710
1917	33,868,885	156,085,649	3,580,188
1918	34,846,197	183,076,241	2,502,157
1919	34,321,030	202,643,259	1,555,069
1920	47,133,713	437,951,434	3,392,705
1921	29,462,745	181,882,615	2,082,229
1922	48,178,964	300,445,363	1,487,089

The value of the silk manufactures imported in 1922 was $40,337,844.

The following table gives the world's production of raw silk and tussah in 1919-20:

	Pounds
Italy	4,045,000
France	397,000
Austria[1]	331,000
Spain	154,000
Levant and Central Asia[1]	2,293,000
China (estimated from exports)	43,000,000
Exports, Shanghai[2, 3]	9,230,000
Exports, Canton[3]	3,750,000
Japan (estimated from exports)	49,000,000
Exports, Yokohama[3]	32,485,000
India (estimated exports)	320,000
Total world production	99,000,000
Tussah[3]	1,540,000
Grand Total, Silk & Tussah	100,540,000

[1]1915. [2]Including Tussah. [3]1918-19.

Silkworms, memorial from Count de Bronno Bronski regarding introduction of, into United States, 2584.

Silver.—One of the precious metals and the one most in use during historic times, both in the arts and as a medium of exchange. In the earliest ages, even before there was a record, as in prehistoric Greece and Italy, silver mines were worked, and the refined metal obtained from the ores was employed in ornamental and useful arts. It was not so early used as a money metal, and when finally its use as such was begun it was made into bars or rings and sold by weight. Shekels, or pieces of silver, are alluded to in the book of Genesis. Abraham, in the land of Canaan, bought a field for sepulture and paid for it in silver. But the best authorities state that the first regular coinage of either gold or silver was in Asia Minor, in Phrygia or Lydia. The Egyptians did not have coins in the earliest times, although otherwise their civilization was advanced. In ancient times silver was plentiful in Spain. Hannibal, it is stated, obtained 300 pounds per day from the mines there during the Carthaginian occupation of that country. At a much earlier day the Athenians had valuable silver mines at Laurium, in the territory of Attica. Silver, as well as gold, was employed in the erection of Solomon's Temple at Jerusalem. Silver drinking cups and silver ornaments on horn or ivory drinking cups were in use among the Vikings. In fact, all the civilized and semi-civilized nations and tribes of antiquity made free use of this metal. It was more common even then than gold, and therefore less precious. At a later period the Incas in Peru, the Toltecs and Aztecs in Mexico, and the Mayas in Yucatan employed it for ornamental purposes and for objects of utility, both in their temples and palaces. Among modern civilized and enlightened peoples its use is so common as to require no special remark.

The metal itself is found in almost every part of the globe, usually in combination with other metals. Take the whole historical period and it is found that the South American mines are the richest. Mulhall is authority for the statement that Mexico has produced more silver since 1523 than any other country within the last 500 years. He values the total output there for the period at $3,050,000,000. Mexico has also the largest annual output, producing 60,808,978 oz. fine, valued at $35,269,200; the United States follows next with 57,682,800 oz. fine, worth $33,456,000. Large masses have been found in nuggets, as one of 370 pounds at La Paz, Bolivia, in 1749; another of 560 pounds at Königsberg, Norway, and still another of 800 pounds at Huantaya, Peru. Sonora, Mexico, however, claims to have extracted a huge lump of silver weighing 2,700 pounds.

The subject has entered into American politics, the Democratic party in 1896 having declared for the free coinage of the metals at the former ratio of 16 to 1. The French ratio was at 15½ to 1. The repeal in 1873 of the law providing for the free and unlimited coinage of silver was the beginning of an agitation for the restoration of bimetallism. (See also Bland-Allison Act; Coinage Laws; Sherman Act; Bi-Metallism.)

It is estimated that the total production of silver in the United States prior to 1856 was worth less than $1,000,000. The following table shows the annual production in the United States for some significant and recent years:

Year	*Fine Ounces (Troy)*	*Value (Commercial)*
1856	38,700	$ 52,000
1861	1,546,900	2,062,000
1865	8,701,200	11,662,200
1870	12,375,000	16,434,000
1875	24,589,300	30,485,900
1880	30,318,700	34,717,000
1885	39,909,400	42,503,500
1890	54,516,300	57,242,100
1895	55,727,000	36,445,500
1900	57,647,000	35,741,100
1905	56,101,600	34,221,976
1910	57,137,900	30,854,500
1915	74,961,075	37,397,300
1916	74,414,802	48,953,000
1917	71,740,362	59,078,100
1918	67,810,139	66,485,129
1919[1]	55,285,196	61,966,412

[1]Preliminary figures.

The following table shows the value of the imports and exports of silver to and from the United States in recent years:

Year	*Exports***	*Imports*
1890	$ 34,873,929	$ 21,032,984
1900	56,712,275	35,256,302
1910	55,286,861	45,217,194
1915	50,942,187	29,110,323
1917	78,279,931	35,003,563
1918	139,181,399	70,328,153
1919	239,021,051	89,410,018
1920*	113,616,224	88,060,041

*Subject to revision. **Including ore.

The following table gives the value of the silver production by states for 1918 and 1919, the figures for the latter year being from the preliminary reports of the Director of the Mint of the Treasury Department:

	1918	*1919*
Alaska	$ 787,057	$ 1,201,705
Arizona	6,697,978	4,816,033
California	1,404,815	1,349,508
Colorado	6,765,435	6,775,438
Idaho	9,212,411	6,772,194
Michigan	506,206	420,637
Montana	16,058,232	16,746,090
Nevada	9,737,898	8,196,164
New Mexico	758,545	798,932
North Carolina	98	55
Oregon	126,626	250,597
South Dakota	158,082	136,928
Texas	567,841	605,527
Utah	13,228,911	13,345,010
Washington	294,138	354,220
Wyoming	1,230	46
Philippine Islands	12,746	16,131
Others	166,880	181,197

The following table gives the silver production of the world, by fine ounces, for 1917 and 1919:

	1917	*1919**
United States	71,740,000	56,682,445
Mexico	31,200,000	62,681,987
Australasia	4,050,000	7,430,770
Canada	22,150,000	15,675,134
Europe	8,100,000	4,899,618
Asia	7,600,000	8,362,606
Africa	1,200,000	1,271,689
South and Central America	18,000,000	17,513,165

*Preliminary figures.

Silver. (See Gold and Silver.)

Silver Certificates:

Discussed, 5474.

Repeal of act for issuance of, recommended, 4633, 4720.

Suspension of issuance of, recommended, 4830.
Silver Coinage. (See Coins and Coinage.)
Silver Dollar, redemption of, in gold, 6914. (See also Bimetallism.)
Single Standard. (See Monometallism.)

Single Tax.—The doctrines of what is today called the single-tax seem to have been suggested first by the group of the French economists known as the Physiocrats, around the year 1775; but these doctrines disappeared n the rise of modern political economy with the publication of Adam Smith's *Wealth of Nations* in 1776. Hence it was Henry George who founded the modern single-tax philosophy in 1879, which is the year when his *Progress and Poverty* was published. George was born in Philadelphia in 1839, and spent his early years as a sailor and printer. As a youth he emigrated to California, where he was engaged in newspaper work from 1858 to 1876. In 1869, he was moved and perplexed by the scenes of vast poverty opened before his eyes in a trip to New York, and during the next ten years he thought unceasingly of the problem of poverty, coming to the conclusion that it was due to the system of private ownership of land. *Progress and Poverty* was published in the midst of extreme poverty, and achieved little notice for several years. But eventually the eloquence and the passionate fervor of the writer would not be denied, and from 1882 to 1887 the book was the most popular book on economics ever written. From 1880 to 1890, George was a propagandist, running unsuccessfully for mayor of New York City in 1886, and dying just before the end of his second campaign for the same office in 1897. His son, Henry George, Jr., was elected to the House of Representatives from 1911 to 1915.

The following statement of the single tax principle was written by Henry George, Sr.: We are in favor of raising all public revenues for national, state, county, and municipal purposes by a single tax upon land values, irrespective of improvements, and all the obligations of all forms of direct and indirect taxation. Since in all our states we now levy some tax on the value of land, the single tax can be instituted by the simple and easy way of abolishing, one after another, all other taxes now levied and commensurately increasing the tax on land values until we draw upon that one source for all expenses of government, the revenue being divided between local governments, state government, and the general government, as the revenue from direct tax is now divided between the local and state governments, or by a direct assessment being made by the general government upon the states and paid by them from revenues collected in this manner. The single tax we propose is not a tax on land, and therefore would not fall on the use of land and become a tax on labor. It is a tax not on land, but on the value of land. Then it would not fall on all land, but only on valuable land, and on that not in proportion to the use made of it, but in proportion to its value—the premium which the user of land must pay to the owner, either in purchase money or rent, for permission to use valuable land. It would thus be a tax not on the use and improvement of land, but on the ownership of land, taking what would otherwise go to the owner as owner, and not as user.

In assessments under the single tax all values created by individual use or improvement would be excluded, and the only value taken into consideration would be the value attaching to the bare land by reason of neighborhood, etc., to be determined by impartial periodical assessments. Thus the farmer would have no more taxes to pay than the speculator who held a similar piece of land idle, and the man who, on a city lot, erected a valuable building, would be taxed no more than the man who held a similar lot vacant. The single tax, in short, would call upon men to contribute to the public revenues not in proportion to what they produce or accumulate, but in proportion to the value of the natural opportunities they hold. It would compel them to pay just as much for holding land idle as for putting it to its fullest use. The single tax, therefore, would: First. Take the weight of taxation off the agricultural districts, where land has little or no value irrespective of improvements, and put it on towns and cities, where bare land rises to a value of millions of dollars per acre. Second. Dispense with a multiplicity of taxes and a horde of tax-gatherers, simplify government, and greatly reduce its cost. Third. Do away with the fraud, corruption, and gross inequality inseparable from our present methods of taxation, which allow the rich to escape while they grind the poor. Land cannot be hid or carried off, and its value can be ascertained with greater ease and certainty than any other. Fourth. Give us with all the world as perfect freedom of trade, as now exists between the states of the Union, thus enabling our people to share through free exchanges in all the advantages which nature has given to other countries, or which the peculiar skill of other peoples has enabled them to attain. It would destroy the trusts, monopolies, and corruptions which are the outgrowths of the tariff. It would do away with the fines and penalties now levied on any one who improves a farm, erects a house, builds a machine, or in any way adds to the general stock of wealth. It would leave every one free to apply labor or expend capital in production or exchange without fine or restriction, and would leave to each the full product of his exertion. Fifth. It would, on the other hand, by taking for public use that value which attaches to land by reason of the growth and improvement of the community, make the holding of land unprofitable to the mere owner and profitable only to the user. It would thus make it impossible for speculators and monopolists to hold natural opportunities unused or only half used, and would throw open to labor the illimitable field of employment which the earth offers to man. It would thus solve the labor problem, do away with involuntary poverty, raise wages in all occupations to the full earnings of labor, make overproduction impossible until all human wants are satisfied, render labor-saving inventions a blessing to all, and cause such an enormous production and such an equitable distribution of wealth as would give to all comfort, leisure, and participation in the advantages of an advancing civilization, in securing to each individual equal right to the use of the earth. It is also a proper function of society to maintain and control all public ways for the transportation of persons and property, and the transmission of intelligence; and also to maintain and control all public ways in cities for furnishing water, gas, and all other things that necessarily require the use of such common ways.

There is no single-tax political party organized in the United States, but many staunch advocates of the single-tax principle have been among our most prominent administrators of public office, including several mayors of large cities and members of the Cabinet. Several countries, notably New Zealand, tax unimproved land in accordance with the single-tax doctrine, and Germany also has levied partial, though not complete taxes upon the "unearned increment" of land value. Provision for this purpose was also made in England in the famous Lloyd-George budget of 1909. In recent years, the single tax advocates have made nominations for various offices in national, state and municipal elections; and there was a Single Tax candidate for President in 1920.

Sinking Fund.—An account or fund set aside for the payment of a debt or obligation. It is formed by successively appropriating or setting aside sums for the designated purpose. Alexander Hamilton made an unsuccessful attempt under the Confederation to establish a sinking fund for the liquidation of the national debt. The first national sinking fund in this country was created by act of Congress Aug. 2, 1790. The present sinking fund to retire the national debt was established by an act of Feb. 25, 1862, and amended by later acts. It sets apart annually a special fund for the payment of interest on and for the purchase of a given per cent of the national debt. Bonds so redeemed are to be canceled and deducted from the outstanding indebtedness of the Government. In addition there is to be purchased annually an amount of Government bonds equal to the annual interest on bonds previously bought for the sinking fund. The sinking fund is thus, as far as interest is concerned, in the position of any other holder of the Government's obligations receiving interest on the bonds that have been purchased for its account, except that the bonds belonging to it have been canceled and the debt considered reduced by that amount. An act of April 17, 1876, provides that fractional currency, redeemed by the Treasury, shall constitute a part of the sinking fund.

Sinking Fund, repeal of law recommended, 5754.

Sinn Féin.—The words are Gaelic, and mean "We Ourselves."

The Sinn Féin movement became definite in the first years of the twentieth century in Ireland, representing a protest against and division from the movement for Irish Home Rule. For the Sinn Féiners aimed, not merely at autonomy and self-government within the British Empire, but at complete independence in every way, political, economic, cultural, social, from English ties. At first the movement stood for the achievement of this independence passively, rather than actively or by violence; but with the World War the Sinn Féiners insisted upon legal and recognized, as well as real, independence from English connections.

The moving spirit back of the organization of the Sinn Féin was Arthur Griffith. By the end of 1905, all the separatist movements in Ireland had become unified within Sinn Féin, and the first convention of the National Council was held on November 28, 1905. However, Sinn Féin made little progress of importance until the outbreak of the World War. The delay in the application of the Home Rule Bill, which had passed Parliament just before the outbreak of the War, largely because of the opposition of Ulster, served to discredit the Home Rule movement.

When Lloyd-George replaced Asquith as prime minister of Great Britain, he did so only with the support of the anti-Home Rule forces in the British parliament; Carson, the leader of the Ulsterites, became a member of the Cabinet; it was evident that the application of the Home Rule Bill would be delayed even after the immediate close of hostilities; and Ireland was made more antagonistic to England than ever by the severity with which an uprising for independence in Easter, 1916, was punished, and by the announced, but later abandoned, intention of England to apply conscription in Ireland. Thus, it occasioned little surprise when in the general election for the British House of Commons in December, 1918, Ireland returned 73 Sinn Féiners to 7 Nationalists, or Home Rulers. Sinn Féin had become the leader of almost all those elements in Ireland dissatisfied with the political relations between Ireland and England as they existed before the World War.

In its campaign for Irish independence, Sinn Féin attempted to govern Ireland as a de facto government, holding court, drilling its own army and police force, appointing ambassadors to foreign lands, establishing ministers of executive departments under its elected president, holding sessions of its own Parliament (the Dail Eireann), and resisting in every way the occupancy of Ireland by British forces as though resisting an actual foreign invader.

For later developments, see the article under Ireland.

Sioune Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sioux City, Iowa, acts for erection of public building at, vetoed, 5015, 5301.

Sioux Commission:
- Discussed, 5480.
- Report of, discussed, 5496.

Sioux Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sioux Reservation, Dakota:
- Division of portion of, into separate reservations proclaimed, 5529.
  - Compensation to, for losses sustained in, referred to, 5568.
- Lands granted to Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Co., declared forfeited by Proclamation, 5944. (See also Railroads.)
- Opened to settlement, 6875, 6882.
- Purchase of portion of, recommended, 4837.
- Restoration of to public domain, order regarding, declared void, 4890.
  - Discussed, 4943.
- Right of way for railroad through, 4775, 4780.

Sioux Wars discussed, 3333, 4360, 5636.

Sir Robert Pell, The, outrages committed on, 1695.

Sisseton Indians. (See Indian Tribes and Indians.)

Sitka, Alaska, port of entry, order regarding, 3865.

Siverwright, Bacon and Co., claim of, 6734, 6859.

Six Nations of Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sixteen to One. (See Bimetallism and Silver.)

Skagit Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Skai-wha-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

S'Klallams Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Skope-áhmish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sk-táh-le-jum Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sk-táhl-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Slaughterhouse Cases.—A series of five cases bearing upon the creation of monopolies or trusts and defining the scope of the Fourteenth Amendment. The Crescent City Live Stock, Landing and Slaughterhouse Co. was incorporated by the Louisiana legislature March 8, 1869. The Butchers' Development Association protested against this act of the legislature on the ground that it created a monopoly. Suit was brought against the State by Paul Esteben and others on the ground that their business was injured. It was claimed by the plaintiffs that the creation of a monopoly of this sort by the State legislature was in violation of the Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution which prohibits State legislatures from enforcing laws "which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of the citizens of the United States." The Supreme Court of Louisiana decided that the law did not conflict with the amendment to the Constitution. The Supreme Court of the United States, April 14, 1873, and Jan. 24, 1887, affirmed the decision. In these celebrated cases the Supreme Court likewise decided that the fundamental character of the Government had not been changed in any way by the Civil War. The judgment of the Supreme Court of Louisiana was not entirely affirmed in the last case mentioned, that of the Crescent Live Stock Co. *vs.* Butchers' Union. That part which constituted a judgment against the Crescent City Live Stock Landing and Slaughterhouse Co. solely, for damages for the malicious prosecution, was reversed and the case remanded for further proceedings. In that case Justice Matthews delivered the opinion, and there was no dissenting opinion. In the other cases Justic Miller rendered the court's judgment. Justice Field, for himself, and Justices Swayne and Bradley, delivered a dissenting opinion.

Slave Representation.—One of the most difficult problems encountered by the framers of the Constitution was the representation to be accorded in Congress to those portions of the country whose population consisted partly of slaves. It was contended, on the one hand, that, being persons, they should be represented, and, on the other hand, that, being property, they should be made the object of taxation. A compromise was finally reached providing that for purposes of reckoning a state's proportion of representatives, as well as its direct taxes, its population should be "determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three-fifths of all other persons"—i. e., slaves. This method of computing population was first suggested in 1783 by the Continental Congress as a basis for the apportionment of contribution from the states, to be agreed upon as an amendment to the Articles of Confederation. It remained in force until the abolition of slavery.

Slave Trade. (See African Slave Trade.)

Slavery.—A slave is defined as a person who is the chattel or property of another and is wholly subject to his will. Slavery probably originated at an early period of the world's history in the accident of capture in war. It existed in all the ancient Oriental nations of which we have any record. In the Homeric poems it was the ordinary destiny of prisoners of war. The prevalence of Christianity tended to ameliorate the condition of the slave. Laws respecting the sale of slaves in England were made by Alfred the Great. The English peasantry were commonly sold for slaves in Saxon and Norman times; children were sold in Bristol market like cattle for exportation, many being sent to Ireland and Scotland. In 1574 Queen Elizabeth ordered her bondsmen in the western countries made free at easy rates, and in 1660 serfdom was finally extinguished in England. By the decision of Lord Mansfield, of the Court of King's bench, in the Sommersett case (q. v.), slavery was declared illegal in England. In Scotland bondage to the soil was not gotten rid of until the close of the last century.

Parliament abolished trade in negro slaves in 1807, and in 1833 an act was passed abolishing, slavery throughout the British colonies. In pursuance of this act 770,280 negroes became free Aug. 1, 1834. About the time of the American Revolution societies of prominent men were formed for the purpose of ameliorating the condition of the negro slaves. Pennsylvania was the first state to organize such a society, in 1787, with Benjamin Franklin as president. New York followed with a similar society, John Jay as its first president and Alexander Hamilton as its second. Immediately after came Rhode Island, and Maryland in 1789, with such members as Samuel Chase and Luther Martin; Delaware, with James A. Bayard and C. A. Rodney; Connecticut, in 1790; Virginia, 1791, and New Jersey, in 1792. The most that was accomplished by these societies was the suppression of the slave trade in 1808. Pennsylvania provided for the gradual emancipation of her slaves in 1780; Massachusetts, by a bill of rights prefixed to her constitution, the same year; New Hampshire, by her constitution, and Connecticut and Rhode Island by enactment, in 1784; Vermont, by her constitution, and New York and New Jersey by gradual abolition, the former in 1799 and the latter in 1804. In 1817 New York enacted further legislation, decreeing total abolition on July 4, 1827. By this law 10,000 slaves were freed.

Following are some of the important steps leading to the Civil War in America, by which the institution of slavery was finally abolished: Passage of the ordinance for the government of the territory northwest of the Ohio containing the unalterable article forbidding slavery, 1787; Quakers present a petition to Congress praying for the abolition of slavery, 1794; important debate in Congress on the abolition of the slave trade, 1806; slave trade abolished, 1808; American Colonization So-

ciety organized at Washington to aid emigration to Africa, 1816; Missouri Compromise passed by Congress, 1820; anti-slavery societies organized in New York and Pennsylvania, 1833; passage of fugitive-slave law and compromise measures, 1850; negroes seized at Boston under fugitive-slave law, 1851; passage of Kansas-Nebraska bill, 1854; repealing of the Missouri Compromise; Kansas war, 1854; Dred Scott decision, 1857; John Brown's insurrection, 1859; election of Lincoln to the Presidency, 1860; secession of South Carolina, December, 1860, followed by other states in 1861; President Lincoln proclaims the abolition of slavery in all parts of the country in rebellion, Jan. 1, 1863 (3358); submission of the southern armies in April, 1865, and official announcement of the final abolition of slavery Dec. 18, 1865. (See illustrations opposite 314 and 1841.)

Slavery (see also African Slave Trade; Compromise Measures of 1850; Kansas-Nebraska Act; Missouri Compromise; Negroes):

Abolition of (see also Emancipation *post*)—

Compensation to States for, recommended, 3255, 3269, 3292, 3334.

Draft of bill for, 3285, 3337.

Recommendation again to be made, 3297.

Constitutional amendment for, recommended by President—

Buchanan, 3168.

Johnson, 3556.

Ratification of, referred to, 3570, 3644.

Lincoln, 3453.

Agitation in States growing out of, discussed, 2874, 2930, 2962, 2981, 3028, 3084, 3157, 3186, 3206.

Meditation of Virginia for settlement of, discussed, 3192.

Compensation to States for the abolition of, recommended, 3255, 3269, 3292, 3334.

Discussed by President—

Buchanan, 2962, 2981, 3028, 3084, 3157, 3186.

Lincoln, 3206, 3269, 3335.

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Emancipation discussed and notice of, given. (See Emancipation; Emancipation Proclamation.)

Exportation of slaves by Great Britain in contravention of treaty of Ghent, 629.

Fugitive slaves. (See Fugitive Slaves.)

International congress at Brussels for abolition of, 5471, 5543, 6360.

In Brazil, 4100.

Abolished, 5369.

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Release of persons held in, discussed, 4194.

Portuguese colonies, abolished in, 4289.

Incendiary literature to slaves discussed, 1394.

Introduction of, into Territories of United States discussed, 2490, 2962, 2981, 3002, 3028, 3085, 3160.

Supreme Court decision settling right of, 2985, 3029, 3085, 3160.

Laws to prevent ownership of slaves in foreign lands by citizens of United States recommended, 4100, 4144.

Negro slaves enslaved. (See Civil War.)

On coast of Africa referred to, 4160.

Proposition to Great Britain to abolish mixed courts which had been created for the suppression of, 3989.

Supreme Court decision regarding slavery in Territories, discussed, 2985, 3029, 3085, 3160.

Slaves, Fugitive. (See Fugitive Slaves.)

Slesvig-Holstein War, neutrality of United States in, discussed, 2548.

Slums, evils of, 6902.

Sleswick. (See Slesvig-Holstein War.)

Smalh-Kamish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Smith Island Reservation for native birds, established, 7959.

Smithsonian Institution.—James Smithson, F. R. S., a natural son of the first Duke of Northumberland, and an eminent English chemist and mineralogist, died in 1829. He bequeathed £105,000 to the Government of the United States in trust to "found at Washington an establishment, under the name of the Smithsonian Institution, for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men." This bequest became operative in 1835. In 1838 the United States Government received from the court of chancery of Great Britain $515,169, which was increased by investment to $703,000. After the discussion of numerous plans, Congress in 1846 created the present establishment. The Institution has devoted itself to the two lines of work marked out in the terms of the bequest—the prosecution of original research and the publication and distribution of memoirs on subects relating to science. During its existence it has originated many important scientific undertakings, which have later been taken up by the Government and prosecuted on broader lines under the control of special bureaus, some under the direction of the Institution, others independently. Out of its meteorological service the Weather Bureau has grown; in connection with its work in ichthyology the Fish Commission was established.

Under the direction of the Institution are the National Museum, which is the legal custodian of all government collections, the Bureau of International Exchanges, the Bureau of American Ethnology, the Astro-Physical Laboratory, the National Gallery of Art, the United States Regional Bureau for the International Catalogue of Scientific Literature, and the National Zoological Park.

The Institution also maintains a table at the biological station at Naples, Italy, to which it sends students to conduct investigations. From time to time the Institution sends scientific expeditions, the most recent being those to Alaska to discover remains of mammoths and other large mammals, and to British Columbia to investigate and explore the glaciers there situated. The Institution has a library of 250,000 volumes. The direction of the affairs of the Institution is vested in a Board of Regents, consisting of the Chief Justice, the Vice-President, three senators, three representatives, and six other citizens, two of whom shall reside in Washington. The President of the United States and his Cabinet are members of the Institution. The secretary is elected by the Board of Regents. Joseph Henry, the first secretary, served from the founding of the Institution in 1846, till his death in 1878; he was succeeded by Spencer F. Baird, and upon the latter's death in 1887, Samuel P. Langley was placed in charge of the work. He was succeeded as secretary by Charles D. Wolcott. The Institution is located in Washington City and occupies an ornate building of Seneca brown stone, situated in a prominent place in the Mall, which extends from the Capitol to the Washington Monument. In 1904, the remains of James Smithson, who so far as it is known, had never visited this country, were brought from Geneva to Washington and placed in the Institution.

The entire consignment of pickled skins of animals killed in Africa by former President Roosevelt and his son, Kermit, was received at the Smithsonian Institution. Among the animals represented in this collection were rhinoceros, wild beeste bush busk, eland, wart hog, water buck, Impali zebra, giraffe, hyena, lion, Grant's gazelle, leopard, cheetah, reed buck, Thompson's gazelle, steinbuck, dik-ack, baboon, klipper springer and jackal.

In a recent year the total funds of the institution were $1,048,134. The income was $107,670 and the expenditures, $105,125. In that year, the library contained more than 500,000 bound volumes and pamphlets.

Smithsonian Institution:

Art objects, natural custodian of, 6914.

Bequest to United States by James Smithson for founding, 1406.

Fulfillment of objects of, suggested, 1723, 1942, 2124.

Prosecution of claim to, referred to, 1647, 1723.

Referred to, 1490, 6674, 6767, 7044.

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Improvement of, 6727.

Medium for interchange of official publications, 4718.

Organization of, recommended, 2751.

Request of regents of, for appropriation for National Museum commended, 4431, 4458.

Work of, commended, 6676.

Smoke Abatement Exhibition at London referred to, 4695.

Smoke Nuisance in Washington, elimination of, 7012.

Smuggling.—In the United States the offense of smuggling is defined as "the act, with the intent to defraud, of bringing into the United States, or, with like intent, attempting to bring into the United States, dutiable articles without passing the same, or the package containing the same, through the custom-house or submitting them to the officers of the revenue for examination." The penalties which may be enforced are a fine of not less than $50 nor more than $5,000, or imprisonment for not more than two years, or both, seizure and condemnation of the vessel or vehicle used, and various other special penalties. The British navigation laws of the latter part of the seventeenth and first half of the eighteenth centuries induced bold and extensive smuggling into the Colonies. Merchants and prominent public men otherwise respectable felt no hesitation about cheating the revenue by illicit trade with pirates and West Indian merchants. New York was the principal port for smugglers, though Boston, Philadelphia, and Charleston were also enriched by smuggled goods. This led the British Government to enforce the acts of trade which did much to precipitate the Revolution.

Smuggling:

Pernicious practice of, should be prevented, 644.

Practice of, criminal in free governments, 480.

Smyrna, disposition of, discussed, 8841.

Snake Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Sno-ho-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Snoquálmoo Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Soap Industry.—The last federal census of manufactures, taken as of 1919, but published in 1922, summarized this industry as follows:—Establishments, 348; persons engaged, 28,919; capital, $212,416,866; salaries, $14,171,851; wages, $21,228,063; cost of materials, $238,518,858; value of products, $316,740,115; pounds of soap produced, 2,432,591,000. The soap departments of meat-packing plants are included.

The leading state is New York, followed by New Jersey and Illinois. Females comprise 29% of the wage-earners. There were 4 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each; 7, from 500 to 1,000; 8, from 250 to 500; with 36 with annual products of over $1,000,000 yearly.

Soc Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Social-Democratic Party. (See Socialist Party.)

Social Insurance.—The term used to describe various measures for the amelioration of distress and including health insurance, workmen's compensation, old age pensions, unemployment insurance, mothers' pensions, etc., all of which are treated under their own heads.

Social Problems:

Of cities, discussed, 6650.

Result of industrial development, 6645.

Social Service.—One of the most illuminating evidences of the awakening of the social conscience in the last one hundred years has been the development in recent years of what is called social service. Social service, or social work, covers efforts being made for the improvement of the

conditions of life, especially among those who are in want, suffering, or need of assistance. The term has broadened far beyond the earlier attempts merely to remedy distress by the application of charity or of other relief, and now covers for the greater part efforts being made all over the globe to prevent the existence of social misery. Social service has become a science, if not an exact science; and has its rules and theories applicable to social amelioration hardly less definite than the rules applicable in medicine to the attack on illness. Any attempt to enumerate the number of social service organizations or workers would be fruitless, as there is no sharp line to distinguish social endeavors from other endeavors which are not altogether devoted to the pursuit of private profit in industry. For instance, social service covers such diverse fields of activities as the prevention of prostitution; family rehabilitation; legislation for higher wages and shorter hours; attempts to democratize industry, and to improve the working conditions in mines, factories, and on means of transportation; the acquisition of better mental hygiene; the attack on drunkenness; child labor and minimum wage legislation; the surveys of entire cities to determine the evils existing therein; the advance of a new science of penology; and the general education of the community to the ways in which "the other half lives."

Social Settlements.—Neighborhood centers established by persons anxious to improve conditions in neighborhoods where the inhabitants, either through their own faults or through the press of circumstances, are in need of assistance in order to attain the socialized development possible to them. Settlements aim, not so much to change or to revolutionize the life in the poorer urban sections where they are located as to develop the inherent beneficial qualities of that life to the best advantage. In other words, settlement workers attempt not so much to help others, as would the agents of a charitable institution, as to help others to help themselves. In pursuit of this ideal, many and varied activities are developed in a neighborhood settlement. Educational, literary, dramatic, musical and social clubs are organized and directed; physical training is made available; friendly visits are paid the families in the neighborhood; vocational guidance is provided for the children; free medical and nursing advice is given; and attempts are made to obtain new laws and working conditions which will accrue to the happiness of the poor.

Settlements seem to be developments primarily of the United States and of England, where Arnold Toynbee inaugurated the settlement by going down to live in the slums of Whitechapel, in the parish of Canon Samuel A. Barnett, in 1875. He soon associated with himself a group of other university men, who had also been inspired by the gospel of assistance to the needy as preached by John Ruskin; and Toynbee Hall, the first social settlement, was established by Canon Barnett in 1885. Stanton Coit established in 1887 the University Settlement in the East Side of New York, and his example was followed by Jane Addams, who established in Chicago in 1889 the most famous of all settlements, Hull House. Other well-known settlements in the United States are the Henry Street Settlement in New York, where Lillian Wald inaugurated visiting nursing in the homes of the poor, and the Chicago Commons, where Graham Taylor has wielded a strong intellectual and political influence in the life of all of Chicago. Hardly an American city of size is now without its settlement or settlements.

Social Unrest discussed, 8814, 8817, 8818. (See also Labor, Socialism, Revolutions.)

Socialism.—The best approach to a definition of Socialism is a definition of what it is not. Starting, then, from the negative point of view, Socialism must be sharply differentiated from *Anarchism* (q. v.), which would restrict the power of Government, whereas Socialism would extend it. Socialism also must not be confounded with a *Utopianism* based on hopes rather than on scientific knowledge concerning human nature and social organization. Socialism also differs with *Syndicalism* (q. v.) and the creed of the *I. W. W.* in that Socialists believe that the political state should be supreme, while syndicalists and the I. W. W. believe that supreme authority should adhere to the workers through their control of industry. Most Socialists follow the syndicalists and the I. W. W. in insisting that Labor should be organized in broad industrial groups, instead of in specialized crafts like those in most of the American Federation of Labor unions; but on the other hand most Socialists denounce the syndicalists' and I. W. W.'s use of sabotage, or defence of its use.

Socialism must be distinguished also from *Communism* (q. v.) and from its recent offshoot of *Bolshevism* (q.v.). For although a very large proportion of the Socialists of all lands favor affiliation with and support of the Bolshevist Government of Soviet Russia, yet most of them would agree that in many respects Bolshevism differs markedly from Socialism as Socialism was generally understood before the Bolshevist Revolution in Russia in November, 1917. The Socialist movement differs from the *American Federation of Labor* in that the former believes primarily in political action, and the latter in the use of economic power. Finally, Socialism must be differentiated from even a radical *Liberalism*, which, however strongly opposed to the present capitalist system, believes that it can be overhauled sufficiently to provide results better than those possible to a Socialist system.

Having thus defined what Socialism is not, we may pass to a definition of what it is. The phrase most commonly used to describe the aims of the Socialist movement is, "The public ownership and democratic management of all industries of social value." In other words, Socialism would do away with the present competitive system of private ownership of necessary industry, and substitute for it a system of state production and distribution. Under Socialism, the goods necessary for the welfare of the community would be produced and sold for cost, instead of for profit. Profit and interest on private (not public) capital would be abolished, and the workers in the state industries would be paid wages varying in accord with the value and difficulty of their services. Thus as at present fire and police protection, education, the postal service and water supply are furnished to the people free or at cost, Socialism may be said to aim at the extension of this system to apply also to housing, food, clothing, raw materials, coal, oil, transportation, banking, insurance, iron and steel, telephone and telegraph, etc.

Along with this program would proceed much and extensive welfare legislation, most of which, however, would be possible without resort to a Socialist system. This would include insurance against old age,

unemployment, illness, maternity; extension of workmen's compensation to all industries; abolition of child labor; limitation of the number of hours' work per day, per week, per year; the guarantee to each worker and to each family of the minimum income necessary to maintain a socially-useful standard of living; general medical inspection and educational scholarships, etc. In addition, Socialism would probably fix the maximum income allowable to an individual or a family; and would almost certainly confiscate most of large inheritances. On the other hand, most Socialists at the present time are agreed that individual ownership and management of farms would not be interfered with, although doubtless much of the unearned increment of land values would be heavily taxed by the state.

From this summary, it will be seen that Socialism would not interfere with the private ownership and use of property which was not essential to the welfare of the community, but rather was individualistic in its nature. It will be seen likewise that Socialism is essentially an international movement, and that it is concerned primarily with an economic program, to be realized through the ballot box, taking no stand upon matters like religion, the family and individual morality.

Guild Socialism is an attempt to combine Socialism and syndicalism. The Guildsmen believe that the state should be organized on a dual basis, the political state retaining control over education, army and navy, police protection, foreign affairs, etc., as at present. But in each industry the workers would be organized into guilds, or unions, which would be supreme in that industry, with a central congress of guilds supreme in industry as a whole. Guild Socialism is primarily a British movement.

Among the objections usually offered by opponents of Socialism are the following: By destroying competition, Socialism would destroy incentive. By extending state control, individual freedom would be endangered. By abolishing the law of supply and demand, it would be difficult to substitute a workable basis upon which to determine the payment of salaries of those in industry. Public administration is notoriously corrupt and inefficient. To these points, Socialists in the past have usually replied by asserting that the evils of the present system more than counterbalance the evils imputed to a Socialistic system; and since the developments of the World War have pointed to the incursion of Government into practically every field of private endeavor as proving the efficiency and workable value of the Socialist program.

"Scientific" Socialism.—According to Marxian, or scientific Socialism, each stage of the world's history is determined by the method of economic production current in it. The present era is capitalistic because of its method of producing by means of machinery which only the few capitalists can own, while the workers, no longer owning the tools with which they labored in preceding eras, can only sell their labor. There is thus a class struggle between those who own and do not work, and those who work and do not own. The middle class is destined to disappear, and society will be composed of only the bourgeoisie and the proletariat. The lot of the workers will become increasingly more miserable, and that of the property-owners increasingly more fortunate.

However, so efficient is machine-production that capitalist society will constantly produce more than it can absorb, so that periods of economic depression will ensue, and will become increasingly severe. It will be through this collapse of capitalistic production that the workers, organized into a cohesive class, will overthrow the bourgeoisie, and themselves assume the ownership and management of the means of production and distribution. Moreover, scientific socialism claims that all the value of goods derives from the labor put into them. At the present time, the workers do not receive all this value, but only the wages necessary to purchase their labor; the remainder is "surplus" value, which goes to the owners in the form of interest, rent and profits. Under Socialism, therefore, the workers will receive the full product of their toil.

In comment upon this theory, in all fairness it must be admitted that many of its premises have been rejected by most impartial economists, sociologists and political scientists of the first rank. It is undeniable that the middle class has not been tending to disappear, and it is probable that the lot of the workers has improved, along with the lot of the other classes. The economic interpretation of history is accepted to a great extent in many quarters, but there is very little acceptance of the statement that all the value of a commodity derives from the labor put into its production.

Indeed, there are large sections of the Socialist movement which are no longer scientific, but are "revisionist" or "evolutionary." These sections base their program on the desirability of the Socialist program as outlined above, rather than on the scientific, or Marxian, reasons for its inevitability.

History.—The rise of what we call Socialism dates from the early years of the nineteenth century, as a result of the social misery prevalent at that time. The philosophy of Saint Simon as published in France in 1817 and the co-operative experiments of Robert Owen in England in the same year definitely began the Socialist propaganda, and were supported by the Utopian schemes of Fourier. The term Socialist was first applied in 1835 to the endeavors of Owen; but as then used the term was largely synonomous with the present-day term of "Utopian," as signifying an attitude which was visionary, and at first the term was indignantly repudiated by the founders of modern Socialism. The speculations of Blanc in 1844 in the field of political socialism, and the agitation of Lassalle later in Germany for social reform strengthened the foundation for the later Socialist movement, but the creation of a definite international Socialist movement was due to Karl Marx, assisted by Frederick Engels.

In November, 1847, a group of political refugees, mostly Germans, met in East London, and adopted the famous Communist Manifesto, as prepared by Marx and Engels, as the basis for the Socialist movement. For some years, however, the movement grew slowly. In 1864, the International Workingmen's Association was organized, but after some years of struggle, it died in 1876. During the later seventies, however, the Socialists began to make themselves felt as a political force in Europe. Scattered groups of Socialists became strongly organized—and the doctrine of Socialism began to take root even in countries outside of Europe. On July 14, 1889, the one hundredth anniversary of the fall of the Bastille, the Second International Socialist Congress was held in Paris, and was attended by many leaders who were soon to impress the force of Socialism upon the actions of all European Governments. Since that time, there have been Socialists in some of the cabinets of the strongest nations of Europe;

and after the World War several Socialist parties became the official Opposition parties.

The outbreak of the World War disrupted the Second Socialist International, which had been organized in 1889. It resumed its activities after the War, but in a greatly weakened state, partly because of the dissolving influence of the War and partly because of the defection of elements to the Third International, which was organized and controlled by the Soviet Government of Russia. Another international was later organized at Vienna, dubbed by its enemies the Second-and-a-Half International, but by 1924 definite steps had been taken for its amalgamation with the Second. These were composed chiefly of the more moderate and "evolutionary" Socialist groups, while the Third was confined to orthodox Marxian and revolutionary bodies, adhering to Bolshevist principles.

Socialist Strength before 1914.—Socialism had made greater strides in *Germany* before the World War than in any other nation. The Social Democratic Party was the largest single party in the Reichstag, comprising 28% of the total membership; and if representation had been strictly proportional, would have comprised 35%. The vote was over 4,000,000 and the party membership alone, more than 1,000,000; and in Saxony and Hamburg, the Socialists were in majority, and almost in the majority in Berlin itself. In *France,* the elections of 1914 returned to the Chamber of Deputies 101 Socialist deputies, or about one-sixth of the total membership. In *Great Britain,* Socialism as such was uninfluential, but the British Labor Party, which was becoming strong around 1914, was moderately Socialistic in views, if not in label; many of its most respected leaders were officially classed as Socialists; and the Party itself was affiliated with the Second International.

In *Russia,* ruthless Governmental oppression had left the organized Socialist movement impotent, but the Socialists, with some support from the non-Socialist liberals, formed the corner-stone for whatever opposition against Tsarism existed. In *Italy,* about 15% of the Chamber of Deputies were Socialists. In Italy, as in France, and to an extent in Spain, the growth of Socialism was hindered by the strength of the Syndicalist elements, with some slight diversion also to the anarchists. In both *Belgium* and *Sweden,* the lower house of Parliament had between 20% and 30% Socialist members. In *Denmark,* the Socialist vote and popular representation was 30% of the total. In *Austria,* the Socialists in Lower House of the Reichsrat were 16% of the whole, not including the Christian Socialists, who were about 14% of the whole. In *Hungary,* the Socialists were less than 10% of the total in the popularly-elected section of the Parliament; in the *Netherlands,* 15%; in *Norway,* 18%. In the Balkan nations, and outside of Europe, the Socialist movement was feeble. However, in *Australia* the Labor Party had managed to gain the ascendancy; and although it was not officially classed as Socialist, yet its program and principles were radical almost to the point of moderate Socialism.

The Socialists and the War.—The attitude of the Socialists in the chief belligerent nations during the World War was as follows: In *Germany,* the great majority of the Socialists supported the war, but with the anti-war minority (the Independent Socialists) becoming stronger as the war proceeded. In *France,* practically all of the Socialists supported the war when it broke out, a minority opposed it as the war proceeded, and well before the end of the struggle, the majority of the French Socialists were on record in opposition to its further prosecution. In *Great Britain,* the orthodox Socialists supported the War, and the moderate (the Independent Labor Party) opposed it; but the British Labor Party as a whole supported it, although with certain important reservations regarding the nature of the peace to be imposed after victory.

In *Russia,* after the collapse of Tsarism in March, 1917, the non-Marxian Socialists supported the war against Germany, with the exception of the left wing. Indeed, the moderate Socialist administration of Kerenski made attempts to continue the campaign against Germany and Austria-Hungary. However, the Marxian Socialists (Bolsheviki and Mensheviki) opposed war continuation, especially after the Bolshevist revolution of November, 1917. In *Italy,* most of the Socialists opposed Italian participation and prosecution of the War, and effectively enough to hinder the Italian war efforts to an appreciable extent. The *Belgian Socialists* were almost unanimous in supporting the war to its very end. In *Austria-Hungary,* the Socialists, on the whole, were in opposition to the prosecution of the War, their opposition becoming stronger in the last days. In the *United States,* the great majority of the Socialist Party opposed American entrance into and prosecution of the War, with the exception of some of the more moderate and intellectual leaders.

Socialism after the War.—In the several years following the close of the World War, the Bolshevist variant of Socialism had maintained itself against all attacks in *Russia.* A Bolshevist government had held sway for some months in *Hungary* also, but had succumbed before internal and external attacks. *Sweden* had had a Socialist government for a period, but in *Italy,* after great gains, the Socialist movement had been weakened by a split within its ranks on Bolshevist tactics, by a resort to violence in certain quarters and by the rise of the Fascisti under Mussolini. In *Germany,* the Social Democrats had achieved control for a period, but had lost ground in the face of war hatreds and reparations problems, as well as the schism created by the Bolshevist issue. The non-Bolshevist Socialists united in 1923. In *France,* Socialism had become weaker, again because of war aftermath and adherence to Communism.

However, in *Great Britain* the Labor Party was steadily growing in power. It became the official Opposition in the House of Commons in 1922, electing almost one-fourth of the House in the general election of November of that year, and in 1924, although not in a majority in the House of Commons, as the strongest party there it took over control of the government of the British Empire. Although non-revolutionary and moderate, it is officially Socialist. Socialism had grown in *Mexico,* especially in Yucatan, but the Labor Party had lost ground in *Australia.* In other countries, factors due to post-war economic conditions had made the strength of Socialism largely conjectural.

For the organized Socialist movement in the *United States,* see Socialist Labor Party and Socialist Party, *below.* It has been weak because of a number of factors—notably, the comparative prosperity of the workers, especially the skilled, in the United States; the large and politically powerful

agricultural population; the predominance of foreign-born in the movement; the failure to orient the movement to the peculiar problems and psychology of American political life.

Socialist Labor Party.—This party took its name at a convention held at Newark, N. J., in 1877. In 1883 a congress of Socialists met at Baltimore, Md., and formed a national party, but the growth of the organization was retarded by the anarchistic outbreak in Chicago in 1886. The party was reorganized in 1889, formally assuming the name Socialist Labor Party, and its first national convention was held in New York City on August 28, 1892. For its votes in national elections, see Presidential Elections. In 1898, internal dissensions and quarrels concerning the correct policy to be pursued on the Labor movement resulted in a split. The greater number of the members joined with the Social Democracy (see below) to form the Socialist Party of America; and the Socialist Labor Party lost most of its influence.

The Socialist Labor Party may be said to represent at present a combination of the principles of the Socialist Party and the syndicalists or I. W. W. (q. v.). That is to say, it believes in both political (indirect action) and industrial action (direct action.) It stands for all the principles of Socialism, but believes that Socialists should organize themselves as such, not only into a political party, but also into strong industrial unions. Its program calls also for more autonomy within industry and for less authority in the centralized state than does the official forecast of a cooperative commonwealth by the Socialist Party.

Socialist Party.—This party was organized as the Social Democracy in 1897 by Eugene V. Debs and others in Chicago. The 1900 platform advocated state ownership of all means of production and distribution, with the public ownership of railways, mines, etc., also the initiative and referendum, and public work for the unemployed.

In 1901 at the Indianapolis convention the party formally united with the seceders from the Socialist Labor party, and took the name of Socialist Party. For its record in national elections, see Presidential Elections.

Up to 1921 there had been Socialists in the national House of Representatives on five occasions, but never more than one at a time, and with only two districts—one in New York City and one in Wisconsin—thus represented. Milwaukee and Minneapolis have been the largest cities to elect Socialist mayors. There have been Socialists in a number of state legislatures, and in the board of aldermen of many cities, including New York City and Chicago.

The Socialist Party opposed the participation of the United States in the World War, both before and after war had been declared by Congress; and as a result of that opposition many Socialist publications were banned from the second-class mailing privileges during the War and many Socialist leaders were imprisoned. In its career, the Party has had two serious splits, one in the first years of its existence, when the I. W. W. and other believers in sabotage and disbelievers in political action were expelled; and another in 1918-9, when the Communist or Bolshevist elements withdrew, or were expelled. Before the World War, the Socialist Party of America was a member of the Second Socialist International; by a referendum taken after the War, the Party pledged itself to join the Third, or Moscow, International. But the allegiance was held to be only with reservations; and when the Third International imposed a stringent set of conditions for adherence to it, the Socialist Party withheld its allegiance to it. (See Socialism, *above.*)

At first, the Party gained great support by its anti-war position, but as enthusiasm for the war developed in America and legal and extra-legal suppression of anti-war and radical associations increased, the Socialist Party declined sharply in popular favor. At the same time, the machinery of its organization was weakened by the withdrawal of the Communist elements, so that by 1924 the Party had practically admitted defeat. In certain sections it had ceased to function and in general, it was endeavoring to coalesce with other radical and labor groups in the formation of a general labor party.

Socialists:

German, pawns of German Government, 8280.

Teachings of, denounced, 7191, 7210.

Societies of Spanish War Veterans.—Astor Battery Association.—Organized December, 1904. Composed of original members of the Astor Battery, which served in the Philippines campaign of 1898. Meets annually, Aug. 13, anniversay of the capture of Manila, at Reunion-Army of the Philippines, and at the annual national encampment of the United Spanish War Veterans.

Naval and Military Order of the Spanish-American War.—Instituted Feb. 2, 1899. Membership is composed of persons who served on the active list or performed active duty as commissioned officers, regular or volunteer, during the war with Spain, or who participated in the war as naval or military cadets. Membership descends to the eldest male descendant in the order of primogeniture.

Society of the Army of the Philippines.—Composed of American soldiers who fought in any of the campaigns in the Philippine Islands.

Society of the Army of Santiago de Cuba.—Organized in the Governor's Palace at Santiago de Cuba on July 31, 1898. There are branches in a number of states.

United Spanish War Veterans.—National Encampment United Spanish War Veterans.—Organized April 18, 1904, by the consolidation of the National Army and Navy Spanish War Veterans, National Association of Spanish-American War Veterans, and the Society of the Service Men of the Spanish War. Soldiers and sailors of the regular and volunteer army, navy and marine corps who served honorably during the war with Spain or in the insurrection in the Philippines are eligible to membership.

United Volunteer Association.—All white soldiers and sailors who served honorably in the military or naval service of the United States during the war with Spain or the incident insurrection in the Philippines are eligible to membership. This society was organized at Chattanooga, Tenn., Aug. 17, 1899 and is national in scope and character.

Societies of the Union Army of 1861-65.—Society of the Army of the Tennessee.—Organized at Raleigh, N. C., April 14, 1865. Army of the Tennessee Association organized at Washington, D. C., August, 1902; all who served in that army eligible to membership. Society of the Army of the Cumberland; organized in February,

1868, and its present membership is 350. Society of the Army of the Potomac; the Society organized in 1868. Association of the Thirteenth Army Corps; this Association was organized at Milwaukee, August, 1889.

Societies of the War of 1812.—The Veteran Corps of Artillery of the State of New York, Constituting the Military Society of the War of 1812. Instituted as a military society by the officers of the War of 1812, on Jan. 3, 1826, in the City of New York, and incorporated under the laws of the State of New York, by the surviving veteran members, Jan. 8, 1892. Consolidated Jan. 8, 1848, with the Veteran Corps of Artillery (instituted by officers of the Revolutionary War, Nov. 25, 1790). Hiram Cronk, last surviving Veteran member War of 1812, born April 29, 1800, died May 13, 1905. The original members comprise those who actually served in the military or naval forces of the United States during the War of 1812, or on vessels other than merchant ships which sailed under commissions of letters of marque and reprisals from the United States in that war. Eligibility to hereditary membership is confined by law to descendants of those who actually served in the War of 1812, and to descendants of former members.

General Society of the War of 1812.—Is composed of federated state societies, in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Ohio, Illinois, District of Columbia, New York, New Jersey, and Delaware, the members of each of which state societies are borne upon the membership roll of the general society. Any male person above the age of twenty-one years who participated in, or who is a lineal descendant of one who served during the War of 1812-14 in the army, navy, revenue marine, or privateer service of the United States, offering satisfactory proof to the state society to which he makes application, and is of good moral character and reputation, may become a member. In case of failure of lineal descendants of an actual participant in said war, one collateral representative who is deemed worthy may be admitted to membership.

Society of American Florists, act incorporating, vetoed, 6010.

Society of Army of the Cumberland,
statue of Gen. Garfield to be erected in Washington by, 4795.
Unveiling ceremonies, order regarding, 5162.

Society of Colonial Wars.—Instituted in 1892 to "perpetuate the memory of these events and of the men who, in military, naval, and civil positions of high trust and responsibility, by their acts or counsel assisted in the establishment, defense, and preservation of the American Colonies, and were in truth the founders of the Nation. With this end in view it seeks to collect and preserve manuscripts, rolls, and records; to provide suitable commemorations or memorials relating to the American Colonial period, and to inspire in its members the paternal and patriotic spirit of their forefathers, and in the community respect and reverence for those whose public services made our freedom and unity possible." Eligibility is confined to an adult male descendant of an ancestor who fought in battle under Colonial authority from the settlement of Jamestown, Va., in 1607, to the battle of Lexington, in 1775, or who served as Governor, Deputy-Governor, Member of the Council, or as a military, naval, or marine officer in the service of the Colonies, or under the banner of Great Britain, or was conspicuous in military, official, or legislative life during that period.

Society of Friends:
Management of Indians committed to, 3992, 4063, 4106, 4154, 4206, 4254, 4307.
Paper to President, from, on Indian affairs, referred to, 4075.
Service Committee of, European relief work of, referred to, 8901.

Society of the Army and Navy of the Confederate States, in the State of Maryland.—Organized in 1871, "to collect and preserve the material for a truthful history of the late war between the Confederate states and the United States of America; to honor the memory of our comrades who have fallen; to cherish the ties of friendship among those who survive, and to fulfil the duties of sacred charity toward those who may stand in need of them."

Society of the Cincinnati. (See Cincinnati, Society of the.)

Soils, Bureau of.—A bureau of the Department of Agriculture devoted to the investigation, classification, survey and mapping of soils; studies in soil chemistry and physics; soil fertility; explorations to discover the sources of natural fertilizers; studies in the physical and chemical properties of soils and materials and methods of artificial fertilization, with their influence on the original soils. One of the special features of the bureau is the study of tobacco culture, curing, packing and exporting, as well as the introduction of new and improved varieties.

The soil survey is an institution devoted to the accumulation of a well-defined group of facts. These facts have a scientific as well as a practical value. The practical knowledge can be applied in many cases at once, and valuable economic and social results arise from it. This is the value that is usually emphasized—to be able to direct agricultural progress along proper lines, to point out natural adaptabilities of soil, and to suggest improved methods of cultivation based on a knowledge of the soil to be cultivated. These are some of the possibilities and actualities of the soil survey.

Soil Fertility, importance of conserving, 7462.

Soldiers and Sailors Compensation.—Not many months after the declaration of war against Germany in 1917, Congress, at the request of President Wilson, made provision for automatic insurance and benefits for death or injury during service in that war, instead of relying upon the old cumbersome and unfair pension scheme. Compensation is payable by the United States without contribution from the person injured or killed in active service. *In addition* to that compensation, a person in service had the option of purchasing additional insurance up to $10,000 at low rates of premium. But this additional insurance was in effect only if the person eligible had kept it in force by the payment of premiums when due, both during service and afterwards. This insurance was open to all who served in the World War, whether injured or not. For its terms, see War Risk Insurance.

Compensation to Family in Case of Death.—The only persons entitled to receive compensation in case of death are the widow, children and dependent mother or father of the deceased. The monthly sums payable in each case are as follows, and are not dependent upon the pay of the deceased:

1—For a widow alone, $25.

2—For a widow and one child, $35.

3—For a widow and two children, $42.50, with $5.00 additional for each child up to two.

4—For one child, if there be no widow, $20.

5—For two children, $30.

6—For three children, $40, with $5 for each additional child up to two.

7—For a dependent parent, $20. The amount payable under this sub-division shall not be greater than a sum which, when added to the total amount payable to the widow and children, does not exceed $75.

8—For two dependent parents, $30.

Compensation to a widow or widowed mother shall continue until death or remarriage.

Compensation to a child shall cease at the age of 18, or at marriage, unless the child is incompetent.

Compensation under this head is payable not only for death in service, but for death after service if the death was due to injuries suffered or disease contracted in service and not due to the deceased's own wilful misconduct.

Payments are made to the widow or children irrespective of dependency, but in the case of the parents, dependency must exist. Compensation to a dependent parent is paid for the death of only one child, but compensation for the death of a child is not paid the mother if she be receiving also compensation for the death of her husband.

Compensation to a parent is payable if no actual dependency existed at the time of death of the child, but arose in the following five years and would not have occurred had not the child died.

Compensation in Case of Total Disability.—During the continuance of total disability, monthly compensation shall be paid to the injured person.

The amounts payable monthly are as stated, and are not based upon the pay of the injured person.

If the disability be classed as *permanently* total, $100. Any of the following causes constitute total permanent disability: Loss of both hands, loss of both feet, loss of sight of both eyes, loss of one hand and one foot, loss of one hand and the sight of one eye, loss of one foot and the sight of one eye, becoming helpless and permanently bedridden.

If the injured person has suffered from two of the causes listed above, he is classed as *double permanently* totally disabled, and his monthly compensation becomes $200.

If the disability be classed as *temporarily* total, the monthly compensation is as follows:

1—With neither wife nor child, $80.

2—With wife but no child, $90.

3—With wife and one child, $95.

4—With wife and more than one child, $100.

5—With no wife, but one child, $90, and with $5 additional for each child.

6—For dependent parent, $10 each, in addition to above.

In case the ill or disabled person should die, his family becomes eligible for the death compensation described above.

Compensation in Case of Partial Disability.—The amount of compensation in the case of partial disability is a percentage of the compensation provided in case of total disability.

The percentage is equal to the reduction in earning capacity resulting from similar injuries in civil life.

Attention is called to the very important provision that the United States shall furnish medical, surgical and hospital services, and supplies, in addition to pecuniary compensation.

To an injured person who is totally disabled, and in addition so helpless as to be in constant need of a nurse or attendant, such additional sum shall be paid as shall seem reasonable to the director, but not to exceed $20 monthly.

In case a person dies or becomes disabled from injuries received in service, which at first did not seem serious or likely to cause death or disability, his family or he will be unable to obtain compensation if the death or disability occurred one year after discharge, *unless* a certificate of injury had been obtained within that year from the War Risk Insurance Bureau. Therefore all persons who contracted any injury, however slight, in the service should apply for such a certificate.

At the end of the fiscal year 1920, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance had paid out for compensation and insurance for death and disability of ex-service men the sum of $223,385,000. Included in this sum was $15,915,000 on account of death, $84,527,000 on account of disability; $122,943,000 on account of insurance alone.

Soldiers' and Sailors' Insurance. (See War Risk Insurance.)

Soldiers' Homes.—*Regular Army*—The National Home for aged and disabled soldiers of the regular army of the United States is situated in Washington, D. C., occupying a beautiful site outside the city limits. It was established in 1851 with money raised by a levy on the City of Mexico during the Mexican War, and is supported by a regular tax on each soldier of the army.

All soldiers who have served twenty years as enlisted men in the army (including volunteer service, if any), or who have served in any war, and all soldiers of less than twenty years' service who have incurred such disability, by wounds, disease, or injuries in the line of duty while in the regular army, as unfits them for further service, are entitled to the benefits of the Home.

A pensioner who enters the Home may assign his pension, or any part of it, to his child, wife, or parent, by filing written notice with the agent who pays him. If not so assigned, it is drawn by the treasurer of the Home and held in trust for the pensioner, to whom it is paid in such sums as the governor of the Home deems proper while he is an inmate of the Home, the balance being paid in full when he takes his discharge and leaves the Home.

Inmates are subject to the Rules and Articles of War, the same as soldiers in the army. They are comfortably lodged, fed, and clothed and receive medical at-

tendance and medicine, all without cost to them. The most recent report showed 824 resident soldiers, 133 on outdoor relief, 43 in St. Elizabeth's Hospital, 182 on furlough and 106 at the Army Hospital at Fort Bayard, N. M.

Volunteers.—There are National Homes for disabled volunteer soldiers at Dayton, O.; Milwaukee, Wis.; Togus, Me.; Hampton, Va.; Leavenworth, Kan.; Santa Monica, Cal.; Marion, Ind.; Danville, Ill.; Johnson City, Tenn., and Hot Springs, S. Dak. The aggregate number of members cared for is about 25,000.

The Board of Managers of the National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers informs the disabled soldiers and sailors of the United States that Homes have been established, at the places above named, for all such as are unable to earn a living by labor. All the ordinary comforts of a home are provided—chapels for religious services; halls for concerts, etc.; hospitals, with experienced surgeons and nurses; libraries and reading rooms; amusement halls; post and telegraph offices; stores, etc.

The requirements for admission are: (1) An honorable discharge from the United States service during a war in which it was engaged. (2) Disability which prevents the applicant from earning his living by labor. (3) Applicants for admission will be required to stipulate and agree to abide by all the rules and regulations made by the Board of Managers, or by its order; to perform all duties required of them, and to obey all the lawful orders of the officers of the Home. (4) A soldier or sailor must forward with his application for admission his Discharge Paper and when he is a pensioner, his Pension Certificate, which papers will be retained at the branch to which the applicant is admitted, to be kept there for him, and returned to him when he is discharged. This rule is adopted to prevent the loss of such papers and certificates, and to hinder fraudulent practices; and no application will be considered unless these papers are sent with it. If the original discharge does not exist, a copy of discharge, certified by the War or Navy Department, or by the Adjutant-General of the state, must accompany the application.

State Homes for disabled volunteer soldiers are maintained at the following places:

California—Yountville.
Colorado—Monte Vista.
Connecticut—Noroton H'ts.
Idaho—Boise.
Illinois—Quincy.
Indiana—Lafayette.
Iowa—Marshalltown.
Kansas—Fort Dodge.
Massachusetts—Chelsea.
Michigan—Grand Rapids.
Minnesota—Minnehaha.
Missouri—St. James.
Montana—Columbus Falls.
Nebraska—Burkett. Milford.
New Hampshire—Tilton.
New Jersey—Kearny. Vineland.
New York—Bath. Oxford.
North Dakota—Lisbon.
Ohio—Sandusky. Madison.
Oklahoma—Oklahoma City.
Oregon—Roseburg.
Pennsylvania—Erie.
Rhode Island—Bristol.
South Dakota—Hot Springs.
Vermont—Bennington.
Washington—Orting. Retsil.
Wisconsin—Waupaca.
Wyoming—Buffalo.

Confederate Soldiers' Homes are maintained at Atlanta, Ga.; Austin, Tex.; Beauvoir, Miss.; Columbia, S. C.; Hermitage, Tenn.; Higginsville, Mo.; Jacksonville, Fla.; Little Rock, Ark.; Mountain Creek, Ala.; New Orleans, La.; Pewee Valley, Ky.; Pikesville, Md.; Raleigh, N. C.; Richmond, Va; Washington, D. C.

Soldiers' Homes:
Erection of, recommended, 2559, 2624.
Recommendations of board of commissioners regarding, 4777.
Should be under jurisdiction of War Department, 7229.
Site for, selected, 2668.

Soldiers, Quartering of, without consent, forbidden in times of peace; in time of war, must follow manner prescribed by law, 29.

Solicitor-General.—The office of solicitor-general was created by the act of June 22, 1870, which created the Department of Justice. The solicitor-general acts as attorney-general whenever the latter is unable to attend to the duties of his office. The position of the Solicitor-General is unique in that he is the "Court Lawyer" for the United States. He prepares and argues cases in which the United States Government is involved, and is assisted by various assistant attorneys-general. He represents the Government in all cases in the Supreme Court of the United States; he determines whether pending cases shall be prosecuted or abandoned, and, in a word, has charge of all Government litigation. He is appointed by the President, and his salary is $10,000 a year. (See Attorney-General, Justice Department.)

Solicitor for the Department of State.—This officer is appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate. His yearly salary is $5,000 and he is assisted by three assistants who are appointed by the Secretary of State at a yearly salary of $3,000 each. The office was created in 1866 with the title of "Examiner of Claims," but in 1891 the title became "Solicitor for the Department of State." The Solicitor is under the jurisdiction of the Justice Department, but he also has duties assigned to him by the Secretary of State. He is the law officer of the State Department, and renders opinions on all matters referred to him. He also has supervision over claims, manages extradition proceedings, and is in charge of the legal aspects of naturalization. (See State Department; Justice Department; Court of Claims, Extradition; Naturalization; Departmental Solicitors.)

Solicitors, Departmental, Justice Department.—All departments of the Government have solicitors under the supervision of the Attorney-General, except the Departments of War and Navy, whose legal affairs are conducted by their judge advocates-general (q. v.). The departmental solicitors have offices in the buildings of the department to which they are assigned. In the Department of the Interior (q. v.), the assistant attorney-general handles appeals from the decisions of the General Land Office, prepares opinions, etc. The solicitor for the Department of State (q. v.) advises the Secretary of State on matters of law, especially of international law; decides

claims of United States citizens against foreign governments and claims of foreigners against the United States; and also is in charge of extradition proceedings. The solicitor for the Treasury Department (q. v.) handles revenue prosecutions, and other legal matters for his department. The solicitor in the Internal Revenue Office (q. v.), the solicitor in the Department of Commerce (q. v.), the solicitor in the Department of Labor (q. v.), all have charge of the legal affairs of their departments. The Post-Office Department (q. v.) also has an assistant attorney-general. The salaries of the departmental solicitors are $5,000 yearly. (See Justice Department; Solicitor-General.)

Solicitor of the Treasury, office of, established, 1090.

Operations of, referred to, 2539.

Solomon Islands. (See Oceania.)

Somali Territories. (See Italian Somaliland, French Somali Coast, Africa and British Empire.)

Sommersett Case.—A negro slave named Sommersett accompanied his master from Boston to London in October, 1769. He became ill and was turned adrift by his master. His condition aroused the compassion of Granville Sharp, who cared for him until he was restored to health. He was then claimed by his master and taken before Lord Mansfield, of the court of King's bench. Here he was discharged on the ground that in England slavery could exist only by positive law, and in the absence of such a law a person could not be deprived of liberty on the ground that he was a slave. This decision determined the future course of England in the delivery of fugitives.

Sons of American Revolution.—A patriotic society composed of lineal descendants of soldiers, sailors, and conspicuous patriots of Revolutionary times. The society was organized in California July 4, 1875. Another society of the same name was organized in New York in 1889 and quickly outrivalled the older society; attempts to unite the two were made unsuccessfully in 1892 and 1897. The Eastern Society has thirty-eight branches in the states and branches in the District of Columbia and Hawaii. The total membership is about 11,000.

Sons of Confederate Veterans. (See Confederate Veterans, United Sons of.)

Sons of Liberty.—A society organized by the younger and more ardent patriots of Connecticut in 1755, to advance colonial liberty. They advocated non-importation, aided in the hanging in effigy of the stamp distributor Oliver in 1765, and in 1774 proposed the organization of a continental congress. The appellation is sometimes applied to the whole body of American patriots. Another organization calling themselves "Sons of Liberty" existed in 1862-1864 in Indiana and other states and actively opposed the efforts of the United States Government in the prosecution of the war for the preservation of the Union, and several leaders were tried and condemned by a military commission. (See also Milligan Case.)

Sons of the Revolution.—A society of the same nature as the Sons of the American Revolution. It was established in New York in 1875, and has now thirty-one state branches. The principal point of difference between the Sons of the Revolution and the Sons of the American Revolution is the matter of eligibility, which in both is dependent on hereditary descent. In the latter society membership is contingent upon lineal descent from patriots of the Revolution, while in the former it is extended to collaterals.

Sons of Veterans, U. S. A.—Camp No. 1, Sons of Veterans, U. S. A., was organized in the City of Philadelphia, Sept. 29, 1879. The organization is composed of lineal descendants, over eighteen years of age, of honorably discharged soldiers, or marines who served in the late Civil War. There are now about one thousand camps, with a membership of fifty thousand, distributed among twenty-five divisions, corresponding to states, the general society or national body constituting the Commandery-in-Chief. Each camp has its own officers, the head officer being the commander. The principal officer of the division is the division commander. The Sons of Veterans Auxiliary is an association of women auxiliary to the above organization.

Sound Dues. (See Baltic Sea.)

Sound Money Democrats.—A group defecting from the Democratic Party in 1896. In convention they nominated John M. Palmer for President, and General Simon B. Buckner for Vice President; and their platform declared for the gold standard.

South Africa. (See Union of South Africa.)

South America.—The area is 6,750,000 square miles, a little more than one and three-quarter times that of Europe. The extreme longitudes are Cape Branco 35° W. and Punta Parina 81° W., and the extreme latitudes, Punta Gallinas, 12½° N. and Cape Horn 56° S. South America is surrounded by the ocean, except where it is joined to Central America by the narrow isthmus of Panama.

The independent republics of South America are Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Ecuador, Paraguay, Peru, Uruguay and Venezuela. Besides these are British, French and Netherlands' Guiana.

Islands adjacent to South America are the Falkland Islands, Galapagos Islands, Graham Land, Sandwich Group, South Georgia, South Orkneys and South Shetlands.

In the south Tierra del Fuego is separated from the mainland by the Straits of Magellan. The physical features consist of a Western Mountain belt and two Upland Plateaus.

The Upper Plateaus consist of the highlands of Brazil and Guiana, between which are the lowlands of the Amazon.

The extensive lowlands of the Orinoco, Amazon, and Paraná-Paraguay system were once inland seas, and afford great areas of level land. Ocean vessels can reach Iquitos on the Amazon, which is 2,300 miles from the ocean in consequence of the small fall of the river.

On the West Coast the rivers are generally too rapid to be navigable, in consequence of the proximity of the mountains to the sea, but they are invaluable in the dry regions for irrigation.

The Amazon has numerous tributaries, which are themselves great rivers, and occupies with its basin a large part of South America. Owing to the melting of the

snows in February and the rains which mainly occur at this season on the Andean slopes, it has a marked flood season, reaching its maximum in June, when it overflows its banks.

The Plate Estuary is formed by the junction of the Paraná and Uruguay. A larger amount of water is brought down than by any other river system in the New World excepting the Amazon. The Paraná is navigable for some 1,200 miles by ocean vessels.

Quito, in Ecuador, at over 9,000 feet, and Bogota, in the uplands of Colombia, at a little below 9,000 feet, have temperatures between 55° F. and 58° F. in both summer and winter, while Para, at the mouth of the Amazon, and Iquitos, on the Upper Amazon, are between 78° F. an 79° F. throughout the year. The diminution of temperature with altitude is shown most noticeably on the high Andean plateau, where La Paz, at over 12,000 feet, has a summer temperature of only 52° F., and near the margin of the Tropics, where Sao Paulo, in the coffee-growing uplands of southeast Brazil at about 2,500 feet, is about 9° colder than Rio at sea level. The local influence of the cold current is shown in the difference of temperature between points in the same latitude on the East and West coasts—Bahia, in latitude 12° S. is 10° warmer than Callao.

Outside the Tropics the eastern side of South America has a high summer temperature, above 68° F. to south of 40° S. latitude, as a consequence of which wheat can be grown successfully to the south of Buenos Aires.

South American Provinces (see also South American Republics):
Independence and political condition of, referred to, 601.
Independence of—
Achieved by, before recognized by United States, 829.
Asserted, 612.
Emperor of Russia intervenes for recognition of, 892.
Not recognized until danger of subjugation has passed, 1486.
Recognition of, referred to, 706, 761.
Should be recognized by United States, 685.
To be recommended, by United States, 674.
Supplies sent to, 811.
South American Republics. (See also South American Provinces; the several Republics):
Arbitration of pecuniary claims against, 7982.
Bank, central, in, advantages of, discussed, 7416.
Collection by governments of debts due their citizens, from other countries, by force of arms, referred to The Hague Tribunal by Conference of, 7060.
Commercial relations with—
Discussed by President—
Hayes, 4460.
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Report of Hamilton Fish on, 4024.
Commercial relations with, 4014, 4826, 5509.
Commission to Central America and, for improving commercial relations, discussed, 4826, 4863, 4864, 4915, 4955, 5116.
Condition of, discussed, 1009.
Congress of, referred to, 910.
Differences existing among, referred to, 2252.
Friendly disposition of United States toward, 950, 3884.
Independence of—
Achieved by, before recognized by United States, 829.
Asserted, 612.
Emperor of Russia intervenes for recognition of, 892.
Not recognized until danger of subjugation has passed, 1486.
Should be recognized by United States, 685.
To be recommended by United States, 674.
International American Conference at Washington. (See International American Conference.)
Markets of, should be supplied by the United States, 8016.
Mediation of United States offered in wars among, 3776, 3884.
Minister for, requested, 620.
Monarchical government in, establishment of, referred to, 3402.
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Peace conference between Spain and, held in Washington, 4052, 4099.
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Policy of United States toward, discussed, 5750.
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Steamship lines to, direct, subsidy for, 7374, 7435, 7503.
Trade with, ships for, 7362.
Treaty of, with Spain, discussed, 1369.
Treaty with, 868.
Vessels being built in New York for Spain forbidden to depart, 3987.
War of, with Spain—
Armistice, referred to, 4144.
Good offices of United States tendered, 3776, 3884.
Accepted, 3987, 4052.

South American Republics, Recognition of.—In 1817 Henry Clay endeavored to secure an appropriation from Congress for sending an accredited minister to Buenos

Ayres, which had become a free and independent Republic. Congress, however, refused. March 8, 1822, President Monroe in a special message to Congress (685) recommended the recognition of Buenos Ayres, Chile, Colombia, and other republics, and the establishment of international relations with them. This Congress agreed to. The commercial relations between the United States and these republics have steadily improved since this action. A conference, known as the International American Conference (q. v.), representing the United States and these republics, met in Washington in 1889 to encourage closer business relations. This resulted in the establishment of the Bureau of American Republics (q. v.). The latest example of the recognition of a new republic by this country occurred in the year 1903, when the Republic of Panama proclaimed its independence of Colombia on Nov. 4 and received the recognition of the American government two days later.

South and Central American Countries, Treaties with.—At the Fourth International American Conference, held in Buenos Aires in August, 1910, representatives of Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Santo Domingo, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Salvador, Uruguay and Venezuela agreed upon several important points of international comity, among which was a convention for the submission of pecuniary claims to arbitration whenever such claims are of sufficient importance to warrant the expense of arbitration. They also agreed that decisions of such claims should be rendered in accordance with the principles of international law, and all controversies submitted to The Hague Court of Arbitration. This treaty was signed at Buenos Aires August 11, 1910, ratification advised by the Senate Feb. 1, 1911, ratified by the President of the United States March 21, 1911, and proclaimed by Wilson July 29, 1914.

Another convention between the same republics adopted at the same conference provided for the protection of inventions, patents, designs and industrial models. For the text of these treaties see President Wilson's proclamations, pages 7982 and 7984.

South Carolina.—One of the thirteen original states; nickname, "The Palmetto State;" motto, "Animis opibusque parati" ("Prepared in mind and resources"). It lies between lat. 32° 4′ 30″ and 35° 13′ 2″ north and long. 78° 28′ and 83° 18′ west. It is bounded on the north and northeast by North Carolina, on the southeast by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the southwest and west by Georgia (separated for most part of the distance by the Savannah River). It has an area of 30,989 square miles. The surface is level near the coast, undulating in the interior, and mountainous in the northwest. The state produces gold, porcelain, clay, phosphates, and other minerals, and is especially noted for the production of rice and sea-island cotton.

South Carolina was partially explored by the Spaniards in 1525, who named it Chicora. An unsuccessful attempt to colonize was made by the French under Ribault in 1562. The first permanent settlement was made by the English in 1670. Charleston was founded in 1680. Charles II. gave the territory between lat. 29° and 36° 30′ north, to eight of his favorites in 1663, and two years later he issued a charter placing the control of the colony in their hands. They employed John Locke, the philosopher, to draw up a constitution which should provide an ideal government. This "grand model" proved to be an attempt to set up the feudal system in America, and was abandoned by the proprietors in 1693. South Carolina became a royal colony in 1729.

The first constitution was adopted in 1776. The Federal Constitution was ratified May 23, 1788. The state seceded on Dec. 20, 1860, and was readmitted by act of Congress June 25, 1868.

In 1920 the population was 1,683,724. In 1910, it was 1,515,400, of which 835,843 were negroes, and 6,179 were foreign-born. Less than 15% of the population in 1910 was urban.

In a recent year there were 14,919 public schools in the state, with 8,680 teachers and 407,940 enrolled pupils. There were 149 public high schools, with 427 teachers and 8,292 pupils. The majority of the people are Methodists and Baptists.

South Carolina is predominantly an agricultural state. Recent figures showed 176,434 farms, with a total acreage of 13,512,000 and a total value of $392,128,000 for all farm property. More recent figures for farms only put the number at 192,664. In a recent year the number and value of farm animals were given by the Department of Agriculture as follows: Horses, 82,000, $14,760,000; milch cows, 203,000, $15,834,000; other cattle, 244,000, $8,394,000; sheep, 29,000, $188,000; swine, 1,056,000, $22,176,000.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Cotton	2,877,000	a1,530,000	$110,925,000
Corn	2,230,000	42,370,000	49,149,000
Tobacco	103,000	b66,950,000	10,042,000
Oats	434,000	10,416,000	10,728,000
Hay	460,000	c462,000	11,466,000
Sw. Potatoes	88,000	9,240,000	10,811,000
Potatoes	31,000	3,100,000	5,580,000
Wheat	160,000	1,760,000	4,488,000
Peanuts	36,000	1,620,000	3,434,000

a—Bales. b—Pounds. c—Tons.

The last annual fruit crop included 1,482,000 bushels of apples, 1,110,000 bushels of peaches and 98,000 bushels of pears.

South Carolina has important fisheries, especially oysters, whiting, shad, bass. The mineral production is usually slightly above $1,000,000 annually. The chief minerals worked are phosphate rock, granite, clay.

The number of manufacturing establishments in South Carolina having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 1,885. The amount of capital invested was $203,211,000, giving employment to 77,693 persons, using material valued at $91,009,000, and turning out finished goods worth $138,891,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $29,052,000.

South Carolina (see also Confederate States):
Amendment to Federal Constitution, referred to, 598.
Census of—
Referred to, 108.
Return of, delay in, 104.
Claims of, for advances made during War of 1812, 1027.
Commissioners from, to President Buchanan, 3189.
Correspondence on, referred to, 3195.

Constitution of, referred to, 3830.
Delay in return of census of, 104.
Forts and fortifications ceded to United States by, 384.
Fourteenth amendment to Constitution, ratified by, 3837.
Proclaimed, 3855.
Imprisonment of free negroes in ports of, referred to, 1954.
Judicial districts of, 6672.
Ku-Klux-Klans, etc., in, discussed, 4104, 4117.
Proclamations against, 4086, 4088, 4089, 4090, 4093, 4350.
Provisional governor for, appointed and restoration of, into Union, discussed, 3524.
Railroad in, survey of, 1027.
Ratification of amendment to Federal Constitution by, referred to, 66, 249.
Revenue laws for—
Act of Congress in regard to, declared void by, 1173.
Referred to, 1195.
Deliberations of convention in regard to, made known to President Jackson, 1174.
Military operations in, growing out of opposition to, 1197, 1203.
Nullification message, 1173.
Nullification proclamation, 1203.
Opposition to, from citizens of, 1174.
Proclamation regarding, 1203.
Rifle clubs in, proclamation against, 3103.
Secession ordinance of, facsimile of, 3135.
Slaughter of American citizens in Hamburg, referred to, 4329.
Unlawful combinations in, discussed and proclamations against, 1173, 1203, 3743, 4086, 4088, 4089, 4090, 4093, 4104, 4117, 4350.
Copies of proclamations for executive clerks, 3756.
Habeas corpus, writ of, suspended in certain counties, 4090, 4093.
Revoked as to Marion County, 4092.

South Carolina Inter-State and West Indian Exposition.—An industrial and educational fair, held at Charleston, S. C., from Dec. 1 to June 2, 1902. The site covered an area of 250 acres and the buildings were in the Spanish Renaissance style of architecture, covered with staff, tinted an ivory white. The United States and many of the individual states made exhibits, as well as Cuba, Porto Rico, and Guatemala. Notable original groups of historical statuary exhibited were "The Aztec," "The Negro," and "The Huguenot." The total attendance was 674,806. The cost of the exhibition was $1,250,000, and the receipts $313,000.

South Dakota.—One of the western group of states. Nickname, "Coyote State." Motto, "Under God the people rule." It lies a little north of the center of the continent, between lat. 45° 57′ and 42° 28′ north (extreme southeast point: west of the Missouri the southern boundary is 43° north) and long. 96° 26′ and 104° 3′ west. It is bounded on the north by North Dakota, on the east by Minnesota and Iowa, on the south by Nebraska, and on the west by Montana and Wyoming. It has an area of 77,615 square miles. The Missouri River divides the state into two nearly equal portions. The eastern part is generally smooth and rolling. West of the river the country rises more rapidly and culminates in the Black Hills, an elevated region some 60 by 100 miles in extent, the central point of which is Harney's Peak, 9,700 feet high. The Bad Lands, in the southeastern part, is an interesting geological formation, consisting of a desert region abounding in canyons, depressions, walls, and castles of white earth, rich in soil-making chemicals and interesting fossils.

The early history of the State is identical with that of North Dakota (q. v.), from which it was separated and admitted as a state in 1889. The total land area is 49,184,000 acres, of which 12,908,977 acres are reserved for the Indians. With the exception of the forests of the Black Hills the State is almost an arid plain.

In 1920 the population was 636,547. In 1910 it was 583,888, of whom 19,137 were Indians, and 100,790 were foreign-born. Among the foreign-born were 21,544 Germans, 20,918 Norwegians, 13,189 Russians, 9,998 Swedes, 6,294 Danes, 4,024 English, 2,980 Irish, 5,372 Austrians, 6,010 Canadians. The urban population was 13% of the whole.

The latest educational statistics show 5,296 public elementary schools, with 5,493 teachers and 88,848 enrolled pupils. There were 326 public secondary schools, with 1,947 teachers and 49,637 pupils.

The last federal census showed 77,644 farms in the state with an acreage of 26,016,892 (15,827,208 improved) and a total value of all farm property of $1,166,096,980. Later figures for the number of farms only put them at 74,564.

The most recent figures for the number and value of the farm animals are as follows: Horses, 827,000, $66,160,000; milch cows, 561,000, $46,002,000; other cattle, 1,496,000, $80,634,000; sheep, 810,000, $9,882,000; swine, 1,654,000, $45,485,000; mules, 15,000. The last annual wool clip amounted to 4,750,000 pounds. The last annual fruit production included 323,000 bushels of apples.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Wheat	2,886,000	26,282,000	$30,224,000
Corn	3,520,000	105,600,000	44,352,000
Oats	2,219,000	75,446,000	24,897,000
Barley	1,073,000	26,825,000	13,949,000
Hay, tame	1,000,000	a1,750,000	14,875,000
Rye	320,000	4,320,000	4,709,000
Potatoes	84,000	8,904,000	8,637,000

a—Tons.

The chief mineral product is gold, of which the annual output in recent years has been between five and seven millions of dollars in value. Other minerals mined are silver, copper, lead, but in small amounts.

The last federal census of manufactures showed 898 industrial establishments in the state, with 1,558 salaried employees and firm members, and 3,788 wage-earners. The capital represented was $15,060,000; there

were paid out annually in salaries and wages, $3,463,000; the cost of materials was $17,079,000 and the value of the product was $24,139,000. The chief manufacturing is concerned with milling and the making of butter, cheese and condensed milk.

South Dakota:
Admission of, into Union, proclaimed, 5457.
Discussed, 5485.
Lands in—
Opened to settlement by proclamation, 5707, 6016.
Set apart as public reservation by proclamation, 6216.

South Mountain, or Boonsboro (Md.), Battle of.—After driving the Union army back upon the fortifications around Washington, Lee's army crossed the Potomac into Maryland. The Confederate commander issued an address to the people offering them the protection of his government and calling for volunteer soldiers. He sent the greater part of his army, about 25,000 men, under Jackson, to capture the garrison at Harpers Ferry. As soon as it became known at Washington that Lee had crossed into Maryland, McClellan was ordered to follow him with all the troops not needed to defend Washington. Sept. 12, 1862, McClellan reached Frederick with a force estimated at from 80,000 to 90,000 just after it had been evacuated by Lee's army, which had passed west over the Catoctin Mountains toward South Mountain. The road from Frederick to Hagerstown, Md., passes through Turners Gap of this mountain. Here on Sept 14, 1862, Gen. D. H. Hill, with a force of about 6,000 men, successfully resisted repeated assaults from Hooker's and Burnside's corps, fully 30,000 strong. At 3 P. M. Hill was reenforced by 1,900 men, and later in the day by Longstreet with six brigades, only four of which, numbering 3,000 men, were seriously engaged. The gap was contested from 8 A. M. until after dark. During the night the Confederates retired. Franklin took possession of Crampton's Gap, six miles below, held by the Confederates under Howell Cobb. The Federal loss at Turners Gap, South Mountain, was 328 killed and 1,463 wounded and missing, and at Crampton's Gap 115 killed and 418 missing. The Confederate loss at both aggregated 934.

South Polar Regions.—The Antarctic Ocean includes much more of the circumpolar ocean than the part south of the Antarctic Circle (66½° S.), as drifting pack ice is carried a long way to the north. Icebergs are often met with north of 45° S. It is now considered that the land which has been sighted at various points forms part of the Antarctic continent, probably loftier than Greenland and larger than Australia. This plateau is covered with a sheet of *névé* and ice which seems to be slowly creeping toward the sea. The icebergs differ completely from those of the Arctic, forming large flat-topped islands with perpendicular sides.

In the interior the plateau rises to over 10,000 feet and is remarkably level. On this some of the peaks exceed 15,000 feet. In Victoria Land there have been great volcanic eruptions in geologically recent epochs. To these are due the conical peaks of Erebus (12,760 feet), which is still active, Terror, Melbourne, and Discovery, and numerous isolated craters.

There are no land animals, but microscopic life has been found in ponds which can endure great extremes of cold and heat.

Exploration.—A southern continent was believed to exist in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but it was not till 1774 that Cook crossed the Antarctic Circle and reached in his voyages 71° 10′ S.-106° 54′ W. in 1774. This was the furthest point south attained in the eighteenth century. Bellingshausen, in a Russian expedition supplementing Cook's voyages, reached 69° 25′ S. and 1° 11′ W. in 1819, and in 1821 sighted the first land ever seen within the Antarctic Circle, to which he gave the name of Peter I. Island. In 1823 James Weddell reached 74° 15′ S. and 34° 17′ W. In 1831-1832 Biscoe discovered Graham Land. In 1835 an attempt was made to reach the Magnetic Pole by a French expedition that met with no success, though land was sighted inside the Antarctic Circle.

In 1839 the *Erebus* and *Terror*, the former commanded by Ross, entered pack ice in 174° E., and succeeded in getting through the ice into open sea to the south. He discovered a chain of mountains south of Cape Adare in 71° S., and the land was taken possession of as Victoria Land. The names of the two ships were given to the volcanoes. In 1842 an attempt was made to pass the Great Ice Barrier on the east, and the land was discovered now known as King Edward's Land.

There was no more exploration till 1874, when the first steamer, the *Challenger*, reached 66° 40′ S. and 78° 30′ E. In 1894 Borchgrevink, a sailor on board a Norwegian whaler, was one of a party that landed near Cape Adare, the first to set foot on the Antarctic continent. In 1895 interest in Antarctic exploration was aroused by the efforts of Sir Clement Markham, President of the Royal British Geographical Society, and the International Geographic Congress, and the modern era of South Polar discovery was inaugurated.

In 1899 Borchgrevink, in the *Southern Cross*, an expedition equipped by Sir George Newnes, took dogs and sledges to attempt to reach the Magnetic Pole, and landed near Cape Adare. It was found that the ice barrier had receded about 30 miles south since it had been mapped by Ross in 1841.

In 1901-1904 a national Antarctic expedition was organized under Scott. In 1902 Scott, Shackleton, and Wilson reached 82° 17′ S. with dog sledges. An elevation of 9,000 feet was attained on the plateau. Nordenskjöld, in the *Antarctic*, and Bruce, in the *Scotia*, added to the knowledge of the South Polar regions. In 1904 Charcot, in the *Français*, and in 1909 in the *Pourquoi Pas*, explored the Bellingshausen Sea. In 1909 Shackleton, in the *Nimrod*, attempted to land a shore party to winter on King Edward's Land but wintered near the base of Mount Erebus, about 20 miles to the north of the *Discovery's* winter quarters. An ascent of Mount Erebus was made. David reached the South Magnetic Pole, and Shackleton with his companions reached the upper plateau at about 10,000 feet, where they were obliged to return in 88° 23′ S., 113 miles from the Pole. In 1910 Scott left in the *Terra Nova* for an extended period of scientific exploration.

Announcement was made on March 7, 1912, that Captain Roald Amundsen, a Norwegian, had reached the southernmost point on December 14, 1911. Amundsen had sailed for the southern seas in his vessel, the *Fram*, hardly less famous in explora-

tions than Amundsen himself. The Antarctic winter was spent in a hut at Framheim, from which, on October 20, 1911, Amundsen made his dash for the Pole accompanied by five men, sledges and dogs, with provisions and supplies for only three months. The party relied upon depots of seal meat for support on its return journey. Steady progress was made until November 11, when lofty land was sighted, and on November 17, Amundsen had to begin his ascent of the mountains which barred his way. The peaks were suprisingly high, one camp being at an altitude of more than 10,000 feet, and mountains on all hands towering to heights of more than 15,000 feet. Finally, on December 6, the party broke through the mountains to the high flat plateau stretching from them to the Pole at a uniformly level altitude of about 11,000 feet. The ice of the plateau was smooth, and the weather conditions favorable, and the Pole was reached on December 14.

Amundsen and his victorious party stayed at the Pole four days, nailing the Norwegian colors to the pole of the hut which they erected on the spot, and returned to the *Fram* with little difficulty. The height of the plateau on the spot at which Amundsen located the Pole was about 10,750 feet.

In the meantime, Scott and his party were making leisurely, but steady progress, stopping their journey often to make extended scientific experiments. By use of his motor sledges, he got nearer and nearer his quest, until with his goal in sight, Scott narrowed down his companions to four—Dr. Wilson, Captain Oates, Lieutenants Bowers and Evans. When but a day's distance from the Pole, laboring under the excitement and stimulation of the thought that they were to be the first men to set foot upon the Pole, they ran across the fresh tracks of Amundsen's party, tracks headed both towards and away from the Pole. And when they reached 90°, on January 29, 1912, they found at the Pole the hut erected by Amundsen—on top, the Norwegian colors, and within, the account of Amundsen's trip.

The return trip proved a succession of obstacles. Storm after storm, each of them of a violence surprising even in Antarctic regions, burst upon them, and made rapid progress impossible. The ice had shifted, and the heavy winds had churned it into a rough surface far different from the smooth surface over which the journey to the Pole had been made. Open water confronted them where their journey southward had found solid land. Evans died from concussion of the brain, caused by a fall. Oates became lame; and realizing that his weakness was delaying the party, walked outside of the tent one night to a deliberate death. Finally on March 21 provisions for only one more day remained, and the party, weakened and ill, was 155 miles from the nearest spot where, according to their knowledge, food awaited them. And accordingly they made camp, wrote a calm and dispassionate account of their achievements, and awaited courageously the approach of death. Their bodies were found ten months later.

For further details of the Antarctic regions and of attempts to conquer them, see the article, Antarctic Regions.

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Southwest Territory.—A region comprising portions of the present States of Tennessee, Kentucky, and Mississippi, together with a strip of land ceded to the General Government by South Carolina. Though never organized under one territorial government, it was known as the Southwest Territory. An unsuccessful attempt was made to organize a portion of this territory into a new state to be called Franklin (q. v.). With the admission of Tennessee and Kentucky and the organization of a Territorial government in Mississippi this territory went out of existence.

Soviet.—The Russian Council of Soldiers' and Workmen's Delegates, which met in Petrograd immediately after the consummation of the Russian Revolution, which continued to meet during all the developments of that event, and which represented, in fine, the real government of Russia and the real source of power and management. (See Russia, *Russian Revolution*.)

Spain.—The Kingdom of Spain occupies the greater portion of the Iberian Peninsula of southwestern Europe, and consists of Continental Spain, occupying eleven-thirteenths of the peninsula (the remainder being occupied by the Republic of Portugal and the British rocky fortress of Gibraltar), the Balearic Islands, the fortified station of Ceuta, and the Canary Islands. The Balearic and Canary Islands and Ceuta form an integral part of the kingdom, which also possesses certain colonies and dependencies. Continental Spain lies between 36°-43° 45′ N. latitude and 4° 25′ E.-9° 20′ W. longitude, and has a total area of 190,050 square miles. The Balearic Islands are an archipelago of four large and eleven small islands in the Mediterranean. Of the four larger islands, Majorca has an area of 430 square miles; Minorca (260 square miles) possesses the magnificent harbor of Port Mahon and a former capital in Ciudadela; Iviza has La Ciudad as capital; and Formentera has an area of 37 square miles. The eleven small islands have an area of 985 square miles—a total for the Archipelago of 1,935 square miles. Ceuta is a fortified post on the Moroccan coast, opposite Gibraltar (the Straits of Gibraltar being 14 miles wide between the two fortresses), and consists of a promontory connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus. At the seaward end of the promontory is the Monte del Haeko, formerly called Abyla, and one of the "Pillars of Hercules." Ceuta has an area of 5 square miles, with a population of about 13,000. The Canary Islands are an Archipelago in the Atlantic Ocean, about 60 miles from the coast of West Africa. The total area is 2,807 square miles and the population (est.) is 513,959. The Archipelago consists of seven islands and six uninhabited islets. Of the seven inhabited islands, Teneriffe has an area of 782 square miles and a population of close on 150,000, its capital, Santa Cruz, having 53,403 inhabitants in 1910, and forming the administrative center of the group. Fuerteventura, Grand Canary, Lanzarote, Palma, Gomera, Hierro are the others.

Physical Features.—Central Spain consists of an extensive tableland, between the Cantabrian Mountains and the Pyrenees in the north and the Sierra Nevada in the south, with the Castilian Divinding Range running almost east and west in the middle of the plateau. Between the plateau and the Pyrenees is the northeastern lowland of the Ebro Valley, and in the southwest is the valley of the Guadalquivir. The principal rivers are the Tagus, Douro, Ebro, Guadiana, and Guadalquivir.

The early inhabitants were Celts and Iberians, with Phoenician colonists.

The climate of the tableland has great extremes, but that of the eastern (Mediterranean) provinces is more equable, while the southern provinces are sub-tropical, with great summer heat and mild winters, vegetation being at its best in midwinter. The north and northwest have a mild and equable climate with abundant rainfall.

History.—Roman Spain was invaded in the fifth century by the Vandals, Visigoths, and Suebi, and early in the eighth century the country was conquered by Moslems from northern Africa, who remained the dominant power for nearly 700 years, but before their expulsion from Spain, at the instigation of the Inquisition in 1502, they had sunk from the position of conquerors to semi-servile trading communities. The greatness of the country began with the reign of Ferdinand and Isabella (1474-1516), under whom the Kingdom was consolidated and its dominions extended by adventurous conquerors, who carried the religion and flag of Spain over a territory many times greater than their native land. Toward the close of the sixteenth century the Netherlands passed to the Spanish crown by inheritance, and the zenith of Spain's grandeur may be said to have been reached. The religious wars in the Low Countries and in France and a war with England, marked by the disastrous expedition of the Great Armada (1588), were the beginnings of the decadence of Spain, which suffered from a century of weak kings, whose line ended in 1700 at the death of Charles II. The succession led to a great European war, which terminated in the Treaty of Utrecht, signed by England and France on April 11 (and by England and Spain on July 13), 1713, by which Gibraltar was ceded to England. At the beginning of the nineteenth century the country was an easy prey to the armies of Napoleon, who placed his brother upon the throne. Napoleon's generals occupied Spain

and Portugal in 1812, but within two years the invaders were driven out by the genius of Wellington, and Ferdinand VII. was restored in 1814. The nineteenth century witnessed many upheavals, including the revolution of 1820, the revolt of the South American Colonies, 1821-1823, the Carlist Wars of 1840, 1860, and 1873-1876 (by which the adherents of Don Carlos, brother of Ferdinand VII., endeavored to obtain the throne for their leader and his successors), a revolution of 1868 and the institution of a Republic 1868-1874, the Bourbon restoration of 1874, the Cuban insurrections of 1869 and 1898, and the Spanish-American War of April-December, 1898, terminating in the Treaty of Paris (December 12, 1898), by which Spain renounced the sovereignty of Cuba and ceded Porto Rico, the Philippine Islands and other territory to the United States. In the World War Spain was neutral.

Government.—The government is that of a constitutional monarchy; hereditary in the male (and eventually in the female) line of the house of Bourbon-Anjou, the constitution resting on the fundamental law of June 30, 1876.

The executive rests in the King and the legislative power in the Cortes with the King. The King has the power to convoke, suspend or dissolve the Cortes; but in the last case a new Cortes must sit within three months. The King and each of the legislative chambers may take the initiative in law-making, and the Chamber of Deputies may impeach any of the ministers before the Senate. The King governs through a President of the Council and eight ministers, who are the heads of the executive departments. The ministers are responsible to the Cortes, and all the King's decrees must be signed by one of his ministers.

The legislative body, or Cortes, is composed of the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies. The Senate contains 360 members, of whom one-half are hereditary official or life members and one-half elective, in three classes: (1) Grandees of Spain, with incomes exceeding 60,000 pesetas, and high officials of the Church, Army, Navy, and judiciary; (2) Life members nominated by the Sovereign; (3) Members elected by the 49 provinces (3 each) and by the academies, universities, dioceses, and State corporations, and renewable as to one-half every five years. The Chamber of Deputies consists of 417 members (one for every 50,000 of the population) elected by universal suffrage of all male Spaniards aged twenty-five.

The Kingdom is divided into 495 *partidos judiciales*, each containing a court of first instance, from which appeals are heard by 15 *audiencias territoriales*. Criminal causes are determined by quarterly assizes in each of the 49 provinces. There is a Supreme Court of Cassation (with civil and criminal departments) at the capital.

Population.—The census of the forty-nine provinces taken in 1910 gave the population as 19,588,688 in an area of 194,783 square miles. The latest estimate of the population is 20,719,598. Included within the generic term "Spaniards" are about 500,000 Basques in the northern provinces, Catalans in the northeast and Gallcians in the northwest.

The capital is Madrid, with an estimated population of 652,000. The other large towns are Barcelona, 620,000; Valencia, 245,000; Sevilla, 164,000; Malaga, 141,000; Murcia, 133,000; Zaragoza, 125,000; Cartagena, 110,000; Bilbao, 100,000. The chief ports are Barcelona and Bilbao.

About 55% of the people are illiterate. The latest educational statistics showed 26,108 public schools and 5,669 private schools, the total number of pupils enrolled being 2,604,308. There are 58 secondary schools, with 52,500 pupils. The eleven universities have an enrolment of about 25,000.

The National Church is the Roman Catholic, and practically the entire population belongs to that faith. The state supports the clergy, the buildings, etc., of the Church, although liberty of worship is guaranteed other religious faiths. Much of the education in Spain is in Church hands.

Production and Industry.—Spain is overwhelmingly agricultural, with almost 90% of the soil classed as productive. Of this 35% is devoted to agriculture, 5½% to vineyards and olive culture, 25% to natural grass and 22% to fruits. The soil is extensively sub-divided among a great number of proprietors.

The most recent agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Owts.*
Wheat	10,499,667	70,352,992
Barley	4,303,887	35,623,758
Maize	1,193,155	12,982,452
Rye	1,828,935	11,835,142
Oats	1,613,842	9,555,392
Rice	113,400	6,052,866
Beans	1,280,650	6,973,934

The number of acres under vines was 3,292,925, with 7,915,000,000 pounds of grapes produced, furnishing 544,000,000 gallons of ordinary white and red wines. Silk culture is prosecuted actively in some of the provinces. About 4,600,000 kgs. of cane sugar and 75,000,000 kgs. of beet sugar are produced annually.

The most recent figures for farm animals were as follows: Horses, 576,900; mules, 1,049,500; asses, 916,300; cows, 3,173,600; sheep, 17,735,000; goats, 3,685,800; pigs, 4,106,800.

Spain is rich in minerals, especially iron, copper, coal, zinc, lead, salt, mercury, silver. In a recent year, more than 130,000 persons were employed in the mines and the total annual mineral output was valued at more than $120,000,000. The output of the more valuable minerals was as follows:

Minerals	*Metric Tons*	*Value*
Coal	6,134,986	$83,000,000
Lead	216,133	13,000,000
Iron and I. Pyrites	5,282,659	11,000,000
Lignite	726,348	5,300,000

The annual value of the fish catch is about $18,000,000, with 15,300 boats and 86,000 persons engaged in the fishing industry. The sardine and tunny fish industries are especially important.

In the year preceding the outbreak of the World War, the annual imports were valued at $230,000,000 and the exports at $190,000,000. In 1917, the imports were valued at $260,000,000 and the exports at $258,000,000; in 1918, imports at $120,000,000 and exports at $185,000,000.

In order of value, the chief imports are food substances; cotton and cotton manufactures; machinery and vehicles; animals and animal products. However, the imports are extremely varied. In order of value, the chief exports are food substances, followed by metals and metal manufactures; cotton and cotton manufacures; wine; wool, hair and manufactures of these substances; stone, minerals, glassware, pottery, etc.

The imports come chiefly from the United States, followed at a distance by France and the United Kingdom; the exports go chiefly to France, followed by the United Kingdom and the United States. In a recent year, the United States exported to Spain goods valued at $151,440,032 and imported from Spain goods valued at $42,513,051.

In the last year for which figures are available, the most important products exported by the United States to Spain, in order of value, were as follows: Cotton; machinery and other iron and steel goods; sugar; tobacco; staves; leather; chemicals, drugs and dyes; mineral oils.

Cotton and linen manufactures are the most important industries, and increased efforts are being exerted to supply the home demand since the loss of the former colonial outlets, but the imports are still considerable. Tobacco (a Government monopoly), leather, paper, soap, chocolate, cork, distilling and fruit preserving are also considerable industries.

Finance.—The most recent annual budget was 1,648,000,000 pesetas revenue and 2,065,065,000 pesetas expenditure. The national debt amounts to about $2,400,000,000, of which $180,000,000 is foreign debt. The unit of value is the peseta, valued at $0.19 1/3 in United States currency.

Communications.—In the last year for which figures are available, there entered Spanish ports 12,475 vessels, with a total tonnage of 8,475,000; and there cleared 13,836 vessels, with a total tonnage of 7,205,000. The length of the Spanish railways is 9,375 miles. There are 2,520 telegraph offices, with 65,227 miles of line; and 153 urban and 208 interurban telephone systems, with 56,400 telephone stations.

RIO MUNI (or Spanish Guinea) is a coastal settlement of West Africa between German Cameroon and French Congo, extending about 125 miles inland. The inhabitants are Bantu tribes. Cocoa, coffee, and bananas are cultivated, and rubber, palm-oil, palm-kernels, and other forest produce are exported.

RIO DE ORO is a possession on the north west coast of Africa, between Cape Bogador and Cape Blanco. The territory is part of the waterless Sahara, with a sparse population of wandering Mohammedan Arabs. There are valuable fisheries off the coast, and cattle, sheep, and camels are bred where vegetation permits.

SPANISH COLONIES (exclusive of Ceuta and the Canary Islands, which form an integral part of Spain) consist of certain settlements and islands of western Africa, with a total area of close on 82,400 English square miles, and a population exceeding 275,000.

FERNANDO PO lies in the Bight of Biafra in 3° 12′ N. latitude and 8° 48′ E. longitude, about 20 miles distant from the west coast of Africa, and is a mountainous island (Pico de Santa Isabel, 10,800 feet), with forests of oil palm, ebony, mahogany, and oak, and sugar cane, cotton, and indigo. Cocoa, coffee, sugar, tobacco, vanilla, and kola nut are cultivated, and large quantities of cocoa and other products are exported. The capital is Basile, and the largest town Port Clarence (1,500 inhabitants). Dependencies of the island of Fernando Po are:—

Annopon Island, in the Gulf of Guinea, in 1° 24′ S. latitude and 50° 35′ E. longitude. The roadstead at the capital (San Antonio de Bala) is much frequented by passing vessels, which also obtain water and vegetables from the islanders.

Corisco Islands, consisting of Corisco, Bana, Elobey Grande and Elobey Chico, lie in Corisco Bay, and export ebony, logwood, and other forest produce.

MOROCCO AND THE SAHARA.—By a treaty signed on Nov. 27, 1912, between France and Spain, the latter acquired a zone or sphere of influence in North Morocco, the capital being Tetuan, where the Sultan's authority is represented by a Khalifa. The limits of the Rio de Oro and Rio Muni were also defined in the treaty with France (see "Morocco").

Melilla is a town on a rocky promontory of the Riff coast, connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus. The population is about 9,000, and the settlement (which was conquered from the Moors in 1490) exports goatskins, eggs, and beeswax, and imports cotton goods and provisions.

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The treaty of peace of 1898, known as the Treaty of Paris, closed the Spanish-American War. By it Spain relinquished all authority and claim of sovereignty to Cuba and ceded Porto Rico and Guam to the United States. In consideration of the payment by the United States, within three months of the ratification of the treaty, of twenty millions of dollars, Spain ceded to the United States the archipelago known as the Philippines. It was agreed that the United States should for the space of ten years from the signing of the treaty admit Spanish ships and merchandise to the Philippines on the same terms as United States ships and merchandise. Spanish soldiers taken as prisoners of war at Manila were to be sent back to Spain at the expense of the United States, with their arms restored to them. Spain should evacuate the Philippines as speedily as possible, taking with her, as her property, the movable munitions of war and arms, the larger arms to be left in position and purchased from Spain by the United States upon terms to be agreed upon. All prisoners of war to be released by both parties. No indemnity to be sought by either government from the other. The United States to settle all claims against Spain covered by the relinquishment of this treaty.

Spain relinquished to the United States all wharves, docks, barracks, and similar public property in Cuba, Porto Rico, Guam, and in the Philippines without prejudice to private interests therein. Provision was made for establishing the political status of subjects of Spain electing to remain within the ceded possessions. The right of establishing a consular office by Spain in any of the ceded districts was accorded by the treaty.

In 1900 an additional treaty was made to cover the cession of the outlying islands of the Philippines not specifically included in the treaty of 1898. These were particularly the islands of the Cagayan Sulu and Sibitu, for which cession the United States agreed to pay the sum of one hundred thousand dollars to Spain.

In 1902 a treaty of friendship and general relations was closed with Spain to cover largely the points in the treaties which had been abrogated by war. This treaty covered the points usual in treaties of commerce and navigation, and consular conventions.

An arbitration convention on the lines prescribed by The Hague Convention of 1899 was signed April 30, 1908.

Spanish-American Provinces. (See South American Provinces; South American Republics.)

Spanish-American War.—In February, 1895, the natives of Cuba, after years of oppression by their Spanish rulers, which was in no wise lightened by various unsuccessful revolutions, determined to throw off the yoke of Spain. They took up arms against the mother country, and quickly the entire island was in a state of insurrection. This revolution, like previous outbreaks which had occurred in the island, was not at first considered of sufficient importance to warrant interference or recognition on the part of the United States, although Americans were outspoken in their sympathy for Cuba and indignant at the stories of mistreatment of Cubans at the hands of Spanish governors.

A similar outbreak in the island occurred in 1868, during the Administration of President Grant. In his message to Congress Dec. 6, 1869, President Grant said: "The contest (in the island) has at no time assumed the conditions which amount to a war in the sense of international law, or which would show the existence of a *de facto* political organization of the insurgents sufficient to justify a recognition of belligerency" (page 3985). In a message of June 13, 1870, describing the conditions in the island, he said: "The insurrection itself, although not subdued, exhibits no signs of advance, but seems to be confined to an irregular system of hostilities, carried on by small and illy armed bands of men, roaming without concentration through the woods and the sparsely populated regions of the island, attacking from ambush convoys and small bands of troops, burning

plantations and the estates of those not sympathizing with their cause" (page 4018). Again, Dec. 7, 1875, in a message to Congress he used the following language in respect to conditions in the island: "Considered as a question of expediency, I regard the accordance of belligerent rights still to be as unwise and premature as I regard it to be, at present, indefensible as a measure of right" (page 4293).

President Cleveland entertained an opinion in regard to the insurrection in Cuba arising in 1895 similar to those expressed by President Grant in regard to the insurrection of 1868, and in his message of Dec. 2 of that year he said: "Whatever may be the traditional sympathy of our countrymen as individuals with a people who seem to be struggling for larger autonomy and greater freedom, deepened, as such sympathy naturally must be, in behalf of our neighbors, yet the plain duty of their government is to observe in good faith the recognized obligations of international relationship" (page 6068). He insisted that belligerent rights should not be accorded to the insurgents, because of peril and injury to your own interests. He said in his message of Dec. 7, 1896: "Imperfect and restricted as the Spanish government of the island may be, no other exists there, unless the will of the military officer in temporary command of a particular district can be dignified as a species of government" (page 6151).

These expressions of policy toward Cuba were widely cited to show that there was no reaching out on the part of the United States to interfere with the Spanish rule in Cuba. When President McKinley was inaugurated the insurrection described by his immediate predecessor still existed, and the grave questions which had confronted the latter were now presented for his consideration. He declined to interfere in the troubles in the island in any way and expressly refused to recognize the independence of Cuba. He declared Spain should be given reasonable time in which to apply promised reforms. In pursuance of Spain's promise autonomous administrations were established in some of the larger cities, but subsequent developments demonstrated the futility of such action and the failure of the newly formed governments. The revolution dragged on, sapping the substance of the people as it progressed and rendering destitute the poorer classes. Crimes were committed on every hand, while desolation and disorder reigned.

To add to the horrors and atrocities of the struggle, the Captain-General of the island, Valeriano Weyler, Feb. 16, 1896, issued an edict initiating a cruel policy which he called "reconcentration." By Weyler's order the agricultural inhabitants were herded into the cities, their lands laid waste, and their homes destroyed. Crowded within the cities and lines of the Spanish armies, the non-combatant men, women, and children died from disease and starvation in untold numbers. Reports of the conditions in Cuba were from time to time brought to the United States, and the public mind throughout the country was greatly stirred. While this state of affairs existed the second-class battleship *Maine*, which had been dispatched to Cuban waters on a friendly mission, was on the night of Feb. 15, 1898, blown up in the harbor of Havana. In this catastrophe two officers and 258 sailors and marines perished (page 6295). A thorough investigation of this disaster was immediately instituted, and at its close a report was made to the effect that the destruction of the ship had been wrought by an explosion from without, produced by a submarine mine (page 6281).

The tension of the public mind, already great, was increased by this report and by the suspicion in the minds of many as to the cause of the disaster. The people could not much longer be held in check, and to those who were even casually observant it was apparent that a crisis in our affairs with Spain was imminent. Congress was in session and unanimously appropriated $50,000,000 for the national defense. The coasts of the United States were poorly defended, the Navy needed ammunition and supplies and an increase in vessels, while the Army required enlargement in men and munitions. April 6 the continental powers, through their envoys in Washington, gave expression to the hope that an amicable adjustment of the impending troubles might be reached. The President replied to their representations, and with them shared the hope that peace might be preserved. The President in his message of April 11, 1898, announced the failure of diplomacy to bring about a satisfactory settlement of the difficulties and recommended to Congress forcible intervention (page 6281).

On April 19, Congress passed a joint resolution declaring for freedom for the people of Cuba and authorizing the armed intervention of the United States. However, it refused formally to recognize the Government of Cuba in the resolution. The vote in the House was almost unanimous, but in the Senate very close, due to differences of opinion as to phraseology and aims. (See page 6297.) The joint resolution met with the full approval of the President and he signed it on the following day. Spain considered this act on the part of the United States as "equivalent to an evident declaration of war." The ministers of the two countries were recalled and diplomatic relations terminated. April 22 a blockade of Cuban ports was proclaimed (page 6472), and the following day a call was made for 125,000 volunteers (page 6473). A formal declaration of war was recommended by the President, and April 25 Congress declared the existence of war from and including April 21. Due notification of the existence of war was given to the various governments April 25, nearly all of which immediately responded with proclamations of neutrality.

May 25 there was a second call for volunteers, 75,000 in number (page 6477). Like the initial call for 125,000, this was responded to without delay. The regular army was largely increased, as was the enlisted force of the Navy. More than 100 vessels were added to the Navy by purchase. The coast defenses were rapidly strengthened, additional guns placed in position, and an auxiliary navy was created. About 1,500 submarine mines were placed at the most exposed points on the coast. Cable, telegraph, and telephone lines were constructed in many places. In addition to the national defense fund of $50,000,000, which was expended in large part by the Army and Navy, Congress provided further means for prosecuting hostilities by the war revenue act of June 13, authorizing a 3 per cent popular loan not to exceed $400,000,000 and levying additional imposts and taxes. Of the authorized loan $200,000,000 was offered and promptly taken, the subscriptions far exceeding the call.

The first encounter occurred April 27, when a detachment of the blockading squadron made a reconnaissance in force at Matanzas, Cuba, shelled the harbor forts and demolished several new works in course of construction. The next engagement oc-

curred May 1, at Manila, in the Philippine Islands. The American squadron at Hongkong, under Commodore George Dewey, had been instructed to proceed to the Philippine Islands and to capture or destroy the formidable Spanish fleet assembled at Manila. At daybreak of May 1 Dewey's fleet, successfully passing over the submarine mines, entered Manila Bay and after a few hours' engagement destroyed the entire fleet of ten warships and one transport, captured the naval station and forts at Cavite, and completely controlled the bay of Manila, with the ability to take the city at will. On the American side not a life was lost, the wounded numbering only seven, and not a vessel was materially injured. The Spanish loss in killed and wounded exceeded 400. The victory, so sweeping in its effects, naturally had the effect of greatly enhancing the prestige of the United States Navy. Reenforcements, under Maj.-Gen. Wesley Merritt, were hurried to the Philippine Islands and firmly established within sight of Manila, which lay helpless before the American guns. The first expedition sailed from San Francisco May 25 and arrived off Manila June 30. Other expeditions soon followed, until the total force landed at Manila consisted of more than 15,000 officers and men.

In the meantime, large forces were assembled at various points along the coast of the United States to invade Cuba and Porto Rico. San Juan, Porto Rico, and the forts at the entrance to Santiago Harbor, Cuba, were shelled by the American squadrons, but none of the attacks had any appreciable result. On the night of June 3, in an attempt to blockade the mouth of Santiago Harbor, Assistant Naval Constructor Richmond P. Hobson, accompanied by seven men from the American squadron, sank the collier *Merrimac* across the narrow channel.

This seldom surpassed act of heroism thrilled not only the hearts of the American people, but challenged the admiration of the world. Under the protection of a portion of the American fleet a landing of 600 marines was effected at Guantanamo Bay on June 10. This port was taken and held after severe fighting by the marines, who were the first organized forces of the United States to land in Cuba. By June 16 additional forces had been landed.

June 20 the advance of the American army, under Maj.-Gen. William R. Shafter, landed at Daiquiri, about fifteen miles east of Santiago, and the next day began the movement against the city. The first serious engagement in which the American troops lost heavily occurred at Las Guasimas June 24. By nightfall of that day ground within five miles of Santiago was won. (See Santiago, Battle of). The outworks of Santiago were taken July 1 after a severe battle, and on the next day El Caney and San Juan were captured after a desperate struggle. The investment of the city was now complete. The naval forces co-operated, shelling the town and the coast forts.

On the following day, July 3, occurred the decisive naval combat of the war. The Spanish fleet under Rear-Admiral Pascual Cervera, which had been confined in the harbor of Santiago for six weeks by the blockading squadron under acting Rear-Admiral William T. Sampson, attempted to escape. The Spanish vessels were intercepted and utterly destroyed by the American fleet under the immediate direction of Commodore Winfield S. Schley, who assumed command during the temporary absence of Rear-Admiral Sampson. The Spanish loss was 600 killed and about 1,400 prisoners, including the admiral.

Spain was unable to recover from the catastrophe, and her efforts upon the ocean virtually ceased. The capitulation of Santiago, which embraced the entire eastern end of Cuba, soon followed. July 17 the American army occupied the city. The number of Spanish soldiers surrendered was 22,000.

An expedition against Porto Rico, consisting of about 3,500 men, under command of Maj.-Gen. Nelson A. Miles, was immediately fitted out, and landed at Guanica July 25. Gen. Miles's force was subsequently increased to about 17,000. With the exception of a few slight engagements, there was no serious resistance, and the middle of August found much of the island in the possession of the American troops.

As early as July 26 Spain made overtures for peace through M. Jules Cambon, the French ambassador at Washington. August 12 the peace protocol was signed, by which hostilities were brought to an end.

August 15, the news of the signing of the protocol not having reached the Philippines, the battle of Manila was fought, and the last scene of the war was enacted when, after a brief assault by the American land and naval forces, the city was compelled to surrender.

The number of military forces engaged by the United States in the war, as reported to the Commissioner of Pensions, was: Regulars, 57,329; militia and volunteers, 223,235; navy, 31,959—total, 312,523.

The total casualties in killed and wounded during the war were—Army, officers killed, 23; enlisted men killed, 257—total, 280; officers wounded, 113; enlisted men wounded, 1,464—total, 1,577. Navy—killed, 17; wounded, 67; died as result of wounds, 1; invalided from service, 6—total, 91. In the entire campaign by land and sea the United States did not lose a flag, gun, ship, or transport, and, with the exception of the crew of the *Merrimac*, not a soldier or sailor was taken prisoner.

August 7 the American troops in Cuba began to embark for home, and the entire force was returned to the United States by August 24, after an absence of only two months. A treaty of peace was signed at Paris by the commissioners of the two countries Dec. 10, 1898. It was ratified on the part of the United States Feb. 6, and on the part of Spain March 19, 1899. By the treaty it was provided that Spain relinquish all claim of sovereignty over and title to Cuba; that Porto Rico and other West Indian islands of Spain, one island in the Ladrones, and the entire Philippine group be ceded to the United States, and that Spain be paid $20,000,000. The ratification of the two Governments were exchanged in Washington April 11, 1899, and on the same day President McKinley issued the following proclamation: "Whereas a treaty of peace between the United States of America and Her Majesty the Queen Regent of Spain, in the name of her august son, Don Alfonso XIII, was concluded and signed by their respective plenipotentiaries at Paris on the 10th day of December, 1898, the original of which, being in the English and Spanish languages, is word for word as follows: [Here the full text of the treaty is inserted.] And whereas the said convention has been duly ratified on both parts and the ratifications of the two Governments were exchanged in the city of Washington on the 11th day of April, 1899:

Now, therefore, be it known that I, William McKinley, President of the United States of America, have caused the said convention to be made public, to the end that the same and every article and clause thereof may be observed and fulfilled with good faith by the United States and the citizens thereof."

Views of President McKinley signing the treaty of peace and the peace makers will be found opposite page 6357. Other illustrations pertaining to the war will be found opposite pages 5227, 5355, 5603, 5667, 5699, 5731, 5763, 5795, 5822, 5886, 5918, 5950, 6172, 6293, 6325, 6357.

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Speaker.—The title of the presiding officer of the House of Representatives. The Constitution provides that "the House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers." It is doubtful, however, if the framers of the Constitution contemplated vesting the Speaker with the power he now enjoys. The system of legislation by committees which has gradually grown up, carrying with it the prerogative of the Speaker to name them, has greatly extended his influence. The first Speaker of the modern sort—more of a leader of the House than a presiding officer—was Henry Clay. As the representative of the House the Speaker presides over the deliberations of that body, appoints its committees, supervises its journal, certifies to the amount of compensation due its members, signs the bills, resolutions, warrants, subpœnas, etc.,

and has the right, as a member to participate in debate after calling another member to the chair. The Speaker rarely avails himself of this privilege. He is chosen by the House from among the members.

The Speakers of the House of Representatives, with their periods of office, have been as follows:

Speaker	*State*	*Incumbency*
F. A. Muhlenburg	Pennsylvania	1789-1791
Jonathan Trumbull, F.	Connecticut	1791-1793
F. A. Muhlenburg, R.	Pennsylvania	1793-1795
Jonathan Dayton, F.	New Jersey	1795-1799
Theodore Sedgwick, F.	Massachusetts	1799-1801
Nathaniel Macon, R.	North Carolina	1801-1807
Joseph B. Varnum, R.	Massachusetts	1807-1811
Henry Clay, R.	Kentucky	1811-1814
Langdon Cheves, R.	South Carolina	1814-1815
Henry Clay, R.	Kentucky	1815-1820
John W. Taylor, R.	New York	1820-1821
Philip P. Barbour, R.	Virginia	1821-1823
Henry Clay, R.	Kentucky	1823-1825
John W. Taylor, A.	New York	1825-1827
Andrew Stevenson, J, D.	Virginia	1827-1834
John Bell, D.	Tennessee	1834-1835
James K. Polk, D.	Tennessee	1835-1839
R. M. T. Hunter, D.	Virginia	1839-1841
John White, W.	Kentucky	1841-1843
John W. Jones, D.	Virginia	1843-1845
John W. Davis, D.	Indiana	1845-1847
Robert C. Winthrop, W.	Massachusetts	1847-1849
Howell Cobb, D.	Georgia	1849-1851
Linn Boyd, D.	Kentucky	1851-1855
Nathaniel P. Banks, R.	Massachusetts	1855-1857
James L. Orr, D.	South Carolina	1857-1859
William Pennington, R.	New Jersey	1860-1861
Galusha A. Grow, R.	Pennsylvania	1861-1863
Schuyler Colfax, U, R.	Indiana	1863-1869
James G. Blaine, R.	Maine	1869-1875
Michael C. Kerr, D.	Indiana	1875-1876
Samuel J. Randall, D.	Pennsylvania	1876-1881
Joseph W. Keifer, R.	Ohio	1881-1883
John G. Carlisle, D.	Kentucky	1883-1889
Thomas B. Reed, R.	Maine	1889-1891
Charles F. Crisp, D.	Georgia	1891-1895
Thomas B. Reed, R.	Maine	1895-1899
David B. Henderson, R.	Iowa	1899-1903
Joseph G. Cannon, R.	Illinois	1903-1911
Champ Clark, D.	Missouri	1911-1919
Frederick H. Gillett, R.	Massachusetts	1919-

A—Administration. D—Democrat. F—Federalist. J—Jacksonian. R—Republican. U—Unionist. W—Whig.

Special Agents, Treasury Department.—These officials investigate the work of the customs collectors, and make other investigations relative to the customs service of the United States. (See list of references under Customs.)

Special-Delivery Stamps:
Discussed, 4836, 5881, 5971.

Special Privilege, laws against, 7126, 7132. (See also Business.)

Special Sessions of Congress and Senate, proclamations convening and messages to. (See Extraordinary Sessions.)

Specie Circular.—An order drafted by Senator Benton, of Missouri, and issued by the Secretary of the Treasury July 11, 1836, by order of President Jackson (1468, 1501), designed to check speculative purchases of public lands. In it the officials were directed to receive nothing but gold and silver in payment for public lands. The circular was issued in opposition to the sentiment of Congress, which at the next session passed a bill to rescind the order, but Jackson defeated the bill by a pocket veto. The President's action aroused much indignation and, it is claimed, hastened the panic of 1837.

Specie Payments.—The United States suspended specie payments Jan. 1, 1862, and Congress authorized the issue of large quantities of United States notes to be a legal tender. In this action the Government had been preceded by most of the banks of the country, following the example of the New York banks. Jan. 14, 1875, the act authorizing the resumption of specie payments of Government contracts to begin Jan. 1, 1879, was approved by President Grant in a special message (4268). To this end the purchase of bullion and the manufacture of subsidiary coin was at once begun. The mints were run overtime to supply the demand for specie, and resumption became an accomplished fact.

Specie Payments:
Act providing for resumption of, approved and discussed, 4268.
Banks refused to pay Government demands in specie, 1810.
Discussed by President—
Cleveland, 6073.
Grant, 3983, 4061, 4198, 4239, 4247, 4268, 4301, 4379.
Hayes, 4397, 4413, 4510, 4567.
McKinley, 6253.
Reports on, 1726.
Resumption of—
By Chile discussed, 6059.
Discussed, 3879, 4379, 4510, 4567.
Recommended, 3983, 4061, 4102, 4239, 4247, 4301, 4310, 4413.
Suspension of, by banks discussed, 1541, 1751, 1757, 1777, 1789, 3330.

Speech, Freedom of. (See Freedom of Speech.)

Spies.—In war-times, a spy is a person who, in disguise or not wearing distinctive marks of the belligerent with whom he is connected, mingles with the enemy within the enemy's lines of fortifications or other territory in order secretly to procure information for his own country. Because of the fact that the status of spies had long been indefinite and because of the penalty of death involved, a series of regulations drawn up by The Hague tribunal indicates precisely that no person shall be considered a spy who is not wearing a disguise, who is carrying messages openly, or who obtains information concerning the enemy in air-craft. The regulations further provide that to be considered a spy a person must be traveling, (a) under false pretenses, (b) within territory occupied by the enemy, (c) for the proved purpose of obtaining information of use to his own forces. The regulations provide further that no person shall be convicted as a spy without fair trial or after he has rejoined the forces with which he is connected. In times of peace, a spy is a person who secretly endeavors to obtain information concerning the defences, resources, etc., of a country in order to supply another country with such information. (See Espionage Law.)

Spies, Germany's Use of, condemned, 8231, 8290.

Spitzbergen Islands.—An archipelago about 500 miles north of Norway, between

76° and 81° N. latitude. It includes also Bear Island, about 130 miles to the south. The total area is about 25,000 square miles. Until recently, the islands were of interest chiefly as headquarters for hunters of whale, seals and fur-bearing animals; but of late large mineral deposits, especially coal, have been found. A number of companies are engaged in the exploitation of the coal mines, but the largest claims belong to British companies. In 1919, the coal exports amounted to 80,000 tons. By the treaty of peace of the World War, Spitzbergen was placed under the sovereignty of Norway.

Spitzbergen Islands:
International conference on, 7413.
Negotiations for adjusting claims in, 7670.
Problem of, discussed, 7782.

Spy Bill. (See Espionage Law.)

Spoils System.—The policy of bestowing public offices upon members of the party in power as rewards for political services. These official rewards once secured, the beneficiaries found it incumbent upon them to assist in keeping in power the party to which they owed their positions not only by a strict attention to the duties of their offices, but also by making friends and votes for their superior officer. Under the spoils system, it is charged, official duties are often made secondary to partisan obligations. This system is not confined to American politics, but is carried on in England, where Parliament has created a patronage secretary, who takes charge of the apportionment and keeps regular accounts with the members of Parliament of the positions which have been filled upon their recommendation. In the United States the system developed first in New York and Pennsylvania. Tammany Hall made effective use of the system in its fight against the Clintons in the first quarter of the present century. It was extended to state politics by the "Albany Regency," established by Martin Van Buren in 1818. It was not until Jackson's time, however, that it became a feature of Federal politics. The spoils system derived the name commonly applied to it from a sentence used in a speech made by Senator William L. Marcy, of New York, while urging the Senate to confirm the nomination of Martin Van Buren as minister to England. In defense of the charge against Van Buren that he had introduced the custom of removal from office for opinion's sake, Mr. Marcy, speaking for the Democrats of New York, declared that "they see nothing wrong in the rule that to the victor belongs the spoils of the enemy." It has since been a regular feature of American politics in every Administration, tempered of late by the provisions of the civil-service act of 1883. (See also Civil Service.)

Spoliation Claims (see also France, claims against discussed):
Act providing for—
Ascertainment and satisfaction of, vetoed, 2316.
Ascertainment of, vetoed, 2840.

Spoliations (see also Alabama Claims; the several powers, claims against; Vessels, United States, seized):

Discussed by President—
Adams, John, 237.
Jefferson, 371, 383, 413.
Monroe, 765.
Washington, 138.

Spooner Act, mentioned, 7022.

Spot Resolutions.—When President Polk sent a message to Congress announcing that American citizens had been killed by Mexicans on American soil, and asked for a formal declaration of war, Abraham Lincoln, in the House of Representatives, introduced resolutions requesting the President to indicate the exact spot on American soil where the killing had taken place. Thus the name "Spot Resolutions." The results of Polk's message were negative, for the declaration of war was not voted.

Spottsylvania Court-House (Va.), Battle of.—After 2 days' fighting in the Wilderness, south of the Rapidan River, in Virginia, Grant attempted to turn Lee's right flank and advance toward Richmond by way of Spottsylvania Court-House. This resulted in a series of battles. Lee discovered the movement of Grant's army and reached Spottsylvania first. By May 9, 1864, Grant had his army concentrated near Spottsylvania. Hancock commanded the right, Warren the center, and Sedgwick the left. The latter was killed on the 9th while placing his artillery, and Wright succeeded him in command of the Sixth Army Corps. May 10 and 11 there was desultory fighting, skirmishing, and maneuvering for positions. Grant's losses during the 10th are supposed to have exceeded 10,000 men, and Lee's are also supposed to have been severe. The morning of May 12 opened with an advance by Hancock's column, which surrounded and captured with the salient an entire division (Gen. Edward Johnson's) of 3,000 Confederates, including 2 generals and between 30 and 40 guns. The fighting of this day was as severe as any during the war. Lee made five furious assaults in quick succession, with the view of dislodging Hancock and Wright from the captured salient. From dawn till dusk the battle raged. The Federal assault on the Confederate line was checked. It was renewed without success on the 18th. After several days of maneuvering and having received reenforcements enough to make up for his losses, Grant, on the 20th and 21st of May, moved southward toward the North Anna River. The Federal losses in the battle of Spottsylvania Court-House, including the conflicts at Todd's Tavern, Corbin's Bridge, Alsop's Farm, Laurel Hill, Po River, Ny River, the angle of the salient, Piney Branch Church, Harris's Farm, and Guiney's Station, between May 8 and 21, 1864, were officially reported as 2,725 killed, 13,416 wounded, and 2,258 missing, a total of 18,399. The Confederate losses, only partially reported, were (Ewell's, Johnson's, and McGowan's divisions), 4,001 killed and wounded.

Springfield (N. Y.), Battle of.—June 6, 1780, Generals Sterling, Knyphausen, Mathews, and Tryon left Staten Island with 5,000 men to attack Washington's army at Morristown, N. J. Sterling was killed and Knyphausen took command. He advanced to within half a mile of Springfield, harassed all the way by the settlers and militia. Sir Henry Clinton returned to New York on June 17 from Charleston, S. C., and prepared to join Knyphausen. On June

23 the British advance was made in two columns. The American outposts were forced back upon Springfield, which the British burned, and then retreated to Staten Island. The British loss amounted to about 150, the American to 83.

Springfield, Ohio, act to establish port, of delivery at, vetoed, 5002.

Squadron:

African, instructions to officers of, referred to, 2173, 3071.

Asiatic. (See Manila Harbor, Battle of.)

Home, proposed extension of duties of, referred to, 2129.

Mediterranean, referred to, 1905, 1953.

Pacific. (See Manila Harbor, Battle of.)

Squatter.—One who takes possession of or "squats on" land, especially Government land, without ownership or easement rights. In the interest of public policy, and to encourage settlement, a squatter may acquire permanent ownership of such land if unmolested in its cultivation for the period of statutory limitation. (See Squatter Sovereignty.)

Squatter Sovereignty.—The rule allowed by custom, whereby squatters may acquire ownership to land. (See Squatter.)

Squawksin Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Squi-aitl Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Squin-áh-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Staff of Army. (See Army.)

"Stalwarts."—A term applied to the partizans who opposed the "Half-Breeds" (q. v.). The "Stalwarts" were opposed to the withdrawal of troops from the Southern States, and favored the Spoils System (q. v.) as against the Civil Service. When Garfield appointed a Collector of the Port of New York in defiance of the traditional method of first having a recommendation from the Senior Senator of the State of New York, Conkling, the Senior Senator from that state, resigned, as did also Platt, the Junior Senator. The bitterness engendered between the "Stalwarts" and the "Half-Breeds" may have been largely responsible for the assassination of Garfield.

Stamford Harbor, Conn., survey of, referred to, 1043.

Stamp Act.—An act of the British Parliament passed in 1765 and put into effect in the American Colonies Nov. 1 of that year. It levied on British subjects in America specific sums for each of the common transactions of business. Deeds, bonds, notes of hand, indentures, insurance policies, leases, contracts of sale, etc., were not to be enforced by courts unless written on stamped paper bought of the officers of the Crown. Without stamped wills testamentary dispositions would be void; without stamped receipts debts could not be acquitted; vessels at sea without clearances written on stamped paper were liable to seizure and confiscation if they fell in with one of the King's ships; only stamped newspapers could be exposed for sale; without stamped certificates marriages could not lawfully be contracted; unstamped writs and executions had no force or effect; in short, the American citizen must have been daily paying money into the British treasury at its stamp office or in respect to much of the protection which society undertakes to afford he was an outlaw. Under this act business was suspended. The people absolutely refused to use the stamps. Benjamin Franklin presented a petition of the colonists to the House of Commons, and on March 18, 1766, the stamp act was repealed. The agitation resulting from the act was one of the leading causes in effecting the Revolution.

Stamp-Act Congress.—A body which met at New York Oct. 7, 1765, composed of delegates from all the Colonies except Virginia, North Carolina, New Hampshire, and Georgia. There were 26 members, including 4 from New York, 2 each from Rhode Island and Delaware and 3 each from Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland and South Carolina. Timothy Ruggles, of Massachusetts, was chosen president. The manifestoes issued by this congress were "A Declaration of the Rights and Grievances of the Colonists of America," an address to the King, a memorial to the House of Lords, and a petition to the House of Commons, all of a loyal and respectful tone. The congress adjourned Oct. 25.

Stamps. (See Division of Stamps.)

Stand-Patters.—A term applied to members of political parties who can not be induced to subscribe to any change of policy or to progress. The term became used especially in the administration of Taft to describe those Republicans who opposed changes in the tariff and in other methods of government which were demanded by the more radical element among the Republicans.

Standard Oil Case.—Antagonism to the Standard Oil Company for attempting to gain a monopoly by crushing competition and for dishonest, discriminatory and unfair business methods came to a head with an investigation by the Bureau of Corporation authorized by Congress in February, 1905.

The report, submitted in May, 1906, said: "The Standard Oil Company has habitually received and is now receiving, secret rates and other unjust and illegal discriminations. Many of these discriminations were clearly in violation of the interstate commerce laws, and others, whether technically illegal or not, had the same effect upon competitors. These discriminations have been so long continued, so secret, so ingeniously applied to new conditions of trade, and so large in amount as to make it certain that they were due to concerted action by the Standard Oil Company and the railroads."

A second investigation of the Standard Oil Company was undertaken by the Interstate Commerce Commission at the request of Congress, and their report was submitted Jan. 28, 1907. It stated: "The sworn testimony before us abundantly confirms the conclusions reached by the Commissioner of Corporations. The ruin of competitors has been a distinct part of the policy of the Standard Oil Company in the past, systematically and persistently pursued. It has maintained a system of espionage over

the shipments of its rivals; it has ruined competitors by means of local competition, that is by reducing prices in the field of operation of its rivals, while maintaining prices elsewhere; it has pursued the policy of molding public opinion by purchasing space in newspapers and printing innocent looking articles setting forth the benefits conferred by the Standard Oil Company; it has induced the railroads to purchase all their lubricating oil from it at a double price, thus securing a profit very much like a rebate; it has paid employees of its rivals for information, and has sold different grades of oil out of the same barrel."

Herbert Knox Smith, Commissioner of Corporations, presented a report May 20, 1907, dealing mainly with the Standard Oil pipe lines. It showed these lines to consist of 40,000 miles of trunk lines and feeders; and it pointed out that, while the Standard Oil Company had no monopoly in the production of oil, it transported through its pipe lines 90 per cent of the oil from the Pennsylvania, Indiana, and Ohio fields and 98 per cent of that from the Kansas-Oklahoma fields. Its monopoly was also shown to consist in the fact that it refined about 86 per cent of all the oil refined in the United States. The extent of these pipe lines was believed to prevent the construction of rival pipe lines. Commissioner Smith estimated that a charge of 20 cents per barrel would cover the cost of transportation from Lima, Ohio, to the seaboard, and yield 10 per cent on the investment. The actual charge was shown to be 53½ cents per barrel.

Early in 1907 the Attorney-General of the United States brought suit against the Standard Oil Company of Indiana, in the District Court at Chicago, under the Elkins law forbidding discrimination and the giving of rebates by common carriers engaged in interstate traffic. The action was based on the report of Commissioner Garfield, mentioned above, which related to the shipments of oil from the great refineries of Whiting, Indiana, to the southwestern market, by way of East St. Louis, Illinois, where the oil came into competition with the product of the Kansas and Oklahoma fields.

This region was reached by three competing railroads, the Chicago and Eastern Illinois, the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy, and the Chicago and Alton. Each road had filed with the Interstate Commerce Commission and kept posted at its freight offices a class rate of 18 cents per 100 pounds, but their books showed that they had given the Standard Oil Company a commodity rate on oil of 6 or 6½ cents per hundred. Each company had its own methods of concealing the true charge. Commissioner Garfield stated that the "whole scheme of the 6 cent rate, including both the failure to file tariffs with the Interstate Commerce Commission and the secret methods of billing, were devised at the suggestion and with the knowledge of the Standard Oil Company and primarily for the purpose of concealing the extraordinarily low rates from its competitors."

The defense plead that "these rates were not solicited nor accepted knowingly with the intention of violating the law; that the law did not forbid a shipper to take directly from a carrier a rate less than the published rate, the purpose of the law being to prevent indirect methods and secret devices; the company could have secured rates as low as those accepted over the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy or over the Chicago and Eastern Illinois, and that the Elkins law, under which the suit was brought, was nullified by the Hepburn law, subsequently passed." The case was based specifically on the transit of a car of oil from Whiting, Indiana, over the Chicago and Alton Railroad, at the six-per-cent rate. April 13, after deliberating two hours, the jury returned a verdict of guilty on 1,462 counts. Before determining the amount of the fine, Judge Landis demanded evidence of the actual ownership of the Standard Oil Company of Indiana. This was shown to be the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey. Judge Landis then, on August 3, imposed the maximum fine of $20,000 on each count, an aggregate of $29,240,000. The defendant company appealed the case to the Circuit Court of Appeals for the seventh circuit, and on July 22, 1908, Judge Peter L. Grosscup, of Illinois, two other judges concurring, handed down an opinion reversing the finding of the District Court, holding that the court below erred in its ruling that a shipper may be convicted of re-accepting a concession from the lawful published rate, even though it was not shown that the shipper knew what the lawful published rate was; its ruling that the number of offenses is the number of carloads of property transported, irrespective of the question whether each carload is the whole or only a part of a single transaction; and its ruling that the largeness of the fine imposed was due to the effect to reach and punish a party that was not before the court.

Judge Grosscup declared the fine imposed by Judge Landis "an abuse of judicial discretion." The validity of the courts' reasoning was universally discussed. President Roosevelt pronounced the ruling of Judge Grosscup "a gross miscarriage of justice." The Government applied to the Circuit Court of Appeals for a rehearing, which was denied, and on Nov. 20, 1908, Attorney-General Bonaparte petitioned the United States Supreme Court for a writ of certiorari. This petition was dismissed Jan. 4, 1909, leaving the case to be retried in the District Court.

Judge McCall, in the United States Circuit Court of Jackson, Tenn., Nov. 17, 1910, instructed the jury to bring in a verdict of not guilty.

Standard Oil Company:
Competition crushed out by, 7296.
Efforts of, to shape public opinion, 7138.
Secret rates given by railroads to, 7293.
Untruthful statements by, 7133.

Standard Time.—According to the standard time, which was adopted by agreement at 12 o'clock on November 18, 1883, by all the principal railroads of the United States, the continent is divided into five longitudinal belts, and a meridian of time is fixed for each belt. These meridians are fifteen degrees of longitude, or one hour's time apart. The time divisions are called intercolonial time, eastern time, central time, mountain time, and Pacific time. Eastern Maine, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia use the sixth meridian; the Canadas, New England, the Middle States, Virginia and the Carolinas use the seventy-fifth meridian, which is that of Philadelphia; Alabama, Georgia, Florida, Texas, Kansas and the larger part of Nebraska and Dakota use the nineteenth meridian, which is that of New Orleans; the territories to the western border of Arizona and Montana go by the time of the one hundred

and fifth meridian, which is that of Denver; and the Pacific States employ the one hundred and twentieth meridian. In passing from one time-belt to another a person's watch will be an hour too fast or too slow, according to the direction in which he is traveling. This new system, which has reduced the time standards from fifty-three to five, was suggested by Professor Abbe, of the Signal Service Bureau at Washington, and was elaborated by Dr. A. P. Barnard, of Columbia University, New York.

Standards, Bureau of. (See Bureau of Standards.)

Standing Rock Reservation, opening of, 8047.

Standpatism denounced, 8818.

Star Chamber.—Used as an adjective before "Proceeding," "Conference," "Deliberation," or the like, the term means that the session is secret and, presumably, for some selfish purpose,—not for the interest of the public.

Star Routes.—Star Routes are those mail routes of the United States Government on which, owing to lack of railroad or steamboat facilities, the mail is carried on horseback or wagons. They are called star routes because in the route books of the Post-Office Department they are marked with three groups of four stars each, the groups being intended to signify "celerity, certainty, and security" in this method of carrying the mail. (See also Postal Service.)

Star Route Trials.—Early in 1881 vague rumors were in circulation of extensive fraud in this service. It was said that there was a "ring" to defraud the government. Included in it were some of the large contractors, the Second Assistant Postmaster-General, Thomas J. Brady, some subordinates in the department, Senator Stephen W. Dorsey, of Arkansas, and others. Brady resigned April 20, 1881. Proceedings in one of the principal cases were begun against the conspirators, but they were dismissed on account of irregularity in the form of the action. Early in 1882 several persons were arrested for furnishing fraudulent bonds on the bids for service, and indictments were found against Brady, Stephen W. Dorsey, John W. Dorsey, John M. Peck and John R. Miner, who had made the bids; H. M. Vaile, a subcontractor; M. C. Rerdell, S. W. Dorsey's secretary; Turner, a clerk in Brady's office; and against one of the principal contractors. The method by which, as charged, the government was defrauded consisted in first obtaining the contracts for the routes, and in subsequently having the payments vastly increased, in compensation for additional mail trips per week, and faster time on each trip. This latter was called "expediting" the route. The Dorsey combination, as the conspirators were popularly called, controlled one hundred and thirty-four Star Routes, on which the original compensation was $143,169. By increasing the number of trips beyond what the locality required and by "expediting" them, this amount had been increased to $622,808. On one route the compensation had been increased from $398 to $6,133.50; the revenue derived therefrom by the government was $240.

The cases came up for trial in the District of Columbia, June 1, 1882. The government employed special counsel to aid the district attorney, and the defendants, too, were represented by eminent lawyers. After a protracted trial, the case was submitted to the jury on Sept. 8; as they were not able to agree as to all of the defendants, they were kept out until Sept. 11, on which day the presiding judge, Wylie, deeming an agreement on all the defendants unlikely, accepted the verdict. Peck and Turner were found not guilty; Miner and Rerdell, guilty; as to the Dorseys, Vaile and Brady there was a disagreement. Preparations were at once made for a new trial in the cases in which there had been a disagreement and the motions of the counsel of Miner and Rerdell for a new trial were granted. The second trial began in December, 1882. Rerdell, on this trial, pleaded guilty and turned state's evidence. On June 12, 1883, the case was given to the jury, and on the 14th a verdict of not guilty was rendered. In April, 1883, W. P. Kellogg, ex-Senator from Louisiana, and Brady were indicted for receiving money for services in relation to a Star Route contract. The cases never resulted in a conviction.

At the conclusion of the first of these trials charges of attempted bribery of the jury, both on behalf of the government and of the defense, were made. The foreman of the first jury, Dickson, and another juror, claimed to have been approached on behalf of the government, and still another juror on behalf of the defense. Before the first trial had ended Dickson had made a sworn statement of the facts in his case, and it was charged that he had used it in the jury-room for the purpose of influencing the verdict. The Department of Justice investigated the cases, and declared its belief that no government officials were involved; it implied that all the attempts had been for the purposes of the defense. Dickson was subsequently indicted for attempting corruptly to influence the jury.

Star Spangled Banner.—A patriotic song written by Francis Scott Key, of Baltimore (q. v.) on the night of Sept. 13, 1814, during the bombardment of Fort McHenry by the British. Key had gone under a flag of truce to solicit the release of some friends who had been seized by the English Admiral Cochrane during the attack on the city of Washington. Upon Key's arrival the British fleet was about to begin the attack on Fort McHenry, and though his request for the release of his friends was granted, Admiral Cochrane refused to allow him or his friends to leave the ship before the battle. During the excitement of the bombardment Key wrote the famous song on the back of a letter. It was published and sung at the theatres to the tune of "Anacreon in Heaven."

Stars and Bars.—The flag of the Confederate States of America. The first provisional Senate recommended that "the flag of the Confederate States shall consist of a red field with a white space extending horizontally through the center and equal in width to one-third the width of the flag." The Union was a blue square extending across the upper red and the white stripe. In the blue square nine stars were arranged in a circle. The bars were, by their colors, red and white, intended to express the qualities of courage and purity. The blue field of the union expressed fortitude, and the nine stars represented the number of States in the Confederacy. It was first displayed March 4, 1861, simultaneously with the inauguration of Lincoln, being unfurled over the statehouse at Montgomery, Ala. In 1863, the Stars and

Bars too closely resembling the Stars and Stripes, the Confederate Congress adopted a white flag with one blue star in the center. Another variation commonly used was a white field with blue diagonal stripes and white stars, and a piece of fringe at the outer edge. Some of the army corps adopted a battle flag with a red ground, blue diagonal cross, and white stars.

Stars and Stripes. (See Flag.)

State Banks. (See Banks, State.)

State Constitutions. (See Constitutions, State.)

State Courts. (See Courts, State.)

State Debts, Assumption of.—Early in the second session of the First Congress Alexander Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, recommended that in order to restore public credit the Federal Government should fund and pay the foreign debt of the Confederation ($13,000,000), the domestic debt ($42,000,000) and also that it assume and pay the unpaid debt of the States. Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, and South Carolina favored the plan. Virginia strongly opposed the latter clause. She was sustained in her opposition by Maryland, Georgia, and New Hampshire. The influence of North Carolina thrown against the measure defeated it for the time, but it was revived later, and passed Aug. 4, 1790, it was claimed, by a combination of its friends with those of the measure locating the Federal capital on the Potomac. The amount authorized to be assumed by the Government in the liquidation of the State debts was $21,500,000, but the amount actually assumed was $3,250,000 less than that sum.

State Debts:

Contracted abroad, discussed, 1940.
Guaranty of, by General Government discussed, 2064.
Injure public credit, 2061.
Referred to, 1769.
Repudiation of contracts referred to, 1962.

State, Department of.—This Department of the federal government had its origin in a Committee of Correspondence, which was appointed Nov. 29, 1775, to invoke foreign aid in behalf of the American Colonies. This committee was succeeded by the Committee of Foreign Affairs, which was created by an act of the Continental Congress, April 17, 1777. "A plan for the Department of Foreign Affairs" was reported to Congress in January, 1781, and the Department was organized Aug. 10 of that year; Robert R. Livingston was made Secretary and he filled the position until June 4, 1783. On the retirement of Livingston the Department of Foreign Affairs practically ceased to exist for about a year, Congress managing the foreign relations of the country through committees. Sept. 21, 1784, John Jay was appointed Secretary and the functions of the office were revived.

After the acceptance of the Constitution Congress passed a law entitled "an act for establishing an Executive Department to be denominated the Department of Foreign Affairs." This became a law on July 27, 1789, and John Jay, being in charge of the old Department, was continued temporarily in charge of the new one. The existence of this Department, however, was destined to be brief, for on Sept. 15 following, an act of Congress was approved which provided that "the Executive Department denominated the Department of Foreign Affairs, shall hereinafter be denominated the Department of State, and the principal officer shall hereafter be called the Secretary of State," and on Sept. 26 Thomas Jefferson was made Secretary.

The Secretary of State is charged, under the direction of the President, with duties appertaining to correspondence with the public ministers and the consuls of the United States, and with the representatives of foreign powers accredited to the United States; and to negotiations of whatever character relating to the foreign affairs of the United States. He is also the medium of correspondence between the President and the chief executives of the several states of the United States; he has the custody of the Great Seal of the United States, and countersigns and affixes such seal to all executive proclamations, to various commissions, and to warrants for the extradition of fugitives from justice. He is also the custodian of the treaties made with foreign States, and of the laws of the United States. He grants and issues passports, and exequaturs to foreign consuls in the United States are issued through his office. He publishes the laws and resolutions of Congress, amendments to the Constitution, and proclamations declaring the admission of new states into the Union.

According to the law of April 10, 1790, the Department was given charge of the patent business, which it retained until 1849, when the work was given over to the new Department of the Interior. A law passed May 31, 1790, made the Department of State the repository of maps, charts, and books for which copyright might be granted by United States district courts, but in 1859 these records were turned over to the Department of the Interior and later to the Library of Congress, where the business is now conducted. From 1790 until 1850 the Department also cared for the enumeration of the census, but in the latter year that work was given to the Department of the Interior, from which, in 1903, it was transferred to the Department of Commerce and Labor. Territorial affairs were also under the care of the Department of State until the organization of the Department of the Interior in 1849.

In 1853 an Assistant Secretary of State was provided by law with power to act as Secretary during the latter's absence or during an interregnum. A Second Assistant Secretary was provided for in 1866, and in 1875 the office of Third Assistant Secretary was created. The Undersecretary of State, a recently-created officer, ranks next to the Secretary of State and generally assists and advises him in the administration of the Department. The Director of Consular Service ranks with the assistant secretaries and the solicitor and directs consular matters.

In 1848 the office of Examiner of Claims was created, whose duties were to examine claims of our citizens against foreign governments and of foreigners against our Government, but when the Department of Justice was formed, in 1870, this office passed under its jurisdiction. In 1891 the title of this office was changed to Solicitor for the Department of State. In 1856 the Statistical Office of the Department of State was established; in 1874 the title was changed to Bureau of Statistics and a year later it was again changed to the Bureau of Foreign Commerce and in 1903 trans-

ferred to the Department of Commerce and Labor and made a part of its Bureau of Statistics. The Bureau of Indexes was established in 1870, the Bureau of Accounts in 1873; and the Bureau of Rolls and Library in 1874. Work originally done by the Home Bureau has since been given to the Passport Bureau and the Bureau of Appointments. Other important Bureaus are the Diplomatic Bureau which has charge of all correspondence between the Department and our diplomatic agents abroad and foreign diplomatic agents in the United States, prepares treaties, etc.; and the Consular Bureau.

Following is a list of the Secretaries of State and the Presidents under whom they served

President	Secretary of State	Appointed
Washington	Thomas Jefferson, Virginia	1789
"	Edmund Randolph, Virginia	1794
"	Timothy Pickering, Mass.	1795
Adams	" " "	1797
"	John Marshall, Virginia	1800
Jefferson	James Madison, Virginia	1801
Madison	Robert Smith, Maryland	1809
"	James Monroe, Virginia	1811
Monroe	John Quincy Adams, Mass.	1817
J.Q.Adams	Henry Clay, Kentucky	1825
Jackson	Martin Van Buren, New York	1829
"	Edward Livingston, Louisiana	1831
"	Louis McLane, Delaware	1833
"	John Forsyth, Georgia	1834
Van Buren	" " "	1837
Harrison	Daniel Webster,* Massachusetts	1841
Tyler*	Hugh S. Legare, South Carolina	1843
"	Abel P. Upshur, Virginia	1843
"	John C. Calhoun, S. Carolina	1844
Polk	James Buchanan, Pennsylvania	1845
Taylor	John M. Clayton, Delaware	1849
Fillmore	Daniel Webster, Massachusetts	1850
"	Edward Everett, Massachusetts	1852
Pierce	William L. Marcy, New York	1853
Buchanan	Lewis Cass, Michigan	1857
"	Jeremiah S. Black, Pennsylvania	1860
Lincoln	William H. Seward, New York	1861
Johnson	" " "	1865
Grant	Elihu B. Washburn, Illinois	1869
"	Hamilton Fish, New York	1869
Hayes	William M. Evarts, New York	1877
Garfield	James G. Blaine, Maine	1881
Arthur	F. T. Frelinghuysen, New Jersey	1881
Cleveland	Thomas F. Bayard, Delaware	1885
B. Harrison	James G. Blaine, Maine	1889
"	John W. Foster, Indiana	1892
Cleveland	Walter Q. Gresham, Illinois	1893
"	Richard Olney, Massachusetts	1895
McKinley	John Sherman, Ohio	1897
"	William R. Day, Ohio	1897
"	John Hay, Ohio	1898
Roosevelt	" "	1901
"	Elihu Root, New York	1905
"	Robert Bacon, New York	1909
Taft	Philander C. Knox, Penn.	1909
Wilson	William J. Bryan, Nebraska	1913
"	Robert Lansing, New York	1915
"	Bainbridge Colby, New Jersey	1920
Harding	Charles E. Hughes, New York	1921

* Daniel Webster also continued by President Tyler in 1841 until appointment of successor.

For more detailed information of the scope of the activities of the State Department consult the Index references to the Presidents' Messages and Encyclopedic articles under the following headings:

Admission of States.
Ambassadors.
Archives.
Assistant Secretary of State.
Citizenship Bureau.
Claims, Court of.
Commerce Court.
Consular Appointments.
Consular Bureau.
Consular Conventions.
Consular Service.
Consuls.
Copyright.
Counselor, State Department.
Diplomatic and Consular Service.
Diplomatic Appointments.
Diplomatic Bureau.
Director of Consular Service.
Egypt, Tribunals of.
Exequaturs.
Extradition.
Extradition Treaties.
Far Eastern Affairs.
Foreign Relations.
Great Seal of the United States.
Information Bureau.
Latin American and Mexican Divisions.
Library of Congress.
Naturalization.
Near Eastern Division.
Neutral Rights.
Passports.
Patents.
Presidential Succession.
Proclamations.
Second Assistant Secretary of State.
Solicitor for the State Department.
State Rights and State Sovereignty.
Third Assistant Secretary of State.
Trade Adviser.
Trade Information and Publicity.
Treaties.
Western European Division.

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Historical manuscripts in, plan for publishing, referred to, 5198.
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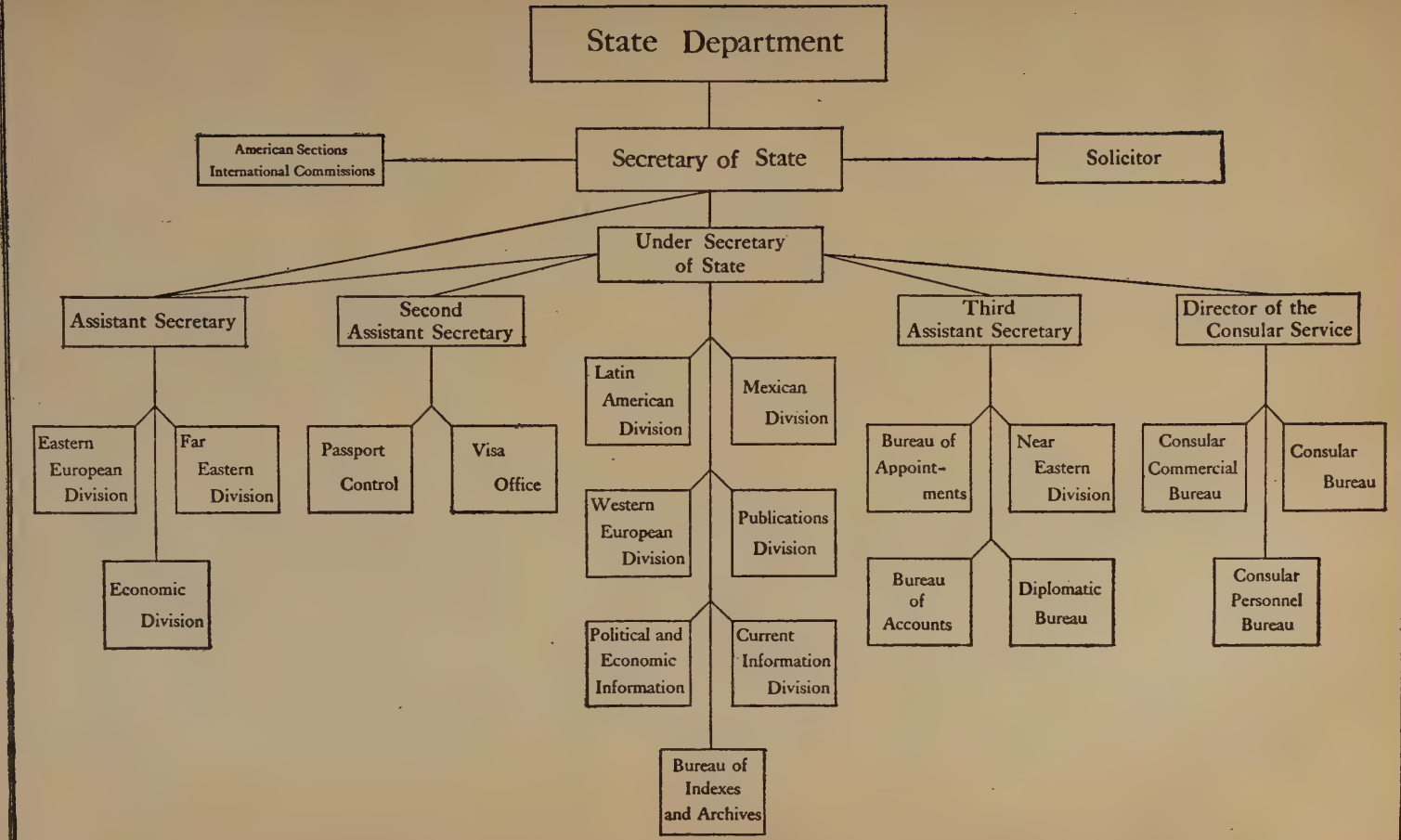
State Department
American Sections International Commissions
Secretary of State
Solicitor
Under Secretary of State
Assistant Secretary
Second Assistant Secretary
Third Assistant Secretary
Director of the Consular Service
Eastern European Division
Far Eastern Division
Economic Division
Passport Control
Visa Office
Latin American Division
Mexican Division
Western European Division
Publications Division
Political and Economic Information
Current Information Division
Bureau of Indexes and Archives
Bureau of Appoint-ments
Near Eastern Division
Bureau of Accounts
Diplomatic Bureau
Consular Commercial Bureau
Consular Bureau
Consular Personnel Bureau

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States	Admitted to the Union.	Area Square Miles.	Population Jan. 1, 1920	Nickname.	Flower.
1. Delaware	Dec. 7, 1787	2,370	223,003	Diamond ...	Peach Blossom
2. Pennsylvania .	Dec. 12, 1787	45,126	8,720,017	Keystone ...	
3. New Jersey...	Dec. 18, 1787	8,224	3,155,900	Red Mud ...	Violet
4. Georgia	Jan. 2, 1788	59,265	2,895,832	Empire State of the South	Cherokee Rose
5. Connecticut ..	Jan. 9, 1788	4,965	1,380,631	Nutmeg	Mountain Laurel
6. Massachusetts	Feb. 6, 1788	8,266	3,852,356	Old Bay.....	May Flower
7. Maryland	Apr. 28, 1788	12,327	1,449,681	Old Line....	Blackeyed-Susan
8. South Carolina	May 23, 1788	30,989	1,683,724	Palmetto ...	
9. New Hampshire	June 21, 1788	9,341	443,083	Granite	Purple Lilac
10. Virginia	June 25, 1788	42,627	2,309,187	Old Dominion	Dogwood
11. New York....	July 26, 1788	49,204	10,384,829	Empire	Rose
12. North Carolina	Nov. 21, 1789	52,426	2,559,123	Tar Heel....	Daisy
13. Rhode Island.	May 29, 1790	1,248	604,397	Little Rhody	Violet
14. Vermont	Mar. 4, 1791	9,564	352,428	Green Mountain	Red Clover
15. Kentucky	June 1, 1792	40,598	2,416,630	Corn Cracker	Trumpet-Vine
16. Tennessee ...	June 1, 1796	42,022	2,337,885	Volunteer ...	
17. Ohio	Feb. 19, 1803	41,040	5,759,394	Buckeye	Carnation
18. Louisiana	Apr. 30, 1812	48,506	1,798,509	Pelican	Magnolia
19. Indiana	Dec. 11, 1816	36,354	2,930,390	Hoosier	Carnation
20. Mississippi ..	Dec. 10, 1817	46,865	1,790,618	Bayou	Magnolia
21. Illinois	Dec. 3, 1818	56,665	6,485,280	Prairie	Violet
22. Alabama	Dec. 14, 1819	51,998	2,348,174	Land of Flowers	Golden Rod
23. Maine	Nov. 15, 1820	33,040	768,014	Pine Tree...	Pine Cone
24. Missouri	Aug. 10, 1821	69,420	3,404,055	Bullion	
25. Arkansas	June 15, 1836	53,335	1,752,204	Bear	Apple Blossom
26. Michigan	Jan. 26, 1837	57,890	3,668,412	Wolverine ..	Apple Blossom
27. Florida	Mar. 3, 1845	58,666	968,471	Everglade ..	Orange Blossom
28. Texas	Dec. 29, 1845	265,896	4,663,228	Lone Star...	Blue Bonnet
29. Iowa	Dec. 28, 1846	56,147	2,404,021	Hawkeye ...	Wild Rose
30. Wisconsin	May 29, 1848	56,066	2,632,067	Badger	Violet
31. California ...	Sept. 9, 1850	158,297	3,426,861	Golden	California Poppy
32. Minnesota ...	May 11, 1858	84,682	2,387,125	Gopher	Moccasin
33. Oregon	Feb. 14, 1859	96,699	783,389	Web-Foot ...	Oregon Grape
34. Kansas	Jan. 29, 1861	82,158	1,769,257	Garden	Sunflower
35. West Virginia.	June 19, 1863	24,170	1,463,701	Panhandle ..	Rhododendron
36. Nevada	Oct. 31, 1864	110,690	77,407	Sage Brush..	Sage Brush
37. Nebraska	Mar. 1, 1867	77,520	1,296,372	Black Water.	Golden Rod
38. Colorado	Aug. 1, 1876	103,948	939,629	Centennial .	Columbine
39. North Dakota.	Nov. 3, 1889	70,837	645,680	Cyclone	Wild Rose
40. South Dakota.	Nov. 3, 1889	77,615	636,547	Coyote	Anemone Patens
41. Montana	Nov. 8, 1889	146,572	548,889	Mountain ...	Bitter Root
42. Washington ..	Nov. 11, 1889	69,127	1,356,621	Chinook	Rhododendron
43. Idaho	July 3, 1890	84,313	431,866	Gem of the Mountains.	Syringa
44. Wyoming	July 10, 1890	97,914	194,402		Indian Paintbrush
45. Utah	Jan. 4, 1896	84,990	449,396	Mormon	Sego Lily
46. Oklahoma	Nov. 16, 1907	70,057	2,028,283	Sooner State.	Mistletoe
47. New Mexico..	Jan. 6, 1912	122,634	360,350	Adobe	Cactus
48. Arizona	Feb. 14, 1912	113,956	333,903		Sahuaro

Constitutional amendment necessary for, recommended, 1015.
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State Rights and State Sovereignty.—"State rights" is the doctrine that every state is sovereign within the limits of its own sphere of action, made so by the declared will of the nation as expressed in the Constitution; and that the will of the nation, appropriately manifested, as provided in the Constitution, may change that sphere. "State sovereignty" is the doctrine that the states, at the formation of the Union, delegated a portion of their sovereignty to the National government, reserving the right to revoke the agency and to resume the exercise of all the elements of sovereignty at any time by seceding.

In the Constitution, the rights of the National government are distinctly stated; the rights of the state are limited only by the expressly declared national right. Previous to the Civil War the term "state rights" was used to designate the idea of "state sovereignty," and misuse has raised a prejudice in many minds even against the legitimate theory of "state rights" brought forward since that event. The arguments against "state sovereignty" may be summarized as follows: The colonies did not fight each for its own independence, but each for the independence of all, as is shown by their joint action throughout, in military as well as civil matters. The sovereignty acquired in that struggle was never individually exercised, but all remained under the national sovereignty raised by the common fight for liberty. All the elements and insignia of sovereignty were vested in the National government, as the power to declare war and peace and to coin money, and moreover the power to amend the Constitution, except in a very few particulars, was given to three-fourths of the states, and on the theory of state sovereignty this would imply the self-contradictory condition of a sovereign state voluntarily exposing itself to changes in its government without its consent to the change. It may be maintained that secession would afford the needed relief; but if this had been the intention, the consent of all the states to an amendment would have been required, since it must be presumed that the union was intended to endure.

The doctrine of "state sovereignty" was put forward at various times. (See Hartford Convention; Nullification.) Soon after the nullification troubles it became the ally of slavery, and the result of the Civil War put it to rest forever. State sovereignty and secession finally disposed of, the theory of state rights as above outlined could be developed. The danger of extreme particularism had been avoided; extreme centralization during the exercise of war powers by the President and Congress was inevitable. The Supreme Court holds the balance, and its adjudication has, since the war, laid down the relations of the states and the National government as above.

State Rights. (See Powers of Federal and State Governments.)

State Socialism. (See Socialism.)

States Relations Service, Agriculture Department.—Under a plan of reorganization of the Department of Agriculture approved by law of May 8, 1914, the States Relations Service was created. It had general charge of the department's business with the State Agricultural Colleges and Experiment Stations, and of certain other related functions. The act provided for a nation-wide system of instruction for the farming population in agriculture and home economics outside of the schools and colleges.

The general lines of the extension system for the whole country were fully marked out, and embraced (1) the county agricultural agents, (2) the boys' and girls' clubs, (3) the movable schools, and (4) the supporting work of the college and department specialists.

By the Agriculture Appropriation Bill for 1924, the Service was consolidated with the Division of Publications into the four units, Offices of Editorial and Distribution Work, Office of Experiment Stations, Extension Service, Home Economics Bureau.

Statistical Congress, International:
At St. Petersburg, 4142, 4221.
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Invitation to hold next meeting in United States recommended, 4142.

Statistics, Bureau of.—A Bureau of the old Department of Commerce and Labor. It was established in 1866 as a Bureau of the Treasury Department, but on the establishment of the Department of Commerce and Labor, in 1903, it was transferred to that Department. It collected and published from time to time statistics of the commerce of the United States with foreign countries, immigration statistics, etc. Its annual statistical Abstract of the United States and reports on commerce and navigation, now published by other bureaus in the several executive departments, were documents of invaluable service for knowledge of the country.

Statistics, Bureau of, act to establish, referred to, 4807.

Statuary Hall, formerly the hall of the House of Representatives, was established as Statuary Hall by act of Congress of July 2, 1864. By this legislation a National Hall of Statuary was created, and the President was authorized to invite each state to contribute to the collection to be formed; two statues, in either marble or bronze, of deceased citizens of the state whom "for historic renown or from civil or military services" the state should consider as worthy of commemoration in this National Hall of Statuary.

The following is a list of statues presented by the states:

Alabama—J. L. M. Curry.
Arkansas—Uriah M. Rose.
Connecticut—Roger Sherman.

Connecticut—Jonathan Trumbull.
Florida—John W. Gorrie.
Florida—E. Kirby Smith.
Idaho—George L. Shoup.
Illinois—James Shields.
Illinois—Frances E. Willard.
Indiana—Oliver P. Morton.
Indiana—Lew Wallace.
Iowa—James Harlan.
Iowa—Samuel J. Kirkwood.
Kansas—John J. Ingalls.
Kansas—George W. Glick.
Maine—William King.
Maryland—Charles Carroll.
Maryland—John Hanson.
Massachusetts—Samuel Adams.
Massachusetts—John Winthrop.
Michigan—Lewis Cass.
Michigan—Zachariah Chandler.
Minnesota—Henry Mower Rice.
Missouri—Francis P. Blair.
Missouri—Thomas H. Benton.
New Hampshire—John Stark.
New Hampshire—Daniel Webster.
New Jersey—Richard Stockton.
New Jersey—Philip Kearny.
New York—Robert R. Livingston.
New York—George Clinton.
North Carolina—Zebulon B. Vance.
Ohio—James A. Garfield.
Ohio—William Allen.
Oklahoma—Sequoiah.
Pennsylvania—J. P. G. Muhlenberg.
Pennsylvania—Robert Fulton.
Rhode Island—Nathanael Greene.
Rhode Island—Roger Williams.
South Carolina—John C. Calhoun.
Texas—Stephen F. Austin.
Texas—Samuel Houston.
Vermont—Ethan Allen.
Vermont—Jacob Collamer.
Virginia—Washington.
Virginia—R. E. Lee.
West Virginia—John E. Kenna.
West Virginia—Francis H. Pierpont.
Wisconsin—James Marquette.

Works of art in the Capitol Building, Washington, have been acquired by gift from private individuals interested in the preservation of the historical, biographical, or pictorial art of the nation; by the gift from states, as instanced by the statues of distinguished citizens forming the collection in Statuary Hall, and by purchase by the Government. A general supervision of the art works of the Capitol is exercised by the Joint Committee on the Library. This committee also has charge of accessions to the art works of the Capitol Building, except as otherwise provided by law.

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Washington, George, statue of—
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Washington Monument. (See Washington Monument.)
Wooster, David, monument to memory of, information regarding, 801.
Yorktown, Va., monument at, referred to, 4850.

Status Quo Ante Bellum in Europe denounced, 8271.

Statute of Limitations should be repealed in criminal cases, 1492.

Statutes of Limitations and Interest Laws.—The following table gives the legal and contract interest rates in the several States, and the statutes of limitations of notes, judgments and accounts:

States and Territories.	Interest Laws.		Statutes of Limitations.		
	Legal Rate.	Rate Allowed by Contract.	Judgments.	Notes.	Open Accounts.
	Per ct.	Per ct.	Years	Years	Years
Alabama	8	8	20	6	3
Alaska	8	12	10	6	6
Arkansas	6 to 10	6 to 10	10	5	3
Arizona	6	10	4	4	3
California	7	12	5	4	4
Colorado	8	12	20	6	6
Connecticut	6	6	(*o*)	6	6
Delaware	6	6	10 (*m*)	6	3
D. of Columbia	6	8	12	3	3
Florida	8	10	20	5 ‖	3
Georgia	7	8	7	6	4 ‖
Hawaii	8	12	20	6	6
Idaho	7	10	6	5	4
Illinois	5	7	7	10	5
Indiana	6	8	20	10	6
Iowa	6	8	20	10	5
Kansas	6	10	5	5	3
Kentucky	6	6	5	15	2
Louisiana	5	8	10	5	3
Maine	6	12	6-20	6(*c*)	6
Maryland	6	6	12	3	3
Massachusetts	6	Any rate.	6(*c*)	6	6
Michigan	5	7	10	6	6
Minnesota	6	10	10	6	6
Mississippi	6	8	7	6	3
Missouri	6	8	10	10	5
Montana	8	10	10	8	5
Nebraska	7	10	5	5	4
Nevada	7	7	6	6	4
N. Hampshire	6	6§	20	6	6
New Jersey	6	6	20	6	6
New Mexico	10	12	7	6	4
New York	6	6††	20(*n*)	6	6§§
North Carolina	6	6	10	3*	3
North Dakota	6	10	10	6	6
Ohio	6	8	21	15	6
Oklahoma	6	10	5	5	3
Oregon	6	10	10	6	6
Pennsylvania	6	6	5(*f*)	6‖	6
Porto Rico	6	12(*s*)	5	3	3
Rhode Island	6§	Any rate.	20	6	6
South Carolina	7	8	10	6	6
South Dakota	7	12	20	6	6
Tennessee	6	6	10	6	6
Texas	6	10	10	4	2 to 4
Utah	8	12	8	6	4
Vermont	6	(*r*)	6	6(*t*)	6
Virginia	6	6	20	5*	3
Washington	6	12	6	6	3
West Virginia	6	6	10	10	5
Wisconsin	6	10	20(*p*)	6	6
Wyoming	8	12	10	10	8

*Under seal, 10 years. §Unless a different rate is expressly stipulated. ‖Under

seal, 20 years. ††New York has legalized any rate of interest on call loans of $5,000 or upward, on collateral security. §§Six years from last item. (*f*) Ceases to be a lien after that period, unless revived. (*m*) Subject to renewal. (*n*) Not of record, six years. (*o*) No limit. (*p*) Justice Court judgments, six years. (*r*) No statute. (*s*) Pawnbrokers, four per cent per month. (*t*) Witnessed promissory notes, fourteen years.

Penaltics for usury differ in the various States. California, Colorado, Maine, Massachusetts (except on loans of less than $1,000), and Montana and Nevada have no provisions on the subject. Loss of *principal and interest* is the penalty in Arkansas and New York; and loss of principal in Delaware and Oregon.

Statutes of United States. (See Revised Statutes.)

Statutory.—By authority of the statute. Statutory law is law passed by the Legislature either of the nation or state. It is distinguished from common law in that it is interpreted by the judiciary, as nearly as ascertainable, according to the literal meaning intended by the legislators. (See Common Law.)

Steam Boiler Explosions:
- Commission to inquire into causes of, 4213, 4434.
- Examinations of inventions to prevent, referred to, 1726, 1728, 1732.

Steam Engineering, Bureau of, Navy Department. (See Bureau of Steam Engineering.)

Steam Power:
- Accident in navigation resulting from criminal negligence in use of, discussed, 1253.
- Use and development of, in naval warfare, discussed, 1901, 2122, 2132.

"Steam Roller" Tactics.—The action of the Republican leaders in the nominating convention of 1912 was characterized by their opponents throughout the campaign as "Steam Roller" Tactics, because it was alleged that the Committee on Credentials had arbitrarily seated contesting delegates regardless of the merits of the cases involved, and by so maneuvering had gained a majority for the platform and the candidates desired by the reactionaries.

Steamboat Inspection Service, Commerce Department. —This service is charged with the inspection of all vessels flying the United States flag which are not directly connected with the Navy Department. In addition to general inspection concerning safety, the Service investigates the serviceability of all vessels for the kind of service they are to render, sees that the accommodations for both passengers and crew are sufficient, and examines the safety of all the equipment, with especial attention to boilers. In a recent year, the Service inspected and certificated 7,736 domestic vessels and 315 foreign steamers. The tonnage of the domestic vessels inspected was 12,741,807, and of the foreign vessels, 2,879,572. There were 33,614 officers licensed, 226,110 new life preservers inspected, of which 3,009 were rejected, 5,733 marine boiler plates inspected at the mills. During the year, more than 368,000,000 passengers were carried on steam vessels required to report the number of their passengers, with 470 lives lost from all causes and 911 persons directly saved by the life-saving appliances required by law.

Steamboat Inspection Service, discussed, 4931.

Steamboats, casualties on, discussed, 1611.

Steamship Companies, American, possession and control of, 8487.

Steamship Mail Service. (See Postal Service.)

Steamships:
- Australian line referred to, 4101.
- Claims of German lines to interest on dues illegally exacted, 5084, 5367.
- Coastwise trade, protection needed for, 9107. (See also Panama Canal Tolls.)
- Construction of, into war vessels when needed, recommended, 2203.
- Immigrant-bearing. (See Immigration.)
- Line of, between—
  - Havre and New York referred to, 2011, 2173.
  - San Francisco and Japan and China, 4101.
- Naval reserve of, recommended, 5492.
- Proposals for construction of iron steamships for trans-Atlantic service referred to, 4023.
- Railroads and, cooperation urged between, 9106.
- Rapid service of, recommended by International American Conference, 5511.
- Rates, preferential, urged, 9106.
- Recommendations regarding, by President—
  - Harrison, Benj., 5491, 5559.
  - McKinley, 6340.
- Subsidized, between Europe and South America, 7362.
- Supervision of, by Interstate Commerce Commission, 6902.

Steel Industry. (See Iron and Steel Industry.)

Ste'h-chass Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Steilacoom Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

St-káh-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Stock Companies, inspection of returns of, 7960. (See also Corporations and Interstate Commerce.)

Stock in Corporations, right of other corporations to hold, 7079. (See also Corporations.)

Stockbridge Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Stockholders, innocent, used to shield law-defying corporations, 7139.

Stockholm, Sweden, International Prison Congress to be held in, discussed, 4406.
Proceedings of, referred to, 4464.
Stockton and Stokes, claims of, 1499.
Payment of, referred to, 1720.
Stockyards (see also Beef Packers and Meat Packing):
Chicago, report on condition of, 7296.
Licensed, 8528, 8582.
Stoluck-whá-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)
Stone and Webster referred to, 7162.

Stone, Clay and Cement.—Stone suitable for building purposes is found in nearly all the states, but marketable grades of stone are really confined to a few.

The last federal census of mines and quarries, published in 1922 but taken as of 1919, gave the following summary of the stone industry in the United States:—Enterprises, 1,820, representing 1,922 quarries; mineral land operated, 252,242 acres; average number of wage-earners, 42,986; capital, $148,759,533; cost of supplies and materials, $25,922,764; wages, $45,534,798; value of products, $101,684,919. There were 8 industries with annual product valued at more than $1,000,000 and 16, at between $500,000 and $1,000,000. The production was 67,844,000 tons (75%, limestone).

The value of the limestone was $52,943,924, of which 24¼% came from Pennsylvania, 12¾% from Ohio, 8¾% each from Indiana and New York and 7% from Illinois. The value of the granite produced, 4,420,000 short tons, was $18,279,345, of which 19½% came from Vermont, 13¼% from Massachusetts, and from 6¼% to 8½% each from North Carolina, Wisconsin, New Hampshire, Maine and Minnesota.

The sandstone produced amounted to 5,224,000 short tons, valued at $10,684,969, of which 33% came from California, 25¾% from Ohio, 12½% from Illinois, 8¼% from West Virginia. Basalt amounted to 7,745,000 tons, valued at $9,657,977, of which 23¾% came from Pennsylvania, 20% from New Jersey, 16% from Massachusetts and 13% from Connecticut. Slate amounted to 409,000 tons, $5,720,000, 46% coming from Pennsylvania and 36% from Vermont. Marble amounted to 331,000 tons, 48% from Vermont, 25% from Tennessee.

Pottery.—The art of molding clay into articles for domestic use is one of the oldest of handicrafts, and doubtless developed shortly after or coincident with the carving of weapons. Specimens of clay molding carry fragments of the early history of all races. The Mound Builders of prehistoric America had distinctive pottery.

To the Chinese and the Egyptians we are indebted for a later development of earthenware fabrication. Josiah Wedgwood was the pioneer master of the ancient art in England. In 1744, Edward Heylyn, of the Parish of Bow, and Thomas Frye, of the Parish of West Ham, Essex, England, applied for a patent for the manufacture of chinaware, in which they specify that the material used is an earth produced by the Cherokee Indians of America. As early as 1765 South Carolina had a pottery which seriously threatened Wedgwood's American trade. Before 1800 the pottery business was fairly well established in Philadelphia and vicinity. The Jersey Porcelain Company of Jersey City was incorporated in 1825. In 1837 the Indiana Pottery Company was started at Troy, Ind., on the Ohio River. East Liverpool, Ohio, owes its prosperity to the discovery of potter's clay in the neighborhood by James Bennett, an English potter, who erected the first works there in 1839. Trenton, N. J., built its first pottery in 1852. The earliest ware was mostly plain white undecorated or yellow, followed by white, carrying blue designs.

For statistics of the Pottery Industry, see the separate article under that head.

Brick and Tile, Terra Cotta and Fire-Clay Products.—The federal census of manufactures published in 1923 a report on this industry as of 1921. A summary is as follows:—Number of establishments, 1,881; Persons engaged, 77,228; Capital (1919), $355,848,355; Salaries and wages, $90,048,085; Cost of materials, $68,275,905; Value of products, $194,329,421, of which 16% came from Pennsylvania, 17½% from Ohio, and 9½% from Illinois. Two establishments in Missouri and two in Pennsylvania each employed in 1919 over 500 wage-earners and there were 13 in 1921 with annual products valued above $1,000,000. Among the separate products were:—

	Thousands	*Value*
Common brick	4,447,987	$57,096,178
Vitrified brick	561,946	12,870,165
Face brick	873,346	18,128,217
Fire brick	621,009	24,833,297
Silica brick	104,990	5,220,640
Drain tile, tons	976,313	8,367,900
Sewer pipe, tons	1,356,265	22,155,442
Hollow tile, tons	2,017,543	14,840,870
Tile, not drain		12,559,531

Cement.—Two classes of cement are generally recognized in this country—hydraulic, or natural rock cement (made from a limestone containing a relatively high proportion of clay, by burning at a low heat, and grinding the product to powder); and Portland cement (made from an artificial mixture of carbonate of lime (either chalk limestone or marl,) with a certain proportion of clay, burning at a white heat and grinding the clinker to powder.)

Portland cement was first made in England in 1824, and derives its name from its resemblance to the limestone of Portland Island, in the English channel. The industry was then taken up in Germany, where the annual output runs to about 30,000,000 barrels, whereas England makes 17,000,000 barrels. Portland cement was first made in the United States at Copley, Pa., in 1878, and since then works have been established in many other states.

A summary of this industry, as reported upon by the Census Bureau in 1923 as of 1921, is as follows:—Establishments, 125; Persons engaged, 30,908; Capital (1919), $271,269,259; Salaries and wages, $44,958,491; Cost of materials, $102,359,637; Value of products, $203,626,929, of which 27% came from Pennsylvania. There were 2 establishments in 1919 employing over 1,000 wage-earners and 4, from 500 to 1,000; there were 73 in 1921 with annual products valued at over $1,000,000. The production amounted to 95,507,147 barrels of portland and 539,402 barrels of natural and puzzolan cement.

Stone River, or Murfreesboro (Tenn.), Battle of.—Oct. 30, 1862, Gen. Buell was succeeded in the command of the Army of the Ohio by Gen. William S. Rosecrans. During December the Federal army of 41,421 infantry, 3,266 cavalry, and 2,223 artillery, with 150 guns, lay at Nashville, Tenn. The recent invasion of Kentucky by the Confederates under Gen. Bragg having proven unsatisfactory to the Con-

federate government, he was again ordered to the north soon after he had reached Chattanooga. By Christmas he was posted near Murfreesboro, about thirty miles southeast of Nashville, with an army of 37,000 men. Rosecrans had planned to assail the Confederate right early on the morning of Dec. 31, in front of Murfreesboro. Bragg, anticipating his design, attacked McCook on the Federal right and drove him from his position with considerable loss, including 3,000 prisoners and 28 guns. Some Federal accounts represent the Confederates as repulsed four times after their successful charge. Both armies rested on Jan. 1, 1863. On the 2d Rosecrans resumed his efforts to turn the Confederate right. Some statements are to the effect that Bragg attacked unsuccessfully. The one here followed says the Federals advanced, were forced back across Stone River, but later recovered the ground and threw up breastworks. Bragg retired from his position on the 3d and occupied Murfreesboro, which he evacuated on the 5th. He then fell back about twenty-five miles to Duck River. The Federal loss in the fighting about Murfreesboro was 1,723 killed, 7,245 wounded, and more than 3,000 prisoners—a total of about 12,000. The loss of the Confederates was about 11,000 men in killed, wounded, and missing. This battle is called by the Confederates the battle of Murfreesboro. It was one of the bloodiest of the Civil War.

Stono Ferry (S. C.), Battle of.—In the early summer of 1779 the British under Gen. Prevost advanced upon Charleston and demanded its surrender. They were driven off by the vigorous action of Pulaski, Rutledge, Moultrie, Laurens, and others. In his retreat toward Savannah, Gen. Prevost left a detachment in charge of Stono Ferry, ten miles below Charleston on the Stono River. June 20 these were attacked by Gen. Lincoln. In the absence of concerted action the assault failed and the Americans withdrew after losing 146 in killed and wounded.

Stony Creek (Canada), Battle of.—When the British were driven from Fort George, on the Niagara River, they fled westward under command of Gen. Vincent as far as Stony Creek, six miles southeast of the present city of Hamilton, and about fifty miles from Niagara River. Here they made a stand, having been reenforced by troops from Kingston. They were closely followed by 1,300 Americans under Generals Chandler and Winder. At midnight June 5, 1813, Vincent, with about 800 men, started for the American camp. The attack was made before daylight, and the combatants were unable to distinguish friend from foe. Chandler and Winder were both captured and Vincent was lost in the woods. The British command then devolved upon Col. Harvey, who, despairing of driving the Americans from their position, withdrew from the attack while it was yet dark. The Americans fled to Forty-Mile Creek, where they were joined by 400 reenforcements. The total casualties of the battle were: Americans, 154; British, 178.

Stony Point (N. Y.), Storming of.—With a view to regaining possession of the Hudson, Gen. Clinton in June, 1779, occupied and fortified Verplanck's Point and Stony Point, garrisoning the latter with 600 men. To circumvent his movements Washington sent for Anthony Wayne and asked him if he could take Stony Point. His reply is said to have been: "I will storm hell if your excellency will plan it." Accordingly, Washington planned the assault, and on the night of July 16, 1779, Wayne, with about 800 men selected from three regiments of infantry, a detachment from West Point, and Col. Lee's light-horse, made a sudden assault upon the fort. The plans were carefully executed, the guns were carried off, and the works destroyed. The British casualties were 20 killed, 74 wounded, 58 missing, and 472 prisoners—a total loss of 624. The total American loss was only 15 killed and 83 wounded. Among the latter was Gen. Wayne. This, the boldest exploit of the Revolution, was initiated by the capture and gagging of a sentinel, the countersign having been obtained by a negro strawberry vender and by him communicated to the Americans. While the negro chatted with the sentry the latter was seized by the American advance party.

Storage, Cold. (See Cold Storage.)

Straw Shoe Channel, steamers sailing under American flag prohibited from passing through, referred to, 3896, 3902.

Streight's Raid.—In the spring of 1863, about the time Col. Grierson's flying column of cavalry was organized at Memphis, Tenn., Col. A. D. Streight, of the Fifty-first Indiana, was permitted by Gen. Rosecrans to take a body of 1,800 cavalry from Tuscumbia, Ala., to attempt the destruction of railroads and other property in northern Alabama and Georgia. The raiders started out April 12 and were captured May 3, 1863, near Rome, Ga., having accomplished nothing. The capture was made by Forrest's cavalry.

Strict Accountability of Germany for destruction of property and life, 8056.

Strict Constructionist.—In political parlance, a political party or individual insisting upon the precise application of the wording of the Constitution. The Anti-Federalists and their successors, the Democratic-Republicans, and, until very recently, the Democratic party have usually been regarded as strict constructionists.

Strike Commission:
Discussed, 5983, 7037.
Report of, transmitted, 5988.
(See also Arbitration, Labor and Strikes.)

Strikes and Lockouts.—The history of strikes depends upon a careful definition of the word. In some respects, the exodus of the Children of Israel from Egypt was a strike, as were the peasants' revolt in England in the fourteenth century and the various trade struggles of the mediaeval guilds. But strikes in the common modern sense of the term date from the rise of labor organizations in the nineteenth century, and truly serious strikes were ushered in with the last quarter of that century. (See Trade Unions.)

Strikes are generally called for the purpose of raising wages, lowering working-hours, opposing a decrease of wages or an increase in hours, having the union recognized or enforcing the closed shop, opposing discrimination against union members, in sympathy with labor struggles elsewhere or for general improvement of working conditions. In recent years, there have been many attempts to end or to minimize strikes by arbitration (see Labor Arbitration).

In the United States, strikes as such have not been declared illegal by national legis-

lation. However, certain states, notably Kansas, have taken action to that effect, and various legal decisions have forbidden intimidation, the secondary boycott, the destruction of property through strikes, picketing and sympathetic strikes. Recent judicial decisions also have seemed to establish the contention that unions are liable for damages incurred because of strikes. In the coal strike of 1919, the Attorney-General of the United States filed an injunction, under the Food Control Law (q. v.), compelling the miners' leaders to call off the strike. (See Boycott, Injunctions, Loewe vs. Lawler, Bucks Stove Case, etc.).

There are reports of strikes in the United States around the opening of the nineteenth century, by the bakers, shoemakers and sailors. In the early years of the century, there were spasmodic strikes called among various trades, and by 1835 strikes had become numerous in this country.

Notable strikes in the United States have been as follows: The great railroad strikes of 1877, the first to assume serious national significance; in 1883, the telegraphers' strike; in 1885, the strike on the Gould system of railroads; in 1892, the bitter and sanguinary Homestead strike; in 1894, the Pullman strike in Chicago, accompanied by great disorder; in 1900 and 1902, the anthracite coal miners' strike; in 1901, the steel workers' strike; in 1903-4, the strike of the Colorado coal-workers; in 1906, the bituminous coal strike, in which the federal government finally was compelled to intervene; in 1909, the strike of the shirtwaist workers in New York and in the same year the riotous strike at McKees Rocks, Pa., near Pittsburgh; in 1910, the strike of the cloakmakers in New York; in 1912, the strike of the mill-hands at Lawrence, engineered by the I. W. W.; in 1913-4, the strike of the copper workers in Michigan and that in Colorado of employees of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, in which occurred the firing upon the strikers' tent colony, and the death of some women and children (the so-called Ludlow Massacre); in 1913, the strike of the miners in West Virginia and Colorado and that of the silk workers in Paterson; in 1916 and 1920-1, the garment workers in New York City; in 1919, a general strike in Seattle; and a policemen's strike in Boston; in 1920, the nation-wide steel strike.

In the twenty years from 1880 to 1900, there were some 23,000 strikes called in the United States, affecting 117,500 establishments and about 6,000,000 workers. The average duration of each strike was 24 days. The strikes were chiefly in the ive states, New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Massachusetts and Ohio.

Of the strikes in the period, 20% were in the building trades, 11% in the coal and coke industry, 9% in the metal trades, 7% in tobacco and 6% in transportation.

Of the total number of strikes, 63½% were ordered by unions. Of this number 53% were successful, 13½% partly successful and 33½% failures. Of the strikes not called by unions, only 35½% were successful, 9% partly successful, while 55½% were failures.

The causes of the strikes in this period, 1880-1900, were as follows: 29% concerning wages; 11%, hours; 11%, hours and wages; 7%, against a reduction in wages; 3½%, sympathetic; 2½%, against the employment of non-union men; and 2½%, for the recognition of the union.

The changes in the character of strikes from the end of the nineteenth to the beginning of the twentieth centuries may be seen by comparing these figures with those for 1916, 1917, 1918 and 1919, given below.

A recent survey of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics gives figures for strikes and lockouts in the United States for the calendar years 1916, 1917, 1918 and 1919, as follows:

Year	*Strikes*	*Lockouts*
1916	3,681	108
1917	4,324	126
1918	3,232	105
1919	3,253	121

The greatest number of strikes and lockouts seem to occur in the months of April and May, doubtless because the trade agreements in many industries expire on April 30.

By sections, the number of strikes and lockouts was as follows:

N. of the Ohio and E. of Mississippi	11,199
S. of the Ohio and E. of Mississippi	1,004
West of the Mississippi	2,755

The largest number of strikes and lockouts was in the following states:

	Strikes	*Lockouts*
New York	2,466	58
Pennsylvania	1,616	38
Massachusetts	1,433	30
Ohio	943	45
New Jersey	939	18
Illinois	914	37
Connecticut	713	6
Washington	551	7

The greatest number of strikes and lockouts by cities was as follows in 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919:

City	*1916*	*1917*	*1918*	*1919*	*Total*
New York	363	484	484	360	1,691
Chicago	73	123	100	124	420
Boston	62	86	66	96	310
Philadelphia	74	89	80	60	303
St. Louis	58	53	70	36	217
Cleveland	60	76	39	47	222
Newark	55	50	36	30	171
Baltimore	39	36	45	22	142
Cincinnati	29	33	26	36	124
San Francisco	23	37	30	33	123
Pittsburgh	47	37	19	17	120
Providence	21	46	18	30	115
Buffalo	41	28	24	19	112
Seattle	15	49	28	18	110
Detroit	31	19	18	37	105

By sex, the strikes and lockouts in the above four years were as follows:

Sex	*Strikes*	*Lockouts*
Male	11,537	321
Females	453	4
Males and females	1,185	47
Not reported	1,315	88

According to union affiliation, the strikes and lockouts were as follows:

	1919	*1918*	*1917*	*1916*	*Total*
Union	1,913	1,903	2,392	2,438	8,646
Non-union	29	26	55	71	181
Combination*	29	26	55	71	181
Not reported	1,296	1,046	1,794	814	4,950

*Not union at time of striking, but organized almost immediately afterwards.

According to reports received, the chief causes of strikes and lockouts over the four years were as follows:

Cause	*Strikes*	*Lockouts*
Wage-increase	5,221	66
Wage-increase and hours-decrease	1,658	17
Recognition of union	1,173	127
Discharge of employees	605	8
Recognition and wages	493	14
Decrease of hours	423	15

By number of persons affected, the record was as follows:

	Strikes	*Lockouts*
10,000 and over	158	4
1,000 to 10,000	964	22
500 to 1,000	772	16
250 to 500	1,231	31
100 to 250	1,558	46
50 to 100	1,472	36
Less than 50	3,209	120
Unreported	5,120	185

The number of persons involved was as follows:

	Strikes	*Lockouts*
1919	3,950,411	162,096
1918	1,196,928	43,061
1917	1,208,121	19,113
1916	1,546,735	53,182

The average number of persons affected per strike and lockout, respectively, was as follows: 1919, 1,647 and 1,724; 1918, 575 and 605; 1917, 530 and 416; 1916, 594 and 831.

By industries, the greatest number of strikes and lockouts was as follows:

Industry	*Strikes*	*Lockouts*
Metal trades	2,026	97
Building trades	1,663	73
Clothing industry	1,422	42
Mining	1,174	12
Transportation	1,023	9
Textiles industry	967	20
Lumber industry	453	7
Shipbuilding	367	4
Iron and steel industry	267	10
Meat-cutting	214	4
Tobacco	207	8
Paper manufacture	166	6
Printing and publishing	162	14
Furniture industry	157	9
Stone work	112	2
Leather work	95	6

By occupations, the largest number of strikes and lockouts was as follows in 1916, 1917, 1918 and 1919:

Occupation	*Strikes*	*Lockouts*
Coal miners	1,019	12
Machinists	853	44
Molders	582	19
Teamsters	489	14
Street-railway employees	395	5
Carpenters	331	12
Bakers	262	39
Plumbers and steam-fitters	229	9
Painters and paper hangers	219	8
Tailors	199	4
Longshoremen	196	1

The duration of strikes and lockouts was as follows:

	Strikes	*Lockouts*
More than 200 days	95	9
92 to 199 days	303	25
50 to 91 days	489	26
25 to 50 days	864	35
10 to 25 days	1,594	39
Less than 10 days	3,464	42
Unreported	1,708	61

	1919	*1918*	*1917*	*1916*
Total Duration	*Days*	*Days*	*Days*	*Days*
Strikes	57,855	28,779	25,077	46,305
Lockouts	2,215	1,116	1,904	3,375
Average Duration				
Strikes	34	18	18	22
Lockouts	38	31	56	64

The results of the strikes in the four years covered were as follows:

	1916	*1917*	*1918*	*1919*
Favor of Employers	727	382	450	624
Favor of Employees	733	614	610	573
Compromised	766	698	668	729
Strikers returned pending arbitration	70	131	200	42
Not reported	99	190	188	33

The results of the lockouts were as follows:

	1916	*1917*	*1918*	*1919*
Favor of Employers	21	13	6	18
Favor of Employees	16	17	15	16
Compromised	14	27	22	14
Not reported	2	1	21	20

Strikes:
Compulsory investigation of, 7089.
Denounced—
Carpenters in shipyards, 8456.
Coal miners, 8797.
Machinists in Bridgeport, 8581.
Policemen, 8796.
War-time, 8456, 8773.
Lockouts and, record of, 7037.
Record of, 7037.
Right of, supported by President—
Roosevelt, 7088, 7345.
Wilson, 8819.
Street-cleaners in New York, referred to, 7726.

Strong Government Men.—A party organized in 1783 which favored a strong central government and a loose construction of the Constitution.

Students' Army Training Corps.—After the passage of the selective draft laws in the war against Germany and Austria-Hungary, the War Department made special arrangements for keeping qualified students in their colleges and high schools pending their call to the colors. Such students were given military training in their schools, at the same time taking such other regular studies as their military training allowed.

Immediately upon their induction into the S. A. T. C., students were placed upon active service and were given private's pay of $30 monthly. The War Department entered into contracts with the students' educational institutions for the quartering, subsistence, and instruction of all such S. A. T. C. members. There were no enlistments, entrance being by voluntary induction or draft. Those eligible were those who were physically able to perform military service, who had received a grammar school education or its equivalent, and who were in attendance upon an institution maintaining an S. A. T. C.

Subconstitutional Centennial Commission, memorial of, proposing to celebrate centennial anniversary of framing Constitution, discussed, 5118.

Submarine Cables. (See Ocean Cables.)

Submarine Telegraph Company, claim against United States, 6824.

Submarine Warfare of Germany, crimes of, 8227 *et seq.* (See also Germany.)

Submarines.—Annalists trace the records of under-sea operations back to the days of Alexander the Great. Systematic study of attack below the water line was made

as early as the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, for several English ships were reported destroyed in 1372 by fire carried under water. The idea certainly is not a novel one, for what more natural suggestion could present itself than a thrust in the rear when a frontal attack fails against a foe. Passing over the earlier accounts of submarine boats for lack of confirmation, we find fairly reliable descriptions of such vessels in 1580, 1605, 1624, 1680, 1747, mostly built and operated in England.

The earliest attempts at submarine naval operations in America were made in 1775 by David Bushnell, who built an iron vessel shaped like a tortoise, water tight and with an air capacity sufficient for one man one hour. This was made to dive under water and propelled forward at a speed of two or three knots an hour by means of screws worked by the hands of the operator. There were automatic air tubes and a depth gauge, as well as an auger for boring holes in the hulls of vessels attacked and attaching torpedoes.

In this submarine, called the *Turtle*, Sergeant Lee was enabled to get beneath the English man-of-war *Eagle* in New York harbor. Lee's attack failed because his auger was not sharp enough to penetrate the copper-covered bottom of the *Eagle*. A later attempt to torpedo the British frigate *Cerberus*, at anchor off New London, was made in 1777, but the torpedo drifted astern and destroyed the schooner *Ramilles* and killed several men on board. This was the first vessel ever destroyed in this manner.

Between 1796 and 1810 Robert Fulton built submarine boats in America and France. On his *Nautilus* he once remained submerged five hours. His *Mute* had an armor plating and was propelled by a noiseless steam engine. Fulton's work was followed by more or less successful efforts in England, France, Germany and Russia; but the civil war in America furnished a notable stimulus to submarine architecture. A partially submerged Confederate vessel attacked the Federal *Ironsides* in 1863, and the same kind of a craft destroyed the *Housatonic* in Charleston harbor in 1864. These Confederate submarines were called "Davids," possibly in the hope that they would vanquish their giant foes of the United States Navy. Between 1878 and 1888 Garrett and Nordenfelt made successful experiments with submersible boats, and one by Gustave Zédé in 1888 was looked upon as a success; it was fifty-six feet long, thirty tons displacement, and had a speed of ten knots. George C. Baker made many submarine trips in Lake Michigan in 1892. Submarines built by Simon Lake in 1894 and 1897 remained submerged more than ten hours, and traveled 200 miles under the waters of Lake Champlain. These vessels were designed more for scientific exploration and the salvage of sunken cargoes than for offense.

Congress appropriated $200,000 in 1892 to enable the Navy Department to build and test a submarine. The plans of J. P. Holland were accepted, and the tenth improvement on this type was ordered in 1900. It is fitted with three torpedo tubes, carries the largest Whitehead torpedoes, and makes eight to nine knots speed. Eight of these boats were put in commission in 1903. Variations in the types are designated by letters (from A to M) and the number of vessels authorized has reached fifty-nine. (See Navy, Department of.) March 25, 1915, the F-4 was submerged in Honolulu harbor, Hawaii, and her crew of twenty-one men perished.

The Great European War increased so rapidly the power and the scope of the submarine that it is impossible to forecast the limits of its development. The submarine in the war has proved to be one of the determining factors in the conflict, although it has fallen below the expectations of its most ardent panegyrists, for example, Sir Percy Scott, the English naval expert, who predicted in a letter to the London *Times* in 1914 that the under-water boat would drive the above-water boat out of existence. Among the famous exploits of submarines in the war were the sinking of the English armored cruisers *Creasy*, *Hogue*, and *Aboukir*, each above 12,000 tons, by the German U-9 within the space of an hour and a half on September 22, 1914; and the entrance of the English B-11 into the Dardanelles early in 1915, where she sank a Turkish battleship, passing under five rows of submarine mines in her dash into and from the harbor. It was the actions of the German submarines which led to the entrance of the United States into the war, Germany announcing in 1917 that all ships of any country entering the war-zone which Germany had drawn around the British Isles would be sunk on sight after Feb. 1, 1917. Previously, the British liner *Lusitania* (q. v.) had been torpedoed without warning on May 7, 1915, with the loss of over 1,000 lives, 107 of them Americans. After spirited negotiations with the United States, the Imperial German Government had agreed to cease its destruction of ships without warning, and to safeguard lives on such vessels before destroying them; but these assurances, which were never given unqualifiedly, were annulled by the announcement of the campaign beginning February 1, 1917.

For an account of the sinkings of vessels in the World War, see the article under the latter head; for a contrast of the submarines of the great naval Powers, see Navies of the World.

Submarines:

Agreement on use of, and drifting mines, suggested by President Wilson, 8057.

American lives lost by action of, 8062, 8125.

Dangers to neutral commerce in use of, 8057, 8063.

Restricted warfare by, conditions of, stated by Germany, 8057.

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Defence of, by Germany, 8058.
Evils and wrongs of,8227.
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Vessels sunk by, 8062, 8117, 8125, 8210.

Subsidies, Mail, urged by President Taft to assist in establishing direct steamship lines to South America, 7374, 7435, 7503.

Subsidies to Industry by German government, denounced, 8388.

Subsidies to Railroads:
Discussed, 4064.

Information regarding, transmitted, 4958.

Subsidies to Steamships:
Discussed, 4151, 4306, 4938.
Views of Postmaster-General regarding, 3561.

Subsidy.—Derived from the Latin *subsidium*, originally the troops stationed in reserve in the third line of battle, from *subsidere*, to sit down. In Europe, after the period of its first use, it meant a sum of money paid to an ally to aid in carrying on war. In England it was a special tax levied upon persons and not upon property. It has now come to mean money paid by a government to individuals or companies, such as steamship or railway in excess of the value of services rendered and in aid of individual enterprise. Railways in the United States have been assisted by state and municipal subscriptions to their bonds. National aid to railways, with the exception of the Union and Central Pacific, has been in the form of land grants. In the case of the Pacific roads, in addition to 33,000,000 acres of land, the company was granted a money subsidy of more than $25,000 a mile.

The first subsidized steamships were those of the Cunard Line, which in 1838 were allowed an annual subsidy of £81,000 by Great Britain. Two years later agitation was begun in the United States to have steamship mail lines established on the subsidy plan, and in 1845 the Postmaster-General was authorized to make contracts for carrying foreign mail in steamships sailing under the American flag. In 1847 an act was passed requiring the Secretary of the Navy to arrange for United States steamships to carry the mail from New York to Liverpool, to the West Indies and Gulf ports, and from Panama up the Pacific coast. By 1852 the Government was paying $2,000,000 a year for foreign mail service, but Congress soon after put an end to all mail subsidies. An act of March 3, 1891, directed the Postmaster-General to pay $4 a mile run for first-class vessels for carrying foreign mails and in consideration of their use as auxiliary naval vessels.

In 1898 Senator Hanna introduced into the Senate a comprehensive bill to provide subsidies for all classes of American shipping. The bill passed the Senate in March, 1902, but failed to pass the House, although several small subsidies have been granted both before and since that date.

Substantive Legislation, appropriation bills containing, disapproved, 7752.

Subtreasury System.—The subtreasury system of the United States is an outgrowth of the panic of 1837. In his special session message to Congress that year President Van Buren strongly recommended such a system (1541). Silas Wright, of New York, introduced a bill in Congress in accordance with the President's recommendation. It prohibited Government agents from receiving anything but gold and silver. In 1840 the bill became a law and subtreasuries were established at New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis, the mint at Philadelphia and the branch mint at New Orleans having been also made places of deposit. The law was repealed in 1841, and reenacted in 1846. The subtreasury at Charleston has been suspended, but subtreasuries have been established at Baltimore, Chicago, Cincinnati, and San Francisco.

Subtreasury System:
Condemnation of, referred to, 1898.
Discussed by President—
Taylor, 2556.
Tyler, 1898, 2060.
Van Buren, 1541, 1596, 1706, 1751, 1757, 1827.
Modifications in, recommended, 2556.

Sudan.—Anglo-Egyptian Sudan stretches southward from the frontier of Egypt, 22° N. latitude, to the Belgian Congo and Uganda, 5° N. latitude; and from the Red Sea to Wadai in Central Africa. The total area is about 1,015,000 square miles, with a population estimated at 3,500,000. The native population is composed of Arabs, Negroes and Nubians of mixed Arab-Negro blood.

History.—Egypt extended her rule into the Sudan in the nineteenth century, but in the latter decades a native revolutionary ruler held sway until vanquished by a British force with Egyptian help. A convention between the British and Egyptian Governments in 1899 provided for the government of the Sudan by joint arrangement between the two countries. In 1900, a Council was created to assist the Governor-General, who now exercises his executive and legislative powers in conjunction with the Council. The country is divided into fifteen provinces, each of which is administered by British officers of the Egyptian army or British civil officials of the Government. The local districts are governed by British inspectors, the administration being supervised by district officials who are usually Egyptian officers of the Egyptian army.

In recent years the expenditure has been about $11,500,000 annually and the revenue about $13,500,000 annually.

In a recent year the imports, including Government stores, amounted to about $20,000,000 and the exports, including re-exports, to about $19,500,000. Most of the trade is with Egypt, with a proportion going to the United Kingdom.

The Sudan is the world's principal source of gum arabic and ivory. Cotton is being grown successfully along the Nile and the Red Sea, and cattle-raising is on the increase. Other products are ostrich feathers, palm nuts, dates, sesame, senna leaves and pods, nuts, hides, skins. The only mineral worked is gold. Rubber is produced in the south. The forests are thick and valuable. The chief grain grown is durra, a kind of millet.

The chief exports, in order of value, are sheep and goats, gum, durra, cattle, followed by cotton and hides and skins. The chief import is cotton goods, followed by sugar. Other imports of value are coal, coffee, sacks, tea and tobacco.

Physical Features.—The greater portion of the region consists of the Nubian Desert on the east and the Libyan Desert on the west, divided by the fertile valley of the Nile, which is nowhere of great width.

The Nile basin covers an area of nearly 1,100,000 square miles, and while part of the basin lies in Abyssinia and Eritrea, its course from the Central African Lakes to the Mediterranean is within the British Protectorate of Uganda and Central Africa, and the Anglo-Egyptian and Egyptian dominions.

Suez Canal.—The idea of connecting the Red Sea with the Mediterranean dates back into remote Egyptian history more than thirteen hundred years before the Christian Era. During the reign of Seti I and Rameses II a canal was dug from the Nile to Lake Timseh and thence to the Red Sea. This became choked up with sand and a new canal was begun by Necho, a son of Psammetichus I, about 600 B. C. and completed by Darius Hystaspis a hundred years later. At the beginning of the Christian Era the canal was no longer navigable, but was probably restored under Trajan. After again becoming impassable the canal was restored during the seventh century by Amru, the Mohammedan conqueror of Egypt. When Napoleon invaded Egypt in 1798-99, he ordered surveys made for a canal, but was forced to abandon the country before its completion. An international commission made preliminary surveys for a canal in 1846, but one of the engineers recommended a railroad across the isthmus and this was built by British capital in 1858.

Under the direction of Ferdinand De Lesseps plans for a canal were drawn in 1855 and submitted to an international commission. A concession was obtained from Said Pasha, Khedive of Egypt, and De Lesseps organized a stock company with £8,000,000 capital to build the canal. Work was begun April 25, 1859, and the canal was opened to traffic Nov. 17, 1869, the entire cost amounting to £16,632,953—about $80,000,000. Under the terms of the concession the Khedive received nearly one-half of the stock issued. Becoming financially embarrassed in 1875, he sold his shares to the British government for $20,400,000. This interest is now valued at something like $170,000,000, and yields a revenue of some $5,000,000.

The length of the canal from Port Said on the Mediterranean to Port Tewfik on the Gulf of Suez is eighty-seven statute miles—sixty-six actual canal and twenty-one miles of lakes. The original width was 150 to 300 feet at the water level, seventy-two feet at the bottom, and twenty-six feet deep. Successive enlargements have increased the depth to thirty-six feet and the width to from 213 to 262 feet, permitting the passage of 15,000-ton vessels. The net tonnage of the canal during the first year of its operation was 6,576. When the practicability of the Suez route to India became known the tonnage increased by leaps and bounds till in 1911 it reached 18,324,794, more than 11,000,000 of which was British. In the most recent year for which figures are available, 4,009 vessels passed through the Canal, with net tonnage of 17,574,657. Of these, 2,359, with net tonnage of 10,838,842, were British and 152, with net tonnage of 723,716, were American. The transit receipts were 151,867,825 francs.

Suffrage.—The privilege of participating in the government of a state or nation by voting at an election of officers or on a change in the fundamental law. Suffrage under the Constitution of the United States is exercised by such electors in each state as have the qualifications necessary for elector of the most numerous branch of the state legislature (15). The Constitution does not guarantee the suffrage to any citizen, but by the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments the states are forbidden to abridge the privileges or immunities of United States citizens or to deny or abridge the right of suffrage on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. The age of twenty-one is universally fixed upon as that when suffrage may be exercised.

In some states ability to read and write is required, in some a small property qualification or tax is imposed, while in others aliens who have declared their intention to become citizens are allowed to vote. Until the present century suffrage was greatly restricted in America. Massachusetts and New Haven Colonies for a long time allowed none but church members to vote. There have been periods in the history of nearly all the Colonies when only freeholders were allowed to vote. When the states in the Federal Union first framed their constitutions some of them retained the church-membership qualification, while others permitted suffrage to freeholders only. In 1798 Georgia abolished the property qualification, and was followed by Maryland in 1801, Massachusetts and New York in 1821, Delaware in 1831, New Jersey in 1844, Connecticut in 1845, Virginia in 1850, North Carolina in 1854, South Carolina in 1865, and Rhode Island, except in municipal elections, in 1888. The new states have mostly provided for manhood suffrage from the first. Several of the southern states have adopted methods, varying from each other, but all with the single expressed purpose of excluding negroes from the franchise and yet avoiding the constitutional consequences of discriminating "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

For an account of the recent growth and the history of the woman's suffrage movement, see the article Woman Suffrage.

Suffren, The, French seamen on, accidentally killed by salute from the *United States,* 1273.

Sugar.—The term sugar, strictly applied, means cane sugar, which is manufactured from sugar cane, sugar beats, maple sap and sorghum. Up to about 1840 most of the world's sugar was manufactured from sugar cane. This plant appears to have been a native of India and to have been introduced to the rest of the world by way of China. It was introduced into Santo Domingo soon after the discovery of America, and from there spread to Cuba and was carried to Louisiana by the Jesuits in 1751. Manufacture in the United States began in New Orleans in 1794.

Cane sugar was discovered in the beet root by Andreas Sigismund Marggraf of the Berlin Academy of Science in 1747, and its extraction was developed by both French and Germans. Experiments in the culture and manufacture of beet sugar were begun in Philadelphia in 1830 but failed. Successive failures are reported up to 1880, when the industry seems to have been firmly established.

The Census of 1910 reported 233 establishments engaged in the manufacture of sugar, with a capital of $153,167,000, employing 15,658 persons, paying in wages and salaries $9,876,000, converting $247,583,000 worth of raw material into finished products valued at $279,249,000.

Practically all the mills for manufacturing sugar from the cane are in Louisiana. A few small plantation mills outside of that state are not included in the accompanying figures, because they produce chiefly syrup which is consumed in their immediate neighborhoods.

The refining done in this country is primarily of cane sugar. Most of the raw sugar used by the refineries is imported. Accordingly, the refineries are located chiefly where the imports are most accessible—at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, New Orleans, San Francisco.

	Total	Beet Sugar	Cane Sugar	Refining
Number Establishments	307	85	202	20
Persons Engaged	42,156	14,190	7,045	20,921
Capital	$473,242,631	$224,584,679	$55,117,127	$193,540,825
Salaries	11,535,591	4,427,956	1,665,448	5,442,187
Wages	42,627,951	15,908,118	4,009,369	22,710,464
Cost of Materials	793,316,541	87,029,144	44,143,446	662,143,981
Value of Products	937,883,918	149,155,892	57,741,320	730,986,706
Sugar Produced, Value	888,326,173	138,099,693	36,659,085	713,567,395
Short Tons	4,468,860	721,909	225,498	3,521,453

The federal census of manufactures of 1919, published in 1922, gives a survey of the sugar industry in the United States, as summarized in the adjoining tables.

The leading states in the manufacture of beet sugar are Colorado, Michigan, California, Utah and Nebraska. There were 9 establishments with from 250 to 500 wage-earners and 47 with from 100 to 250. There were 58 with annual products valued at over $1,000,000 each. The acreage of beets planted was 602,555 and 5,648,552 short tons of beets were treated. The average percentage of sucrose was 15% and average coefficient of purity was 83.2.

In the cane sugar industry, 3,688,002 short tons of cane were crushed. There were 8 establishments employing over 1,000 wage-earners each and 30 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each.

The following table shows the sugar production of the world for some recent years:

Year Ending June 30	Cane Short Tons	Beet Short Tons	Total Short Tons
1900	3,389,000	6,262,000	9,651,000
1908	7,926,000	7,390,000	15,316,000
1914	11,270,200	9,433,783	20,703,983
1918	14,648,946	4,792,235	19,441,181
1920	13,799,460	3,467,424	17,266,884
1921	13,656,260	4,953,836	18,610,098
1922	14,223,000	(Subject to revision.)	

The Department of Agriculture Year Book published at the end of 1922 gave the following figures for the world's production of sugar, in short tons, for the last year for which statistics were available:—

Country	Cane	Beet
United States	.....	1,090,021
Louisiana	169,127	.....
Texas	6,987	.....
Hawaii	521,759	.....
Porto Rico	489,818	.....
Philippine Islands	608,499	.....
Canada	.....	38,328
Mexico	.....	110,230
British West Indies	188,632	.....
Cuba	4,408,365	.....
Dominican Republic	229,278	.....
Argentina	230,990	.....
Brazil	579,959	.....
British Guiana	106,400	.....
Peru	385.805	.....
British India	2,760,800	.....
Formosa	385,805	.....
Java	1,578,657	.....
Egypt	88,184	.....
Mauritius	285,385	.....
Natal	176,368	.....
Portuguese E. Africa	44,092	.....
Reunion	44,092	.....
Australia	183,926	.....
Fiji	66,138	.....
Europe	6,864	5,333,761

Sugar (see also Beet Sugar):
- Dealers in, licenses for, 8352.
  - Continued, 8868.
  - Terminated, 8875.
- Economy in use of, urged, 8432.
- Equalization Board referred to, 8876.

The trade of the United States in cane sugar in recent years has been as follows:

Fiscal Year	Imports, Lbs.	Exports, Lbs.
1870	1,196,773,569	22,760,904
1890	2,934,011,560	47,495,577
1900	4,018,086,530	26,918,380
1910	4,094,545,936	189,304,952
1915	5,420,981,867	601,103,749
1917	5,329,587,360	1,268,306,254
1919	5,625,061,472	1,065,126,165
1920*	7,550,195,838	1,450,793,630
1921*	6,673,041,867	789,763,707
1922*	8,464,305,446	2,002,038,450

* Preliminary figures, subject to slight revision.

- Manufacture of—
  - Encouragement of, recommended, 4578.
  - From sorghum and sugar cane, discussed, 5383.
- Manufacture of milk, in Switzerland, referred to 4979.
- Placed on free list, discussed, 5626.
- Probable retaliatory action of foreign governments for proposed imposition of duty on, 5910.
- Protest of Germany to discriminating duty on, recommendations regarding, 5957.
- Supervision provided by tariff law for domestic production of, transfer of, to Agricultural Department, recommended, 5554.
- Tariff duties on—
  - Absence of, discussed by President Harrison, Benjamin, 5626.
  - Discriminating, protest of Germany against, discussed, 5957.
  - Effect of, discussed by President Wilson, 8918.
  - Foreign governments' probable retaliation for, discussed, 5910.
- Trust, decision on, discussed, 7451.

Sugar-Beet Culture, 4534, 5554, 6347.

Sugar Bounty:
- Discussed, 5875, 5964.
- Payment of appropriation for, contained in sundry civil bill, referred to, 6095.

Suits Against Government, act regarding bringing of, vetoed, 5682.

Sully's Hill Park. (See Parks, National.)

Sumatra.—A large island forming part of the Dutch East Indies (q. v.). Its area is about 159,750 square miles, with a population officially estimated at slightly more than 5,000,000.

Sumatra, attack on American vessels by pirates on coast of, 1114, 1159.
Instructions to commander of the *Potomac,* regarding, 1138.
Sumter, Fort, Attack on:
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Sumpter, The, arrest of part of crew of at Morocco, referred to, 3345.
Sunday Laws. (See Blue Laws.)
Sunday Observance. (See Sabbath Observance.)
Sunday ("Billy") Revivals. (See Revivals, Religious.)
Super-Government of Nations rejected, 8924, 8947, 9186. (See also League of Nations.)
Superintendent of Finances. (See Finances, Superintendent of.)
Superintendent of Immigration, report of, discussed, 5877.
Superintendent of Life-Saving Service. (See Life-Saving Service.)
Superintendent of Prisons, Justice Department.—This officer has charge of all matters relating to federal prisons and prisoners, wherever stationed, and is president of the boards of parole for them.
Superior, Lake. (See Lake Superior.)
Supervising Architect, Treasury Department.—This officer plans and supervises the construction of all buildings of the United States Government, as well as the repairs therein.
Supervising Architect referred to, 8848.
Supplication and Prayer, Day of, proclaimed, 8377. (See also Fasting and Prayer, Days of.)
Supplies, Public:
Distribution of, referred to, 141.
Officer should be placed in charge of, 141.
Supply and Demand, Law of, breakdown of, 8404.
Suppression of Periodicals in war times discussed, 8358. (See also Espionage Law.)
Supreme Council of Allies:
Commission on costs of armies of occupation in Germany appointed by, 9117.
Decisions of, on disposition of Yap. (See Yap.)
Supreme Court. (See Court, Supreme.)
Supreme Court Justices. (See also Judiciary and Courts):
Salaries of, increase in, 3996.
Should be exempted from other duties, 830.
Supreme Court Reports.—The opinions and decisions of the Supreme Court are recorded in 214 volumes, including the cases decided up to October, 1908. They comprise its work from its first session in 1790 to the present time. They begin with the volume numbered 2 Dallas and include 3 volumes by Dallas, covering the period between 1790 and 1800; 9 volumes by Cranch, 1800 to 1815; Wheaton, 12 volumes, 1816 to 1827; Peters, 16 volumes, 1828 to 1842; Howard, 24 volumes, 1843 to 1860; Black, 2 volumes, 1861 to 1862; Wallace, 23 volumes, 1863 to 1875. Up to that date the reports had reached 89 volumes by the different compilers. Since 1876 the reports have been styled 90 U. S., 91 U. S., etc.; 90 U. S. was reported by Wallace; 91 to 107 U. S. was reported by William J. Otto, from 1875 to 1882; 108 to 186 U. S., between 1882 and 1902, by J. C. Bancroft Davis; from 1902 to 1916, by Charles Henry Butler; and from 1916, by Ernest Knaebel.
Surgeon General. (See Health Service, War Department and Army.)
Surgeon-General of Army:
Building for library of, recommended, 4657, 4833.
Ordered to accompany ex-President Jackson home, 1540.
Surinam. (See Dutch Guiana.)
Surplus Revenue, Distribution of.—In his annual message of Dec. 1, 1834 (page 1316), President Jackson announced the extinguishment of the public debt. The compromise tariff measure of 1832, while it made some reduction in the revenue derived from import duties, produced a surplus in the Treasury. Jackson advocated the distribution of this surplus among the states rather than the appropriation of it to other purposes. A bill providing for such disposition of the surplus was attached to the bill regulating public deposits and passed by Congress in 1836. Under this law all the money in excess of $5,000,000 in the Treasury, Jan. 1, 1837, was to be deposited with the states in proportion to their representation in the electoral college, and in four installments. The states were required to give certificates of deposit payable to the Secretary of the Treasury on demand. None of the banks selected by the Government as the custodians of public funds was under any kind of official supervision by the states which chartered them or by the General Government. The sum to be divided was $37,468,859. Three installments of the money were paid to all the states except the few that had refused to accept it on the conditions imposed. The return of these loans of the states has never been demanded.
Surplus Revenue in Treasury. (See Treasury.)
Surtax.—A tax over and above a previous tax already levied against persons or articles of the same class. (See Income Tax.)
Surveyors, Public, punishment of persons interrupting in performance of the trusts confided to them, referred to and recommendation for penalty for the same, 1042.
Surveys and Maps, Board of, constituted and powers outlined, 8820.
Surveys, control and supervision of geographical and geological, discussed, 4218. (See also the several surveys.)

Susan B. Anthony Amendment.—The amendment to the United States Constitution providing for equal suffrage for men and women, named after the pioneer leader of the Woman Suffrage movement in the United States.

Susan Loud, The, seizure of, by Spanish or Cuban authorities referred to, 2679.

Claims arising out of, referred to, 2721, 2900.

Suspension Bridge, N. Y., proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2859.

Susquehanna, The, repair of, referred to, 2764.

Susquehanna Company.—An organization, composed mostly of Connecticut farmers, formed in 1754 for the purpose of colonizing the Wyoming country. This was the name given to a strip of land bought by Connecticut from the Plymouth Company in 1631. Under the charter granted by James I. to the Plymouth Company in 1620, their territory extended from the Atlantic to the Pacific and from lat. 40° to 46° north. The grant of Charles II. to William Penn extended to 42° north, thus overlapping the Plymouth grant to more than the extent of the territory sold to Connecticut, which extended to 41° south. In 1754 the Susquehanna Company made a treaty with the Six Nations of Indians, securing the right to settlement upon their purchase. Charles II. confirmed the sale to Connecticut, and Pennsylvania, though disputing the sale, made no effort to prevent a settlement. The first settlers in the disputed territory were driven off by the Indians in 1763. In 1769 some forty more settlers arrived in the Wyoming region and were arrested by Pennsylvania officials. For the next six years a sort of civil warfare was kept up between the settlers of the disputed tract, and only suspended during the Revolution, after which the dispute was arranged between the states and the titles to the land confirmed. (See also Wyoming Controversy.)

Susquehanna, or Conestoga Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

"Sussex," Sinking of—

Note to Germany concerning, 8125.

Reply of Germany to, 8127.

Sutro Tunnel, referred to, 4148.

Swamp Lands. (See Lands, Swamp.)

Swanton, Vt., proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2859.

Sweden.—Sweden occupies the eastern and greater portion of the Scandinavian peninsula of northern Europe, and lies between 69° 3′ 21″-55° 20′ 18″ N. latitude and 11° 6′ 19″-24° 9′ 11″ E. longitude, with an extreme length of close on 1,000 English miles and a greatest breadth of about 250 English miles. The kingdom is bounded on the northeast by the Grand Duchy of Finland, on the east by the Gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic Sea, on the southwest by the Cattegat and Skagerrack, and on the west by the Kingdom of Norway. The coast is fringed with an island fence (skargard), the largest islands of the west coast being Orust and Tjörn, while Oland (519 square miles) and Gotland (1,220 square miles) lie off the southeast coast, in the Baltic Sea.

Physical Features.—The main Scandinavian range, known as the Kölen (keel), forms a natural boundary between Sweden and Norway from the northwestern boundary to the center of the kingdom, the greatest elevations being in the extreme north. Central Sweden consists principally of fertile and wooded plains, and includes the four great lakes of Hjälmaren, Mälaren, Vänern and Vättern. In the extreme south are the plains of Skane, consisting of rich meadow land and occasional woods of beech.

The principal rivers of the north are the Torne, Kalix, Stora and Lilla Lule (on which is the famous cataract, the Harsprang), the Pite, Skellefte, Ume and Vindel, Angerman, Indal and Ljusnan. In the southern portion are the Dal and Klar, while the short Göta contains the celebrated falls of Trollhättan. The surface of the lakes and rivers of Sweden occupies about one-twelfth of the total area of the Kingdom.

About one-seventh of the Kingdom lies within the Arctic Circle, but the country receives a large measure of protection from the western mountain barrier, and the peninsula, as a whole, is warmed by the Atlantic Drift. Compensation for the shortness of the northern summer is afforded by atmospheric refraction, which increases the time of sunshine and light, but from October or November to May or June navigation is impeded, and from December to April the coasts are ice-bound.

History.—In 1319 the Kingdoms of Sweden and Norway were united under one sovereign, but in 1397 the League of Kalmar formed tripartite kingdom under the hegemony of Denmark. Sweden broke from the League in 1523, and in 1814 the crown of Norway was ceded by Denmark to Sweden. In 1905 the King of Sweden renounced the crown of Norway.

Government.—The Government is that of a limited monarchy, hereditary in the male line (by primogeniture) of the House of Bernadotte, Prince of Ponte Corvo, who was elected to the succession by the Riksdag on Aug. 21, 1810, and ascended the throne on Feb. 5, 1818. The constitution rests upon the fundamental law of June 6, 1809, which declares the king to be irresponsible, invests in him the executive authority, and confers initiation and veto of legislation.

The Riksdag consists of two elective Chambers, of which the First Chamber contains 150 members elected by the Landsting, or Councils of the Län (prefectures), on a population basis, and with eligibility confined to those of Swedish birth, aged thirty-five years, who possess real property valued at 50,000 kronor, or annual taxed incomes exceeding 3,000 kronor. The Second Chamber consists of 230 members, and are elected for a maximum of three years by universal suffrage, electors being registered at the age of 24. The elections for the Second Chamber are by a proportional method.

The King exercises his executive power through a Council of State consisting of a prime minister and ten other ministers. In legislation, the King exercises his power in conjunction with the Riksdag, and his assent is required for new legislation; but the sole right of taxation adheres in the Riksdag. All members of the Council of State are responsible for the acts of the Government, which thus is a responsible and representative one.

The local units of administration have local self-government, although the twenty-four governments into which the country is divided (along with the city of Stockholm) are administered by prefects nominated by the King.

Justice.—The administration of justice is independent of the Government, lying in the hands of the chancellor of justice and the attorney-general, the former appointed by the king and the latter by the Riksdag. The kingdom is divided into 214 district court districts, 91 urban and 123 rural. In the urban districts, the courts are held by the burgomaster and his assessors; in the rural, by a judge and twelve peasant proprietors acting as jurors. However, the judge alone decides, unless the jury unanimously disagrees with him, in which case the jury's decision stands. Ordinary trial by jury exists only for actions regarding the press.

Population.—The country is divided into twenty-five prefectures, having a total area of 169,532 square miles. The Swedish people are Scandinavians, but the population includes, in the north, about 25,000 Finns and 7,000 Lapps. More than 99 per cent of the people belong to the Swedish Lutheran Church.

The most recent figures for the population placed it at 5,813,850. There is a slight preponderance of females. The principal towns are the capital, Stockholm, 408,456; Göteburg, 197,421; Malmö, 110,459.

Education.—Primary education is compulsory and free, and is maintained by local taxation with State grants. Illiteracy is very rare, and good attendances at the schools are secured. Most recent educational statistics show 77 public secondary schools, with 26,313 pupils; 49 people's high schools, with 2,976 pupils; 9 technical schools, with 3,900 pupils; and 16,821 public elementary schools, with 23,657 teachers and 708,075 pupils.

Finance.—The most recent figures for the budget show revenue of $540,000,000 and expenditures of $470,000,000. After the close of the World War, it was hoped to lower these figures materially. The total value of land and house property in Sweden is estimated at $3,500,000,000, of which taxed agricultural land is represented by about $1,450,000,000 and taxed other real estate by about $1,720,000,000. The total public debt is in the neighborhood of $295,000,000. The unit of value is the krona, equal to about $0.27 in United States money in normal exchange.

Production and Industry.—The common cereals and potatoes and fruits are grown and the live stock includes horses, cattle, sheep, pigs, reindeer, goats and fowls. The forests cover more than half the area of the kingdom, and consist of pine, birch and fir, producing timber, wood pulp, pitch, tar and fuel. The number of farms cultivated is 447,695. Of the total land area of Sweden, about 9% is under cultivation, 3½% under natural meadows, and 55% under forests.

The acreage and production of the last annual agricultural crop were as follows:

Crop	Acreage (Hectares)	Production (Tons)
Hay and fodder plants	1,342,878	4,300,969
Sugar-beet and fodder roots	127,650	3,838,372
Potatoes	168,689	2,111,213
Oats	712,372	1,111,730
Rye	372,068	586,089
Mixed corn	260,782	475,749
Barley	166,672	280,678
Wheat	140,913	258,792

The value of the total crop was put at $535,000,000. The farm animals include 715,681 horses; 2,550,818 cattle; 1,563,654 sheep and lambs; and 716,783 pigs.

The kingdom is rich in minerals, including iron of excellent quality (Dannemora iron being converted into the finest steel); gold and silver in small quantities; copper, lead, nickel, zinc, cobalt, alum, sulphur, porphyry and marble. In a recent year, the mineral production included 6,623,661 tons of iron ore; 761,822 tons of pig iron; 3,170 tons of silver and lead ore; 21,410 tons of copper ore; 48,500 tons of zinc ore; 16,570 tons of manganese ore; 141,180 tons of sulphur pyrites; 404,500 tons of coal. The gold produced amounted to 15 kilograms; the silver to 980; the lead to 2,241,000; the copper to 2,955,730; the zinc to 4,098,150. Most of the iron ore is exported. There are about 48,000 persons engaged in mining.

Industries are many, varied and important. Of especial importance are those concerned with timber and wood-work, with public forests of more than 8,000,000 hectares, yielding annually about 4,850,000 cubic metres of timber. There are 1,400 sawmills, with 45,000 workpeople and an annual product valued at about $95,000,000; more than 500 factories for furniture, etc., with more than 12,000 workpeople and an annual product of about $15,000,000; 115 woodpulp factories, with more than 14,000 workpeople and with an annual output valued at about $60,000,000; and 75 paper and pasteboard mills, with 12,000 workpeople and an annual output of almost $50,000,000.

The number of workpeople and value of output of some of the other industries are as follows: Iron and steel, 24,000, $130,000,000; mechanical workshops, 57,750, $130,000,000; iron and steel goods factories, 16,300, $50,000,000; flour and grain mills, 2,750, $35,000,000; spinning and weaving, 23,000, $55,000,000; shoe factories, 8,000, $30,000,000; factories of metals other than iron, 6,350, $25,000,000; dairies, 4,285, $25,000,000.

In a recent year there were employed in factories and workshops 295,600 men, 55,700 women and 50,000 boys and girls under 18.

Commerce.—In a recent year, the imports were valued at $200,000,000 and the exports at $380,000,000. The chief exports are wood pulp, paper and paper manufactures; metal goods, machinery, etc.; metals, raw and partly wrought; timber. The chief imports are minerals, chiefly coal; metal goods, machinery, etc., followed by textiles and animals and animal food.

The imports come chiefly from Germany, followed by Denmark, the United States and Great Britain; the exports go chiefly to Germany and Great Britain, followed by Norway, Russia and Denmark. In a recent year, the United States exported to Sweden goods valued at $114,780,361; and imported from Sweden goods valued at $31,612,153.

In the last year for which figures are available, the most important products exported by the United States to Sweden, in order of value, were as follows: Meat products; cotton; mineral and vegetable oils; copper, refined; dried fruits; leather; tobacco; machinery and other iron and steel goods.

The Swedish merchant marine comprises 2,544 vessels, of 1,057,700 tons, of which 1,240 vessels, of 911,660 tons, are steam and motor vessels. In a recent year, there entered and cleared from Swedish ports

more than 22,000 vessels, representing a tonnage of more than 9,000,000. Slightly less than one-half the tonnage was Swedish.

Communications.—There are about 9,400 miles of railroad, of which more than one-third belong to the State. There are 47,000 miles of telegraph, about one-half of which belongs to the railroads. The wires of the State telephone have a length of about 385,000 miles. There are almost 3,500 telegraph offices.

Sweden and Norway (see also Bergen):
Claims of, against United States, referred to, 1172.
Claims of United States against, 867, 1109.
Payment of, 867, 1112.
Commercial relations with, 820.
Consul of, to United States, exequatur to, revoked, 3626.
Revocation annulled, 3630.
Copyright reciprocity proclaimed with, 8827.
Ericsson, John, restoration of remains of, to Sweden discussed, 5547.
Famine in, referred to, 3799.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 3114, 5871.
Gothenburg system of regulating liquor traffic in, report on, transmitted, 5785.
Interference with the vessels of the United States. (See *Admiral P. Tordenskiold*, The.)
Minister of United States to—
Nomination of, 318.
Transfer of, to Bogota, referred to, 3665.
Missionaries of Sweden, murder of, in China discussed, 5868.
Naturalization treaty with, 4033, 4142.
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Discriminating duties on suspended by proclamation, 665.
Interfered with by United States. (See *Admiral P. Tordenskiold*, The.)
Reciprocal rights for, requested, 671, 707.
Vessels of United States seized or interfered with by. (See Claims against.)
Vice-Consul of, to United States, exequatur of, revoked, 3627.
Revocation annulled, 3630.

Sweden and Norway, Treaties with.—The treaty of amity and commerce of 1783 expired in 1796 by its own limitations. Some of its sections were revived by the treaty of 1816, which, in turn, expired by its own limitations in 1826, and was replaced by the treaty of commerce and navigation of 1827. By it freedom of commerce and trade was accorded to both nations, and for the ships of the island of St. Bartholomew, which was included. Equable imposition of charges, tolls, dues, and imposts was secured for the vessels of both nations; imports were to be taxed without regard to the nationality of the carrying vessel; and the coastwise trade was excluded from the terms of the treaty.

The consular office was created and provided for as in consular conventions. Humane provisions were made for the relief of the shipwrecked and for ships in distress. A naturalization convention was concluded in 1869. Upon the dissolution of the union of Norway and Sweden, the Swedish government agreed to continue in force and abide by all treaties with the United States. (For the extradition terms of the treaty of 1893, see Extradition Treaties.)

Swift & Co., vessels purchased for Peru by, from United States detained, 3831.
Swin-á-mish Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)
Swine Products. (See Animals and Animal Products.)
Swiss Confederation. (See Switzerland.)

Swiss System of Military Training.—During the agitation in the United States for universal military training, arising as a result of the European War, much interest was manifested in the system of military training as practised in Switzerland. Switzerland has no standing army, but military training is compulsory upon every citizen. (Switzerland, having no seacoast, has naturally no navy.) Switzerland, of about the same size and population as the State of Massachusetts, by virtue of its present system, completed in the year 1907, can muster almost immediately upon call a half million trained soldiers, with a larger number in reserve.

The Swiss boy begins his training for future service at the age of 8, when he begins a carefully-planned system of gymnastics. At the age of 11, he joins a cadet corps, in which membership is voluntary, but well-nigh universal. In the cadet corps, he receives his first practice in the "setting-up" exercises, and is put through simple drills. Each corps has a uniform of its own design, although the design is usually the same in each particular locality; and the state furnishes assistance only in the shape of the rifle and the ammunition used by the corps. From the age of 16-20, the Swiss youth is a member of a voluntary preparatory military organization, like the cadet corps, except for the fact that the rifle used is the standard army musket and the marksmanship practice becomes serious.

It is at the age of 20 that the Swiss youth enters upon compulsory military service. First, he must pass a physical and literary examination, and if he is rejected as unfit for service, he becomes liable to a rather severe special military tax. He receives his instruction at a field camp something like our own Plattsburg (q. v.), where the recruits are subdivided into the various

branches of the service for which they are best qualified. This preliminary training lasts for a period of between 60 and 75 days, according to the branch of service, and during that time the recruit receives all his expenses and a pay of ten cents a day. Until the age of 32, these men are called together for sixteen days' additional training every year or two years, according to the branch of the service for which they have been trained. Between the ages of 32 and 40, the Swiss is a member of the Landwehr, or First Reserve, and after that of the Landsturm, or last reserve. Appointment as officers is open to men in the ranks. (See Compulsory Military Service; Australian System of Military Training; Preparedness.)

Switzerland.—The Federated Cantons of Switzerland lie in Central Europe between 45° 49′ 2″-47° 48′ 32″ N. latitude and 5° 57′ 26″-10° 29′ 40″ E. longitude, and are bounded on the north by the German Republic, on the east by Austria and Liechtenstein, on the south by Italy, and on the west by the French Republic. The area is given as 15,967 square miles.

Physical Features.—Switzerland is the most mountainous country in Europe, having the Alps, covered with perennial snow and glaciers, and rising from 5,000 to 15,217 feet above the level of the sea, along the southern and eastern frontiers, and throughout the chief part of the interior, and the Jura Mountains in the northwest. The main chain of the Alps occupies the whole of southern Switzerland, the highest peaks being the Dufourspitze of Monte Rosa (15,217 feet), the Don of the Mischabel range (14,942 feet), and the Finsteraarhorn of Bernese Oberland (14,026 feet). The highest summit of Europe (Mont Blanc, 15,782 feet) is in the Pennine Alps, across the French frontier. The Jura Mountains rise between the valleys of the Rhine and Rhone and form a natural barrier between France and Switzerland, the highest peaks being Mont Tendre (5,512 feet) and the Dôle (5,505 feet); while the highest peak of the range, Crêt de la Neige (5,653 feet), like that of the Alps, is in French territory.

Three great rivers rise in the mountains of Switzerland, the Rhone, Rhine, and Aar, while the Thur is a Swiss tributary of the Rhine. The Lakes of Switzerland include Geneva (225 square miles) in the southwest, and Constance (208 square miles) in the northeast, neither of which is wholly Swiss; while Neuchâtel (93 square miles) is entirely within Swiss territory; Maggiore is partly Italian; Lucerne and Zurich are entirely Swiss; Lugano is mainly Swiss; Thun and Bienne lie wholly within the Canton of Berne; Zug lies in three of the northern cantons; Brienz, in the Canton of Berne; Morat lies in the Cantons of Fribourg and Vaud; Wallensee is in St. Gall and Glarus; and Sempach in the Canton of Lucerne.

History.—The Swiss Confederation is a collection of free States drawn together for mutual protection and for the preservation of their independence. The States so combined were at one time part of Germany, Italy or Burgundy, and have been in alliance since the thirteenth century; and to that alliance other States have been attracted. In 1291 the league consisted of the present Cantons of Schwyz, Uri and Unterwalden, to which five others were joined between 1332 and 1353. To these eight Cantons five more were added from 1481-1513, six in 1803, and three in 1815, in which year the perpetual neutrality and inviolability of Switzerland were guaranteed by Austria-Hungary, the United Kingdom, Portugal, Prussia and Russia, and a Federal Pact was drawn up at Zurich and confirmed by the Congress of Vienna. This Pact formed the basis of the Federal Constitution until 1848, when a new constitution was adopted by a majority of the Swiss people, and of the Cantons and demi-Cantons, and in the same manner, on May 29, 1874, the present constitution was ratified, since which date there have been a number of revisions of it. Switzerland remained neutral during the World War.

Ethnography.—The latest estimate of the population places it at 3,937,000. In the 1910 census, it was 3,741,971. In 19 of the 25 cantons, German is the prevailing language, French in 5, and Italian in 1. In 1910, there were 2,595,000 Swiss speaking German, 795 speaking French, 300,000 speaking Italian, 40,000 speaking Romansch, and 23,000 other languages. In 1910, there were some 550,000 foreigners resident in Switzerland, chiefly Germans and Italians.

The chief towns, with the latest estimates of their population, are as follows: Zürich, 212,000; Basle, 135,000; Geneva, 141,000; Bern, 112,000; Lausanne, 70,000; St. Gallen, 70,000.

There is complete freedom of religion, the last census showing about 60% Protestants and 40% Catholics.

Education.—There is no federal educational system, the schooling lying in the hands of the cantons and the communes. There is practically no illiteracy, and schooling is free and general. Latest educational statistics show 525 kindergartens; 4,230 primary schools, with 13,115 teachers and 557,300 pupils; 532 secondary schools, with 50,000 pupils and 1,875 teachers; 128 middle schools, with 26,000 pupils and 1,540 teachers. There are also technical, professional and special schools, and seven universities. There are some 6,000 libraries, with almost 10,000,000 volumes.

Government.—The central government is supreme in those activities usually pertaining to the federal government. The supreme legislative and executive authority is vested in the parliament, called the Bundesversammlung or Assemblée federale. It consists of two chambers. The first, or State Council, is composed of 44 members, two for each canton, chosen and paid by each canton as the latter sees fit. The National Council consists of 189 representatives, one for each 20,000 of population.

A general election takes place every three years. There are generous provisions for the use of the initiative and referendum. The chief executive authority rests in the Federal Council of seven, elected for three years by the Parliament. The President and Vice-President are the head magistrates of the nation; they are elected for one year by the Parliament in joint session. They are ineligible to hold office for two successive terms; the vice-president, however, is usually chosen to succeed the President.

Aside from the regulations imposed by the federal constitution, each of the cantons is sovereign, and governs itself by measures and methods which vary among the cantons. There is much local direct government.

Finance.—In recent years, the annual federal expenditure has been from $55,000,000 to $75,000,000 annually. The public debt, exclusive of the railroad debt, amounts to about $275,000,000, in addition to a floating debt of about $70,000,000. The

unit of currency is the franc, divided into 10 Batzen and 100 Centimes or Rappen. The net proceeds of the federal alcohol monopoly is divided among the cantons, who must expend one-tenth of it in fighting the causes and effects of alcoholism. The tax for exemption from military service is levied through the cantons, and one-half of it goes to them, the other half to the federal government.

For the Swiss System of Military Training, see under that head.

Commerce.—For the first year after the end of the hostilities of the World War, the special trade, including precious metals, amounted to $670,000,000 in imports and $590,000,000 in exports. In order of value, the chief imports were cereals, cotton goods, mineral substances, colonial produce, silk goods, followed by animal food substances, woolen goods and chemicals. The chief exports were cotton goods and silk goods, followed by clocks, machinery, clothing, colonial produce and timber.

Remembering that much of the trade with frontier countries is really transit trade, the imports came chiefly from Germany, followed by the United States, France, United Kingdom and Italy. The exports went chiefly to Germany and France, followed by United Kingdom and Italy. In a recent year, the United States exported to Switzerland goods valued at $44,909,719, and imported from Switzerland goods valued at $54,556,098.

In the last year for which figures are available, the most important products exported from the United States to Switzerland, in order of value, were as follows: Wheat; lard; other breadstuffs; cotton; machinery and other iron and steel goods; copper; tobacco.

Production and Industry.—The soil of Switzerland is very equitably divided among the population, there being almost 300,000 peasant proprietors. Of the total area, 28½% is unproductive; of the productive area, 36% is under grasses and meadows, 29% under forests, 19% under fruit and 16½% under crops and gardens. Most of the food used in the country is imported, but the chief crops, with their acreage and yield in a recent year, are as follows:

Crop	*Acres*	*Tons*
Wheat	130,223	105,900
Rye	54,513	41,500
Oats	57,014	42,000
Potatoes	.....	828,000

In five of the cantons, wine is produced and tobacco in three. The last census showed the following animals in Switzerland: Horses, 123,762; mules and donkeys, 4,209; oxen, 1,432,491; cows, 738,169; sheep, 263,729; pigs, 464,402; goats, 349,794. As will be seen, cattle-raising is most important.

The chief agricultural industries are those of cheese and condensed milk manufacture. The forest area covers 3,290 square miles; less than one-third of it belongs to private owners.

Although chiefly an agricultural and pastoral country, there is much manufacturing in Switzerland. There are more than 9,000 factories, and they employ some 380,000 workers. Clock-making is particularly important, and in a recent year more than 15,000,000 clocks were exported. Salt is the only mineral mined extensively, and about 800,000 quintals are produced annually. Brewing and embroidery are other important branches of industry.

Communications.—The State railways have a length of approximately 3,700 miles. There are some 4,000 post-offices, and an extensive telegraph system, comprising 2,410 offices, 1,790 miles of line and more than 19,000 miles of wire. There are 800 telephone systems, with 12,300 miles of line and 250,000 miles of wire.

Switzerland (see also Berne):
American citizens of Hebrew persuasion in, discriminated against 3123.
Claims of, against United States, 5199.
Consul of United States in, charges against character of, refuted, 3718.
Consuls of United States requested by, to protect citizens of, in countries where it is not represented, 4627.
Convention with, 1406, 2356, 2414, 2634, 2723.
Discussed, 2634, 2723.
Copyright privilege extended by proclamation, 5582.
Referred to, 5625.
Floods in, referred to, 3885.
Fruits, American, restrictions upon importation of, into, discussed, 6331.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 2356.
Immigration questions with, 4520, 4627, 4715.
Milk sugar manufactured in, referred to, 4979.
Minister of, to United States, elevated to plenipotentiary mission, 4718.
Naturalization question with, 4715, 6337.
Postal convention with, 3775, 3883, 4250.
President of, member of claims commission between United States and Chile, 5867.
Proposition of, to extend Red Cross compact in Spanish-American War discussed, 6336.
Treaty with—
To be negotiated, 4759.
Transmitted, 2356.

Switzerland, Treaties with.—The convention of friendship, commerce, and extradition of 1850 ran until 1899, when notice was given of intention to terminate some of its provisions. Others were terminated by the treaty of 1900. Those which persist provide for personal and property privileges of the citizens of the one country residing and trading in the country of the other, with all of the rights, privileges, and immunities of the citizens of the country. Freedom of conscience is granted to all; the right to hold, possess, acquire, and to alienate property, immunity from military service, and enforced military contributions, and free and open access to courts of justice are secured.

The taxes upon citizens shall be equitable. Passports shall be supplied in order to establish the character and the citizenship of persons traveling between the two republics. The disposal, acquisition, and inheritance of property shall be free, easy, and unhindered. When an heir to property is disqualified from holding it by reason of his alienage, the heir or other successor shall be granted the time permitted by the canton in which the property is situated to dispose of the same. Consuls shall be appointed under conditions common to consular conventions. (For terms of the extradition treaty of 1900, see Extradition Treaties.)

Arbitration of international differences on the lines laid down by The Hague Convention of 1899 was agreed to by treaty signed at Washington, Feb. 29, 1908.

Sydney, New South Wales, international exhibition in, discussed, 4519, 4559, 4625.

Syndicalism.—Although Syndicalism has many features in common with trade unionism and with Socialism, its distinct origin in recent years lies with the French thinker, Georges Sorel. As a matter of fact, the term is derived from the French word for trade union, "syndicat."

The American Syndicalists are the Industrial Workers of the World (q.v.).

The philosophy of syndicalism distrusts the abolition of the capitalist system by legislation, and bases its hope upon the workers seizing control of industry by direct action. Industry accordingly would be directed by the workers in it, and the activities of the state, as a political organization, would disappear. The general strike of all workers is the means usually proclaimed as the means to gain control over all industry. For the I. W. W. believe that the lot of a worker in one industry cannot be differentiated from the lot of a worker in another industry, and hence insist upon the formation of all workers into one big industrial union, acting homogeneously, instead of into separate craft unions, acting independently, as in the American Federation of Labor. Society at present being a class struggle, the I. W. W. endorse sabotage, or the limitation of output and the destruction of property, if necessary, in the fight against the employing class.

Although syndicalism has had its ups and downs in the United States, there were in France, prior to the war, about 600,000 syndicalists; and the movement was also especially strong among the agricultural classes of Italy.

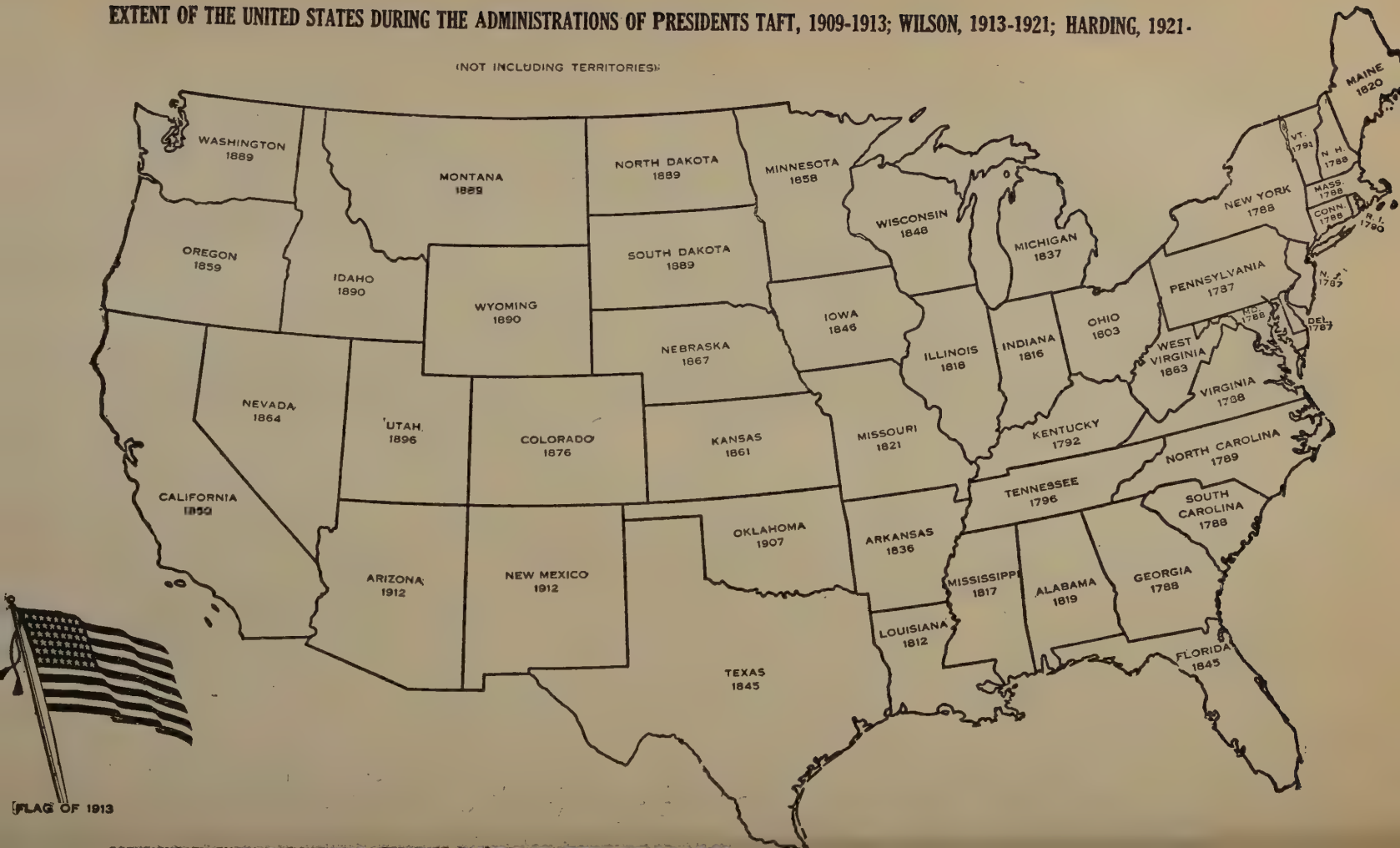
Syria.—The country extending from the eastern shores of the Mediterranean to Arabia. It was under Turkish rule until the close of the World War. The Peace Treaty with Turkey provided that Palestine, comprising the southern portion of Turkey, should be a national home for the Jewish people, with Great Britain as the mandatory Power. The remainder of Syria was given to France as a mandatory Power. Native and Turkish resistance to the occupancy of the country by France made the exact boundaries of Syria uncertain, but it is probable that its area will ultimately comprise about 100,000 square miles, with a population of some 3,000,000. The principal towns are Damascus, 250,000; Aleppo, 250,000; Beirut, 150,000. The inhabitants are Semites of the Mohammedan faith. The principal agricultural products are wheat, barley, maize, linseed, beans, vines and olives.

Syria:

Disposition of, discussed, 8841.
Relief asked for, 8381, 8636.

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATIONS OF PRESIDENTS TAFT, 1909-1913; WILSON, 1913-1921; HARDING, 1921-

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)



FLAG OF 1913

Tacoma, Wash., act granting use of lands to, for purpose of public park, vetoed, 5282.

Tacubaya, American ministers assemble in, 935. (See also Panama, Isthmus of.)
Congress indefinitely postponed, 951.
Instructions to, referred to, 997.

Taft, William H.—1909-1913.

Thirty-first Administration—Republican.

Vice-President—James S. Sherman.

Secretary of State—
Philander C. Knox.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Franklin MacVeagh.

Secretary of War—
Jacob M. Dickinson.
Henry L. Stimson.

Attorney-General—
George W. Wickersham.

Postmaster-General—
Frank H. Hitchcock.

Secretary of the Navy—
George von Lengerke Meyer.

Secretary of the Interior—
Richard A. Ballinger.
Walter L. Fisher.

Secretary of Agriculture—
James Wilson.

Secretary of Commerce and Labor—
Charles Nagel.

Platform.—The platform of the Republican party in the Presidential campaign of 1908 on which Judge Taft based his candidacy declared for a downward revision of the Dingley Tariff Law; for statutory reform in injunction procedure so as to provide notice before the issuance of the writ; for Federal incorporation of interstate commerce corporations; for postal savings banks; for the settling of constitutional questions regarding the income tax; for the encouragement by mail subsidies of Pacific and South American lines; for the regulation of railroad stock and bond issues by the Interstate Commerce Commission, and the incidental physical valuation of railroads; for the legalizing of rate agreements when sanctioned by the Commission; for the reorganization of certain Bureaus so as to facilitate the execution of the Interstate Commerce and Anti-trust Laws; and for the continuance of the Roosevelt policies regarding the conservation of our natural resources. Summarizing his purposes, Judge Taft said: "The practical, constructive and difficult work, therefore, of those who follow Mr. Roosevelt is to devise the ways and means by which the high level of business integrity and obedience to law which he has established may be maintained and departures from it restrained without undue interferences with legitimate business."

Tariff Revision.—The first work to which the new administration addressed itself was tariff revision. Until Aug. 5, 1909, Congress in special session wrestled with its intricacies. The Payne-Aldrich Bill, passed on that date, was a downward revision, though in the President's estimation not sufficiently downward, and by its creation of a Court of Customs appeals and a Tariff Board was a distinctively progressive measure. The provision for an income tax on corporations with its incidental assurance of control and surveillance was the answer to the President's message of June 16, 1909 (page 7389). The attacks on the measure drew from the President his speech at Winona, Minn. (page 7393), the most careful and thorough discussion of the subject which has appeared. (See Tariff; Income Tax.)

Postal Savings Bank.—The Postal Savings Banks were established, one in each of the forty-eight States, on Jan. 1, 1911, under the law passed June 25, 1910. The success of the plan induced the Postmaster-General to recommend extending the system to five hundred localities. (See Postal Savings Banks.)

Reform in Injunction Procedure.—The President urged upon Congress in his Inaugural Address and in his First and Second Annual Messages the passage of a law which would forbid the issuing of an injunction by any Federal Court without previous notice and hearing of the parties to be enjoined, unless in the Court's discretion the requisite delay would result in irreparable injury to the complainant (pp. 7378, 7431, 7524). (See Injunctions; Boycott.)

Federal Incorporation.—In his Message on the anti-trust law (page 7449), the President discussed the causes of the tendency of modern business to amass in ever-growing units, analyzed the beneficial and baneful effects of such amalgamation, defined direct and indirect restraint of trade, outlined the true intent and scope of the Sherman law as affecting monopolistic combinations, but not those actuated merely by desire to reduce production cost, condemned the Knight Sugar Trust decision, argued against amending the law, mentioned the inquiry into companies suspected of violations of the law which was contemplated by the Department of Justice if funds became available, and recommended the enactment of a law which would provide Federal charters for interstate commerce corporations and assure governmental supervision and control. (See Interstate Commerce.)

The Income Tax.—On the question of the income tax the President in his Message of June 16, 1909 (page 7389), recommended that, though he was convinced of the constitutionality of such a tax, it would be wiser not to contradict the Supreme Court by reenacting a law which in the Pollock case it had declared unconstitutional, but by a two-thirds vote to submit to the States an amendment to the organic law expressly conferring the requisite power. (See Amendments; Income Tax and Income Tax Cases.)

Interstate Commerce Law.—To make the Interstate Commerce Law a "complete and effective measure for securing reasonableness of rates and fairness of practices in the operation of interstate railroads, without undue preference to any individual or class over any others," adequate to "prevent the recurrence of many of the practices which have given rise in the past to so much public inconvenience and loss," the President on Jan. 7, 1910 (page 7441), sent to Congress a special message in which he recommended the creation of a new Court, to be called the United States Court of Commerce and to have jurisdiction over proceedings brought by carriers to nullify orders of the Interstate Commerce Commission. The President pointed out that carriers by injunctions could and did suspend the commission's orders for months and even years, and that few orders of any consequence escaped such tactics. By means of the new Court such proceedings could be promptly and consistently disposed of by Judges deeply versed in the intricacies of the subject. Its decisions were to be final excepting review by the Supreme Court, and even if it appealed from the order could not be stayed except by the Supreme Court. The President recommend-

ed that the Commission be empowered to commence proceedings on its own initiative; that the law be amended so as to permit the changing of rates only after submission of the schedule to the Commission, in order that, if unsatisfactory, the proposed change might be stayed pending investigation; that its duties be confined to quasi-judicial functions, utilizing the Department of Justice to prosecute and defend suits under the law. By an act passed June 18, 1910, Congress put on the statute books the recommendations above summarized, but rejected two other suggestions of the President, first, that the issue of railroad securities be made subject to the Commission, and second, that rate agreements under certain circumstances be permitted. (See Interstate Commerce; Common Carriers.)

Conservation.—In the President's speech at St. Paul, Minn. (page 7555), he took the high ground that, as the successor to Theodore Roosevelt, he could not be other than an earnest advocate of every measure calculated "to prevent the continuance of the waste which has characterized our phenomenal growth in the past." But "conservation is national. It affects every man of us, every woman, every child. What I can do in the cause I shall do, not as President of a party, but as President of the whole people. Conservation is not a question of politics, or of factions, or of persons. It is a question that affects the vital welfare of all of us, of our children and our children's children." The President's conservation address, like his tariff speech, is replete with definite and detailed recommendations showing a minute study of the subject. The agricultural and mineral land laws should be left unchanged; the funds available for reclamation should be concentrated on selected projects, $20,000,000 in bonds having been authorized for engineering purposes; the states severally must control the handling of the seventy-five per cent of existing forests which is privately owned; withdrawals had been legalized by a definite statute; oil, gas and phosphate lands, and the coal fields of Alaska should be conserved by a leasing system; and water-power sites should be conserved by leasing the Federal Government's riparian rights to users or transferring such rights to the states so as to complete their title to and control of both stream and site. (See Lands, Public; Conservation Commission.)

Ship Subsidy.—In President Taft's Inaugural and two Annual Messages he discussed the question of subsidizing steamship lines to South America under conditions assuring publicity by giving to them the profit on mail carried by them, urging that if action were not immediately taken we would be the only nation unable to avail ourselves of the Panama Canal when completed and that should war come we would find ourselves destitute of sailors and shipping, without which the navy is like arms without a body. The question of the subsidy was vigorously discussed in the last session of the Sixty-first Congress, but no action was taken. (See pp. 7374, 7435, 7503.) (See Subsidy; Merchant Marine.)

Navy Personnel Improved.—In order to match the superb vessels of the navy with efficiency in the personnel, Congress passed measures submitted and urged by President Taft in his Message of Feb. 25, 1910, which reduced the ages at which officers of the line became captains and rear-admirals. (See page 7470; Navy; Navy Department.)

Canadian Reciprocity.—On Jan. 26, 1911, the President sent to Congress a special message transmitting an agreement between the Department of State and the Canadian Government obligating both parties to attempt to secure legislation which would reciprocally lower tariff rates on about six hundred items. (See page 7581.) In urging the passage of the treaty (which, as affecting action on the tariff, had to pass both Houses) the President recalled Canada's neighborliness and friendship as shown in the settlement of all disputes and in the cooperation between the boards of railway control on both sides the border, dwelt upon the necessity of conserving our own resources by buying those of our neighbor, pointed out the similarity in labor and transportation conditions here and there, mentioned the harm to Americans which will accrue if the "imperial preference" doctrine becomes a tenet of Canadian political faith, maintained that the accession of a new supply of raw materials would inure to the benefit of all sections and, in prophetic vein, characterized the agreement as a step toward closer friendship between peoples related by blood, common sympathies and identical moral and social ideas. Animals, poultry, food stuffs, products of farm, garden and dairy, fruits, fish, oysters, salt, mineral waters, lumber, machinery, minor metal manufactures, coal, meats, flour, meal, farming utensils, fruit trees and Portland cement were the articles on which the tax was to be lowered or quite removed. The effect of the proposed treaty, according to 1910 figures, would be to decrease the revenue of the United States by $4,849,933, and that of Canada by $2,560,579. (See Reciprocity.)

Turning to matters of administration, Taft took judicial appointments out of politics; made the taking of the thirteenth census non-political (page 7539); recommended and by executive order effected the extension of the civil service (pp. 7424, 7549); instituted a vigorous inquiry into the government service in the interest of economy and efficiency, which resulted in a $52,000,000 saving in the 1911 estimates (pp. 7424, 7550); advocated as an improvement of efficiency the giving of pensions to superannuated clerks (pp. 7425, 7551); and, in his message regarding the rivers and harbors bill of 1910, declared his intention of vetoing any future bill which did not concentrate the moneys thereby provided on a certain few projects which might then be carried to completion instead of diffusing at great cost temporary and futile activity over a multitude of projects (page 7489).

President Taft was renominated by the Republican Party for the Presidency in 1916, but the defection of ex-President Roosevelt and the consequent formation of the Progressive Party to contest the Presidential election resulted in the triumph of the Democratic Party and the election of its Presidential candidate, Woodrow Wilson (q. v.).

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Talladega (Ala.), Battle of.—After the destruction of Tallasahatchee, Jackson was informed that 160 friendly Creek warriors, with their families, were hemmed in at Talladega, in Lashley's fort, by 1,000 hostile Indians. Nov. 8, 1813, Jackson set out with 1,200 infantry and 800 cavalry to raise the siege. By 4 o'clock the next morning they had surrounded the enemy, who, 1,080 strong, were concealed in the thickets. At daylight the battle began. It resulted in the complete rout of the savages. As many as 290 dead warriors were found and many others doubtless perished in the woods of the surrounding mountains. The number of the wounded could not be ascertained, but was large. The loss to the whites was 15 killed and 85 wounded.

Tallasahatchee (Ala.), Battle of.—The massacre at Fort Mims spread consternation throughout the region inhabited by the Creeks, and hardy volunteers came forward thirsting for vengeance. Gen. Jackson led the Tennessee militia across the line into Alabama. Upon his arrival at the Coosa he was informed that the Creeks were assembled at Tallasahatchee, a town in an open woodland, not far from the present village of Jacksonville, the county seat of Benton County, Ala., on the southeast side of the Tallasahatchee Creek. Jackson sent Gen. Coffee with 1,000 horsemen to destroy the town. Nov. 3, 1813, Coffee's men surrounded the place and the Indians came out to meet them. The battle was short, sharp, and desperate. The victory for the whites was complete. Every warrior was killed. None asked for quarter, and each fought to the death. At the close of the battle 186 bodies were counted on the plain. It is believed that 200 were killed. Eighty-four women and children were made prisoners. The loss to the whites was 5 men killed and 41 wounded.

Tammany.—In 1789 the Columbian Order was organized in New York City by William Mooney, as a counter move against the foundation of the so-called Aristocratic Society of the Cincinnati. In 1805 it was incorporated under the name of Tammany Society. This was in memory of Tammany, an aged, wise and friendly chief of the Delaware Indians. At this time charitable societies were also organized in Philadelphia and other cities and named in his honor. The only one of the number that survives is that in New York. William Mooney was the first grand sachem of Tammany, and was assisted by thirteen sachems, representing the governors of the thirteen states. The members wore Indian insignia. In 1811 the society built the original Tammany Hall, fronting on City Hall Park. Since then a local political party, favored by a majority of the members of the Tammany Society, has always had its headquarters in the house of the society, and has been popularly known as "Tammany Hall." In theory the Tammany Hall general committee has no relation to the Tammany Society save as tenant of the latter's edifice, yet in practice they are coordinate branches of one political system, the society being in effect the citadel of the controlling spirits of the Tammany Hall party. Tammany Hall claims to be the regular Democratic organization of the city and county of New York, though that claim has often been contested. By means of a thoroughly organized system of Tammany clubs and assembly district associations it has usually held a paramount place in city politics.

Tampico, arrest of American marines at, 7935.

Taos (N. Mex.). Battle of.—Feb. 3, 1847, Col. Price, with about 400 Americans, arrived at the town of Don Fernando de Taos, on the top of the Taos Mountain, which had been the scene of the murder of Governor Bent and his party. The Mexicans, numbering 600, had taken refuge in a stone church and two other large buildings. They resisted the American assaults during Feb. 4 and on the morning of the 5th surrendered. The American loss was 54 killed and wounded; that of the Mexicans 152 killed and many wounded.

Target Practice. (See Navy.)

Tariff.—The word "tariff" is generally applied to the customs duties levied by Congress on merchandise imported. Tradition identifies the word with the town of Tarifa, Spain. Here, during the Moorish occupancy of the country about Gibraltar, all vessels passing through the strait were compelled to put in and pay such duties as were demanded by the chiefs in possession. Among the Greeks and Romans a duty similar to the tariff of the present day was known, and in England, as early as 980, during the reign of Ethelred, duties on ships and goods were levied, to be paid at Billingsgate. Charles II. established a regular schedule of rates in 1663. After 1846 England gradually abolished her tariff duties, beginning with the repeal of the corn laws and continuing until 1891-1892, when revenue duties alone were collected, and those upon less than twenty articles.

In the United States the First Congress passed a tariff law levying on an average less than 8 per cent ad valorem on imports. This was approved by Washington July 4, 1789. Madison opened the discussion of this measure in Congress. South Carolina and Georgia favored a rate of 5 per cent, Pennsylvania one of 12 or more, while New England and Virginia succeeded in getting the rate raised a little above what the far south asked for, but placed it lower than the chief manufacturing states desired. The tariff of 1816 imposed duties of about 25 per cent on certain leading manufactures, under protest from the leading agricultural states of the south. In 1824 a new tariff act was passed, increasing among the changes made, duties on metals and agricultural products. Jan. 31, 1828, the "tariff of abominations," as it was named by its enemies, was introduced in the House. It embodied in part the recommendations of a national convention of manufacturers held at Harrisburg, Pa., but satisfied neither the friends nor the opponents of protection. This bill proposed a 41 per cent rate and was favored by Daniel Webster, who reversed his position of 1824. South Carolina protested against the proposed measure as unconstitutional and unjust and oppressive. North Carolina also protested, and Alabama and Georgia denied the power of Congress to lay duties for protection. July 14, 1832, President Jackson approved a bill reducing the tax on iron, increasing that on woolens, making some raw wools free, and leaving cotton unchanged. This bill retained the protective feature of the law of 1828, but reduced the taxes somewhat. South Carolina passed an ordinance nullifying this act (see Nullification), but her ordinance was rescinded after the approval of the compromise tariff of 1833. This measure, introduced by Clay and supported by Cal-

houn, provided for a gradual reduction of duties to a uniform rate, to be reached in 1842. It secured a revenue tariff by successive reductions. In 1842, the Whigs being in a majority, Congress enacted a protective tariff, which President Tyler vetoed (2033).

July 30, 1846, a tariff law was enacted which subordinated the principle of protection to that of revenue. It passed the House by a vote of 114 to 95 and the Senate by the casting vote of Vice-President Dallas. The average rate of duty was fixed at about 25 per cent. This was lowered to about 20 per cent by an act of 1857. In 1861 the principle of protection was reasserted in the Morrill Act, which increased the rates of 1857 about one-third. During the Civil War the tariff rates were repeatedly raised to meet the expenses of Government and stimulate manufacture. These rates were continued long after the cessation of hostilities. In 1882 a tariff commission was appointed to visit different sections of the country in the interest of tariff revision. The commission recommended a reduction of 20 per cent in rates.

President Cleveland, in his message of Dec. 8, 1885 (page 4926), recommended a reduction of the tariff, and his message of Dec. 6, 1887 (page 5165), was devoted exclusively to this topic. From this time on, party lines began to be drawn on the tariff question, most of the Republicans favoring protection and the majority of advocates advocating a revision in the direction of lower duties. The Mills bill, framed largely in accordance with President Cleveland's views, passed the House, but failed in the Senate, where a bill embodying the ideas of the protectionists on tariff revision was substituted for it by the Republican majority. In the Fifty-first Congress, the Republicans being in control, passed the McKinley tariff act of 1890 raising the duties to an average of 48 per cent. By the elections of 1890 and 1892 the Democrats came into power, and in the Fifty-third Congress the House passed the Wilson bill providing for substantial reductions, especially on raw materials. Amendments were added in the Senate which essentially changed its character and the bill became law in 1894 without the President's signature. It provided for an income tax which was, however, declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court.

The elections of 1894 and 1896 returned the Republicans to power, and in 1897 the Dingley law was passed, which imposed the highest rates of duty ever known in our history. It has been revised so far as concerned the Philippines in 1905, when a lower tariff came into force, and again in 1906, when the islands were given practically free trade with this country; of the few articles excepted, the most important were sugar, coffee, and tobacco.

The revision of the Dingley Tariff in 1909 is discussed by President Taft in his address at Winona (page 7393) which was evoked by the furious storm of criticism to which the tariff and its sponsors were subjected. This discontent produced a rupture in the Republican ranks, "insurgent" Congressmen lining up against "standpatters." The Federal patronage was employed to awaken insurgents to a sense of duty to the party, but without avail. Public sentiment on the question was expressed in the Democratic victory of 1910, the insurgent Republicans being mostly reelected.

In the 1910 tariff, provision was made for the application of a maximum or minimum schedule of rates to the imports of a foreign country in accordance as it discriminates against or in favor of American goods; for corporation tax of one per cent of net earnings; for a revised tariff establishing free trade with the Philippines; for a Customs Court of Appeals consisting of five judges and six attorneys to prosecute customs cases before the Court; and for a tariff board.

For the functions of the Tariff Board, see Tariff Board. For a resumé of the contentions of the advocates of a protective tariff, a tariff for revenue only and free trade, see Free Trade.

With the election of President Wilson and a Democratic Congress in 1913 a downward revision of the tariff was assured, for Congress had already partially framed the Underwood bill, and President Wilson called an extra session April 8, 1913, and in his address called attention to the duty of the party in power, and urged immediate passage of the Underwood bill. Oct. 3, 1913, the President signed the bill. The main feature of the law was the income tax provision, and of next importance was the removal of all protection from agricultural products and meats. Duties on the manufacture of cotton and woolen goods were cut 10 to 50 per cent. Raw wool was admitted free, and sugar became free after three years.

TARIFF OF 1922

History.—The Fordney-McCumber Tariff Act was approved by President Harding on September 21, 1922, and went into effect the following midnight, more than twenty months after its framing had begun. Hearings on it began before the Republican members of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives on January 6, 1921, and the bill passed the House on the following July 21. The Finance Committee of the Senate did not report it to the Senate until April 11, 1922, and did so with more than 2,000 amendments to the House draft. The Senate passed it on the following August 19, with almost 2,500 amendments. The Conference Report on the bill passed the House on September 15, 1922, by vote of 210 to 90 and the Senate four days later, by vote of 43 to 28.

The new tariff was expected to raise about $480,000,000 in revenue annually. In the previous year the Underwood Tariff Law had yielded slightly more than $300,000,000.

Flexibility.—Whenever the President finds that the rates do not equalize the cost of production of articles between the United States and the chief competing foreign country, he may proclaim new rates which shall so equalize the cost of production, such rates to go into effect thirty days after they have been proclaimed. These rates are to be based upon the foreign valuation. However, the new rates may not increase or decrease the duty more than 50% of the amount provided in the Tariff Act.

If this increase or decrease of at least 50% based upon foreign valuation still does not equalize the cost of production, the President may ascertain the American selling price of the articles involved and proclaim new rates based upon that price. These rates to go into effect fifteen days after they are proclaimed. However, such rates may not represent an increase over the Tariff Act rates nor a decrease of more than 50% in them.

Before the President may thus change the tariff rates, the Tariff Commission must

have thoroughly and publicly investigated the costs of production of the articles involved, both at home and abroad. The President may alter the rates previously changed by him under this authority. But he may not transfer a dutiable article to the free list nor an article on the free list to the dutiable list nor substitute an ad valorem rate for a specific rate nor vice versa. Nor may he increase a rate beyond any maximum ad valorem rate set in the Act in the case of a combined ad valorem and specific rate.

In ascertaining the differences in the costs of production at home and abroad, the Act directs that due weight shall be given to differences in conditions of employment, wages, costs of materials, hours of labor, wholesale selling prices of similar articles, subsidies, etc.

The President and the Tariff Commission are authorized to investigate and report upon unfair methods of competition and importation. In case the offending parties are found guilty, subject to court review, the duties upon the articles involved may be increased by between 10% and 50% or altogether excluded from entry. There are also provisions for retaliation for discrimination by foreign countries against American products. The Act also extends the zone of search and seizure from three to twelve miles.

Rates.—The rates on the more important articles covered in the Act are given below. The figures in parentheses are the rates in the Underwood Tariff Act of 1913. Figures indicate percentages. Flat charges in dollars and cents are based on a pound, unless otherwise stated.

n. s. p. f.—Not specially provided for.

F—Free. *A. V.*—American valuation

Schedule 1—Chemicals, Oils & Paints

Coal Tar Products—
- Intermediates (15%) first two years after passage of Act..7c & 55% A. V.
- Thereafter .....7c & 40% A. V.
- Finished products (dyes, colors, medicines, photographic chemicals, flavors, cosmetics, picric acid, explosives, etc.) (30%) first two years after the passage of the Act.....7c & 60% A. V.
- Thereafter .....7c & 45% A. V.

Alcohol, amyl, butyl, etc. (¼c), gal.... 6c
- Methyl (wood) (F), gal.....12c
- Ethyl (nonbeverage) ($2.60), gal....15c

Chemical elements and medicinal preparations, n. s. p. f. (15%-20%)....25%
Chalk, (whiting) dry, ground, bolted or precipitated or in cubes (25%)...25%
- Ground in oil or putty (15%)..... ¾c

Chemical elements, medicinal compounds, salts, oil, extracts, etc., containing alcohol, less than 20% (10c & 20%) .....20c & 25%
- 20%-50% alcohol (20c & 20%) .....40c & 25%
- Above 50% alcohol (40c & 2%) .....80c & 25%

Crude drugs (10%).....10%
Flavoring extracts, n. s. p. f. (20%)..25%
Gelatine, edible, (15%-25%).20% & 3½c-7c
Glycerin, crude (1c).....1c
- Refined (2c) 2c

Ink and ink powders, n. s. p. f. (15%) 20%
Iodine, resublimed (F).....20c
Lead, acetate (white) (1¼c).....2½c
- Acetate (brown, gray, yellow) (1c)...2c
- Nitrate, arsenate, resinate (20%).....3c
- Other lead compounds, n. s. p. f. (20%) 30%

Manganese (15%) 25%
Oils, animal, sod, herring and menhaden, gallon (3c).....5c
- Whale and seal, gal. (5c).....6c
- Sperm, gal. (8c).....10c
- Wool grease (¼c-½c).....½c-1c
- N. s. p. f. (15%).....20%

Oils, expressed or extracted, castor (12c per gallon), lb.....3c
- Hempseed (3c gallon) lb.....1½c
- Linseed, flaxseed (10c gal.) lb.....3.3c
- Olive oil (20c-30c gal.) lb.....6½c-7½c

Oil—Cocoanut (3½c) 2c
- Cottonseed (F) 3c
- Peanut (6c gal.) lb.....4c
- Soya-bean (F) 2½c

Opium, crude, more than 8½% anhydrous morphine ($3).....$3
- Less than 8½% ($6).....$6
- Powdered and with at least 15% moisture ($4) $4
- Morphine & other opium derivatives ($3) $3
- Cocaine, etc. ($2 oz.) oz.....$2.60
- Laudanum, etc. (60%).....60%

Perfumery, containing alcohol (40c & 60%) .....40c & 75%
- Not containing alcohol (60%).....75%

Bay rum ($1.75 gal.) lb.....40c & 60%
Phosphorus (F) 8c
Paints, colors, etc. in tubes (20%)...40%
- In sets, etc. (20%-35%).....70%

Pigments, enamel paints, etc. n. s. p. f. (15%-20%) 25%
Bone black, etc. (F).....20%
Varnishes, spirit, less than 5% alcohol gal. ($1.32 & 15%).....$2.20 & 25%
- More than 5% (10%).....25%

Soap, castile, etc. (10%).....15%
- Toilet (20%-30%) 30%

Strychnine and salts of (F), oz.....15c
Vanilla beans (30c).....30c
- Tonka beans (25c).....25c

Schedule 2—Earths, Earthenware, Glassware.

Brick, bath, chrome, fire, n. s. p. f. (10% to 15%).....25%
- Magnesite (10%) .....¾c & 10%

Tiles, valued at not more than 40c sq. ft. (1½c-5c sq. ft.).....8c sq. ft., but not less than 45% nor more than 60%
- Valued at more than 40c sq. ft. (1½c sq. ft.-5c sq. ft.).....50%
- Mantels, friezes, etc. (30%).....50%

Limestone, other than monument or building, crushed, but not pulverized (F) .....5c cwt.
- Lime, n. s. p. f. (5%).....10c cwt.
- Hydrated lime (5%).....12c cwt.

Plaster rock or gypsum (10%) ton...$1.40
- Portland cement (10%).....8c cwt.
- Keene's & other cement of gypsum valued up to $14 ton (10%) ton $3.50
- Valued at $14-$20 ton (10%) ton..$5.00
- Valued at $20-$40 ton (10%) ton.$10.00
- Valued at more than $40 ton, ton..$14.00

Cement n. s. p. f. (10%).....20%
Clays or earth, unwrought and unmanufactured n. s. p. f. (50c ton) ton.$1.00
- Wrought or manufactured, n. s. p. f. ($1.00 ton) ton.....$2.00
- China or kaolin ($1.25 ton) ton....$2.50
- Bauxite, crude (F) ton.....$1.00
- Fullers' earth, unmanufactured (75c ton) ton $1.50
- Manufactured ($1.50 ton) ton...$3.25

Fluorspar ($1.50 ton) ton.....$5.60
Silica, crude, ton $4.00
- Suitable for pigment, ton.....$7.50

Earthenware, yellow, brown, gray, not ornamented (15%) 15%
- Incised or decorated n. s. p. f. (20%) 20%

Rockingham (30%) 25%
Earthenware or crockeryware, non-vitrified absorbent body, white granite and semi-porcelain ware, stoneware, not decorated or painted (35%) 45%
Decorated, painted, etc. (40%).....50%
China, porcelain and other vitrified wares undecorated (50%).....60%
Decorated, painted, etc. (55%).....70%
Carbons, electrodes (25%-30%).....45%
Lead glass bottles, more than 1 pt. (30%) 1c
¼-1 pt. (30%) 1½c
Less than ¼ pt. (30%) gross.....50c
Biological, chemical, surgical, illuminating, table, kitchen articles wholly or chiefly of glass or paste (F, 45%) 50%-65%
Cylinder, crown and sheet glass unpolished (⅞c-2c) 1¼c-2½c
Polished (3-10c sq. ft.) sq. ft....4c-15c
Fluted, ribbed, rough plate glass (½c-1c sq. ft.) sq. ft.....¾c-1½c
Cast polished plate glass unsilvered (6c-12c sq. ft.) sq. ft.....12½c-20c
Silvered (1c sq. ft. additional to above) .....
13½c-21c sq. ft., but not less than 35%
Bent, ground, obscured, frosted, etc. (4% additional) .....5% additional
Spectacles, eyeglasses, frames and parts, valued less than 65c doz. (35%) .....20c doz. & 15%
Valued 65c-$2.50 doz. (35%) .....60c doz. & 20%
Valued above $2.50 doz. (35%)....40%
Lenses, edge unground (25%).....40%
Edge ground or beveled (25%).... .....5c doz. & 35%
Lenses for cameras, microscopes, telescopes, etc. (25%-35%).....45%
Electric light bulbs (30%).....20%
Building or monumental stone, except marble, brecchia, onyx, hewn, polished or manufactured (25%)...50%
Not polished or manufactured (3c cu. ft.) .....15c cu. ft.
Grindstones ($1.50 ton), ton.....$1.75
Slates and manufactures of (10%)...15%
Watch crystals (30%).....60%

Schedule 3—Metals and Manufactures of.

Iron in pigs, wrought and cast scrap iron and steel (F) ton.....75c
Muck bars, iron in coils, rods, etc., less finished than bar and more than pig, except castings (5%)....2/10c-1½c
Steel ingots, blooms, slabs, bars, castings, sheets, plates, etc. (F-15%) 2/10c-20%
Steel with more than 6/10 of 1% of nickel, cobalt, etc., or other metal used in alloying steel (15%) in addition 8%
Molybdenum and tungsten content above 6/10 of 1% (15%) in addition 65c-72c
Beams, girders, joists, etc. (10%)....1/5c
Machined or fabricated (10%).....20%
Sashes, frames, building forms (10%) 25%
Wire rods, etc. (10%-15%).....3/10c-1c
Iron or steel wire (15%).....1¼c-35%
Galvanized wire (F) .....½c
Storage batteries, etc.....40%
Axles and parts, etc. (10%).....6/10c
Wheels, railway (20%).....1c
Cast iron pipe, plates, etc. (10%)....20%
Chains (20%-25%) ⅞c-4c
Nuts, washers, bolts, etc. (10%)...6/10-1c
Nails and spikes, etc. (F).....4/10c-15%
Household utensils, etc. (25%)..... .....5c-11c & 30%-55%
Saws (12%) 20%
Printing and lithographic plates (15%-25%) 25%
Needles (20%) ....$1.15-$2.00 per M & 40%-50%
Pins, not jewelry (20%).....35%
Fountain pens and parts (25%)..... .....72c doz. & 40%
Pocket- and similar knives (35%-55%) .....1c-35c & 50%-60%
Table and similar knives (25%-30%) .....8c-16c & 0-45%
Safety razors (35%-55%).....10c & 30%
Blades (35%-55%) .....1c & 30%
Razors (35%-55%) .....18c-45c & 45%
Surgical and laboratory instruments (F-50%) 35%-45%
Watch movements (30%).....75c-$10.75
Watch cases and parts (30%).....45%
Clocks and clock movements (30%) .....0-$3 & 45%
Parts, separate (30%) 50%
Automobiles, motorcycles, parts (25%-45%) 25%
Bicycles and parts (25%) 30%
Steam engines and locomotives (15%) 15%
Sewing machines and parts, valued at less than $75 (F).....15%
Valued at more than $75 (F).....30%
Cash registers (F).....25%
Printing presses (15%).....30%
Embroidery & lace-making machines (25%) 30%
Knitting and similar textile machinery and parts (25%).....35%-40%
Cream separators valued at more than $50 and similar machines (F).....25%
Adding and typewriting machines combined 30%
Other machines and parts n. s. p. f. (20%) 30%
Shovels, spades, scythes, etc. (f-20%).30%
Aluminum and alloys of, crude (2c)....5c
Coils, plates, sheets, etc. (3½c).....9c
German or nickel silver, crude (15%).20%
Sheets, strips, rods, etc. (20%)....30%
Copper coils, rods, sheets (5%).....2½c
Engravers' plates, not ground, and seamless tubes (5%).....7c
Engravers' plates, ground and brazed copper tubes (5%).....11c
Brass wire, rods, plates, etc. (20%)....4c
Tubing and tubes (20%).....8c-12c
Bronze rods, sheets, tubes (20%)....4c-8c
Quicksilver (10%).....25c
Dynamite and blasting explosives (F).1¼c
Types, new (15%) 20%
Lead ores and mattes (¾c).....1½c
Bullion, pigs, bars, scrap (¾c)....2⅜c
Sheets, pipe, shot, wire (¾c).....2⅜c
Zinc-bearing ores (10%).....F-1½c
Blocks, sheets, pigs, etc. (15%).1¾c-2¼c
Articles n. s. p. f., composed chiefly of platinum, gold, silver (50%)....60%
Chiefly of other metals (20%).....40%

Schedule 4—Wood and Manufactures of.

Logs of fir, spruce, cedar, western hemlock (F) per M ft. board measure....$1
Brier root or wood, etc. (10%).....10%
Spanish cedar, mahogany, rosewood, satinwood, etc. in log (F).....10%
Sawed boards (10%).....15%
Veneers, n. s. p. f. (15%).....20%
Casks, barrels, packing boxes, etc. (15%) 15%
Reeds, cane, rattan, etc. (10%).....20%
Furniture of (15%).....60%
Bamboo, split 1¼c
Osier or willow (10%).....35%
Manufactures of (25%).....45%
House furniture and manufactures of wood or bark, n. s. p. f. (15%)..33⅓%

Schedule 5—Sugar, Molasses, etc.

Sugars, sirups, etc., by polariscope not

over 75 sugar degrees and mixtures of 50-75 sugar degrees (71/100c) 1 24/100c
Each additional sugar degree, additional (26/1,000c) 46/1,000c
Molasses and sugar sirups, less than 48% total sugars (15% to 4½c gal.) gal ..... ¼c
Above 48%, each additional % .275/1,000c
Up to 52%, not for sugar or human consumption, gal 1/6c
52-56%, each additional % 1/6c
Maple sugar and sirup (3c) 4c
Sugar cane, natural (15%) short ton .. $1
Sugar in dried cane (15%) .75% of sugar rate
Sugar candy and confectionery (2c-25%) 40%

Schedule 6—Tobacco and Manufactures of.

Wrapper tobacco and filler when mixed with more than 35% wrapper, and leaf from two or more countries when packed together, if unstemmed ($1.85) $2.10
Above, stemmed ($2.50) $2.75
Filler, n. s. p. f., unstemmed (35c) 35c
Stemmed (50c) 50c
Scrap tobacco (35c) 35c
All other tobacco, n. s. p. f. (55c) 55c
Snuff (55c) 55c
Cigars, cigarettes ($4.50 & 25%) ..... $4.50 & 25%

Schedule 7—Agricultural Products.

Cattle, weighing less than 1050 lbs. (F) 1½c
Weighing more than 1050 lbs. (F) 2c
Fresh beef and veal (F) 3c
Tallow (F) ..... ½c
Oleo oil and stearin (15% and F) 1c
Sheep and goats (F) each $2
Fresh mutton and goat meat (F) 2½c
Fresh lamb (F) 4c
Swine (F) ..... ½c
Fresh pork (F) ..... ¾c
Bacon, hams, etc. (F) 2c
Lard (F) 1c
Lard compounds and substitutes (F) .. 4c
Meats, n. s. p. f. (F) 20%
Milk, fresh (F) gal 2½c
Buttermilk and sour milk (F) gal 1c
Cream (F) gal 20c
Condensed or evaporated, unsweetened (F) 1c
Sweetened (F) 1½c
All other (F) 1⅜c
Milk powders (F) 3c
Cream powders (F) 7c
Malted milk and milk substitutes (F) 20%
Butter and oleomargarine (2½c) 8c
Cheese (20%) ... 5c, but not less than 25%
Birds, live: Poultry (1c) 3c
All other, valued less than $5 (F) each 50c
Valued above $5 (F) 20%
Birds, dead, dressed or undressed, poultry (2c) 6c
All other (30%) 8c
Preserved in manner n. s. p. f. 35%
Poultry eggs, in shell (F) doz 8c
Whole, yolk or albumen, frozen or otherwise preserved (1c-2c) 6c
Dried whole, yolk & albumen (10c-10%) 18c
Horses and mules, valued to $150 (10%) $30
Valued above $150 a head (10%) .. 20%
Live animals, n. s. p. f. (F-10%) 15%
Honey (10c gal.), lb 3c
Fresh fish, frozen or packed in ice, halibut, mackerel, salmon, sword (F) .. 2c
All others n. s. p. f. (F) 1c
Salmon, smoked, pickled, etc. (F-15%) 25%
Finnan haddie (F-15%) 25%
Dried fish, salted or unsalted (F-15%) . 1¼c
Smoked herring (F-15%) 2½c
Other skinned or boned fish in bulk (F-15%) 2½c
Pickled or salted herring or mackerel in bulk (F-¾c) 1c
Fish (not shell) in oil (25%) 30%
Fish (not shell) pickled, salted, kippered, etc., not in oil, in containers up to 15 lbs. each (15%) 25%
In containers above 15 lbs. (15%) .. 1¼c
Crab meat in ice, etc. (F) 15%
Fish paste and sauce (25%) 30%
Caviar & other fish roe, preserved (30%) 30%
Barley (15c bu.) bu. of 48 lbs. 20c
Barley malt (25c bu. of 34 lbs.) cwt .. 40c
Pearl and patent barley and barley flour (1c) 2c
Buckwheat (F) cwt 10c
Flour, grits, groats (F) ..... ½c
Corn or maize (F) bu 15c
Grits, meal, flour, etc. (F) cwt 30c
Macaroni, noodles, etc. (1c) 2c
Oats (6c bu.) 15c
Unhulled ground, cwt 45c
Oatmeal, grits, etc. (3/10c) cwt 80c
Rice (¼c-1c) ½c-2c
Rye (F) bu 15c
Flour and meal (F) cwt 45c
Wheat (F), bu. of 60 lbs 30c
Flour, semolina, etc. (F) cwt 78c
Prepared cereal breakfast foods 20%
Cakes, biscuits, wafers, etc. (25%) ... 30%
Apples, apricots, peaches, pears, plums, prunes, green or ripe (1/5c) ..... ½c
Dried or evaporated (1c) ½c-2½c
Citrons and peel, crude or dried (2c) ... 2c
Candied and otherwise prepared (2c) 4½c
Orange and lemon peel, crude, dried (1c) 2c
Candied and preserved (1c) 5c
Figs, fresh or dried (2c) 2c
Prepared or preserved (20%) 35%
Dates, fresh or dried (1c) 1c
Prepared or preserved (20%) 35%
Grapes (25c cu. ft. of package) cu. ft .. 25c
Raisins and currants (1½c-2c) 2c
Lemons (½c) 2c
Oranges, grapefruit, limes (½c) 1c
Olives, green or ripe (15c gal.) gal 20c
Pitted or stuffed (15c gal.) gal 30c
Dried ripe (15c gal.) lb 4c
Pineapples in crates of 2 cu. ft. etc. (6c cu. ft.) per crate 22½c
In bulk (½c each) each ..... ¾c
Preserved, etc. (20%) 2c
Jams, jellies, marmalades, etc. (20%) 35%
Fruits in natural state, dried, preserved etc. and n. s. p. f. (F-20%) .. 35%
Bulbs, tulip, narcissus, lily ($1-$5 M) M $2
Hyacinth ($2.50 per M) per M $4
Crocus (50c per M) per M $1
Other bulbs, tubers, etc. (50c M) M 30%
Almonds, unshelled (3c) 4¾c
Shelled and almond paste (4c-15%) .. 14c
Peanuts (¾c-¾c) 3-4c
Nuts, filberts, walnuts, pecans, cream, Brazil, pistache, unshelled (2c) .. 1c-4c
Shelled (4c) 1c-12c
Other nuts, n. s. p. f. (1c) 1c
Seeds, oil-bearing (F-20c bu.) lb ½c-3c
Seeds, grass (F) 1c-4c
Seeds, garden and field (F-10c) 1c-15c
Beets, sugar (5%) ton 80c
Other (5%) 17%
Peas (1/6c-1/3c) 1c-1¼c
Preserved or prepared (1c) 2c
Onions (⅛c) 1c
Potatoes, Irish (F) ..... ½c
Dried or desiccated, dehydrated (F) . 2¾c

Flour (F) 2½c
Tomatoes, raw (15%).....½c
Turnips (15%) cwt.....12c
Vegetables, natural state, n. s. p. f. (15%) 25%
Cut, preserved, etc., n. s. p. f. (25%) 35%
Chocolate and cocoa (8%-25%)..... .....17½%, but not less than 2c lb.
Hay ($2 ton) ton.....$4
Straw (50c ton) ton.....$1
Hops (16c) 24c
Extract ($2.40) $2.40
Spices (F-18c) 1c-18c
Mixed and n. s. p. f. (20%).....25%

Schedule 8—Beverages.

Brandy, cordials, etc. ($2.60 gal.) gal...$5
Champagne and sparkling wines ($2.40 to $9.60 doz. bottles & $3 gal.) gal...$6
Ale, porter, stout, beer (45c gal.) gal...$1
Malt extract, solid or condensed (23c gal.) 60%
Fruit and grape juices and sirups, up to ½ of 1% alcohol (70c gal.) gal. 70c
Above ½ of 1%.....70c gal. & $5 gal. on the alcoholic content
Ginger ale, soda water, etc. (12c doz. bottles to 50c gal.) gal.....15c
Mineral waters, etc. (10c doz. bottles to 18c gal.) gal.....10c
This schedule not to be construed as limiting or restricting prohibition laws and the duties above are in addition to the internal revenue taxes. Importations of liquids containing more than ½ of 1% of alcohol allowed only on permit of Commissioner of Internal Revenue.

Schedule 9—Cotton Manufactures.

Cotton yarn, not bleached, dyed or combed: Nos. up to 40 (5%-10%) per no. per lb. 1/5c
Nos. 40-120 (15%-25%), 8c per lb. and ¼c per no. per lb. in excess of 40
Nos. over 120 (25%).....28c
Of above, nos. under 80 shall not pay less than 5% plus ¼ of 1% for each no. and nos. above 80 not less than 25%.
Cotton yarn, bleached, dyed, combed, etc.: Nos. under 40 (7½%-12½%) per no. per lb.....¼c
Nos. 40-120 (17½%-27½%)..... 10c lb. & 3/10c for each no. above 40
Nos. over 120 (27½%).....34c
Of above, nos. under 80 shall not pay less than 10% plus ¼ of 1% per no., nor nos. above 80 less than 30%.
Cotton waste, etc. (5%).....5%
Sewing thread (15%) 100 yards.....½c
Crochet, darning, embroidery and knitting cottons for handwork, per 100 yards.....½c but must be 20%-35%
Cotton cloth, not bleached, printed, dyed: Less than 40 yarns (7½%-12½%) per average no. yarns per lb....4/10c
Above 40 yarns (17½%-27½%) .....16c lb. plus 11/20c per average no. per lb. over 40
Of above, cloth not over 80 yarns to pay not less than 10% plus ¼ of 1% for each no.; over 80, not less than 30%.
Cotton cloth, bleached, less than 40 yarns (10%-15%) 9/20c per av. no. per lb.
Over 40 (20%-30%)....18c lb. plus 3/5c per average no. per lb. over 40
Of above, with less than 80 average no. of yarns to pay at least 13% plus ¼ of 1% for each number; with more than 80, at least 33%.
Cotton cloth printed, dyed, woven-figured: Up to 40 average no. of yarns (10%-15%) per average no. per lb....9/20c
Above 40 (20%-30%) 22c lb. plus 13/20c per average no. per lb. above 40
Of above, under 80 average no. of yarns must pay at least 15% plus 5/16 of 1% for each no.; above 80, at least 40%.
Additional duties on cotton cloth—When at least 40% of cloth is printed or colored with vat dyes, 4%. Woven with at least 8 harnesses, or with jacquard lappet or swivel attachments, 10%. Woven with drop boxes, 5%. Containing silk, 5%. *No duty on cotton cloth in any case to exceed 45%.*
Oil-cloths, except silk and floor, window hollands, filled or coated cotton cloths, n. s. p. f. (25%) 3c sq. yd. plus 20%
Waterproof cloth, chiefly cotton (25%) .....5c sq. yard plus 30%
Tapestries and upholstery cloth, jacquard woven blankets and napped cloths (35%) 45%
Pile fabrics, plush and velvet ribbons and other pile goods of cotton fibre, (40%) 50%
Table damask, etc., chiefly cotton (25%) 30%
Quilts or bedspreads, chiefly cotton, of two or more sets, of warp or filling threads, (25%-30%).....40%
Other quilts or bedspreads (25%-30%) 25%
Sheets, pillowcases, blankets, towels, etc., not jacquard, terry-woven or pile fabrics, n. s. p. f. (25%-30%).....25%
Table covers, napkins, runners, scarfs, etc., of plain woven cotton cloth (25%-30%) 30%
Knit fabric, made on warp machine (30%) 55%
Made otherwise (30%).....35%
Gloves, of cotton fabric knit on warp knitting machine, single-fold, unshrunk, not sueded, less than 40 rows of loops per inch in width (35%) 50%
Same, shrunk or sueded or having more than 40 rows of loops per inch in width and not over 11 inches long (35%) .....$2.50 doz. pairs and 10c doz. pairs for each inch over 11.
Same, two or more folds, not over 11 in. long (35%) $3 doz. pairs and 10c doz. pairs for each additional inch over 11.
Of these, none to be dutiable less than 40% nor more than 75%.
Gloves knit otherwise (35%).....50%
Gloves of woven fabric (35%).....25%
Hose and half-hose, selvedged, fashioned, hand or machine knit (30%-50%) 50%
Hose of cut or knitted fabric, n. s. p. f. (20%) 30%
Underwear and other wearing apparel of cotton, etc. knit, n. s. p. f. (30%) 45%
Handkerchiefs and mufflers, unhemmed (25%) pay duty as cloth.
Hemmed (30%), 10% additional, but at least 30% if containing less than 40 yarns and 40% if containing more than 40.
Clothing and wearing apparel, n. s. p. f. chiefly of cotton (30%).....35%
Shirt collars and cuffs, cotton, n. s. p. f. (30%).....30c dozen plus 10%
Lace window curtains, bed sets, nettings, etc. and all other articles made on Nottingham lace curtain machines, less than 5 spaces between warp threads to the inch (35%) .....
1½c sq. yd. and 25%, but at least 60%
Same, more than 5 such spaces to the inch, (35%-45%) .....
1½c sq. yd. and ¾c for each such space above 5 plus 25%, but at least 60%
All articles of cotton cloth and manufactures chiefly of cotton, n. s. p. f.

(30%) 40%

Schedule 10—Flax, Hemp, Jute and Manufactures of.

Flax straw (F) ton.....$2
Flax, not hackled (F).....1c
Hackled, and dressed line (F).....2c
Tow and noils, crin vegetal, palm leaf fibre, twisted or untwisted (F) .....¾c
Hemp and hemp tow (F).....1c
Hackled (F) 2c
Jute yarns or roving, single, according to fineness (15%-20%).....2½c-7c, but under 40%
Jute sliver (15%-20%).....1½c
Jute twist, twine, cordage (35%).3½c-11c
Flax, hemp or ramie yarns, single, in the gray (12%-25%).....10c-35c
Boiled, additional 2c
Bleached, dyed, etc., additional.....5c
On these three items, the duty must not be more than 35% nor less than 25%.
Flax, hemp or ramie threads, twines, cords, of two or more yarns (12%-25%) 18¼c-56c
Boiled, additional 2c
Bleached, dyed, etc., additional.....5c
On these three items, the duty must not be less than 30%.
Manila, sisal, etc. cords and cables (½c) .....¾c
Cords and cables of sunn or other bast fibres, not jute (½c).....2c
Hemp cordage and cables (1c).....2½c
Fabrics of jute, n. s. p. f. (F).....1c
Bleached, dyed, printed, etc. (10%) additional 10%
Woven fabrics of hemp, flax or ramie, not including finished or unfinished articles with 30-100 threads to sq. in. and weighing 4½-12 oz. sq. yd. and 12-24 in. wide (30%).....55%
Woven fabrics of flax, hemp, etc., n. s. p. f. (35%).....35%-40%
Pile fabrics and manufactures (40%).45%
Table damask, other than cotton (35%) 40%
Towels, napkins, sheets and pillow-cases, chiefly of flax, hemp or ramie (35%) 40%-55%
Handkerchiefs, not cotton, unhemmed (35%) 35%
Hemmed or hemstitched (40%)....45%
Clothing and wearing apparel, of vegetable fibre other than cotton, n. s. p. f. (40%) 35%
Flax shirts, collars, cuffs (30%).....40c doz. plus 10%
Bags or sacks of jute (10%).....1c plus 10%-15%
Bagging for cotton, etc., not bleached nor dyed, etc. (F) sq. yd.....3/10c-6/10c
Linoleum (30%-35%) 35%
Floor oilcloth (20%).....20%
Straw matting (2½c sq. yd.) sq. yd.....3c
Carpets and rugs wholly of cotton, flax, hemp, jute or mixtures of (20%-30%) 35%

Schedule 11—Wool and Manufactures of.

Donskoi, native South American, Cordova and similar wools, and camel's hair:
In the grease (F).....12c
Washed (F) 18c
Scoured (F) 24c
Imported on the skin (F).....11c
Wools n. s. p. f. and Angora, Cashmere, Alpaca in the grease, washed, imported scoured or on the skin (15%) 30c-31c
Waste, top, slubbing, roving and ring (F) 31c
Garnetted (F) 24c
Thread, yarn and n. s. p. f. (F)....16c
Noils, carbonized (F).....24c
Not carbonized (F) 19c
Shoddy and wool extract (F).....16c
Mungo, woolen rags and flocks.....7½c
Wool advanced beyond washing or scouring but not beyond roving (8%-20%) .....33c & 20%
Wool yarn (18%-25%) by value.....24c-36c & 30%-40%
Woven fabrics, up to 4 oz. sq. yd. (25%-40%) by value....37c-45c & 50%
Woven fabrics, more than 4 oz. sq. yd. (25%-35%) by value.....24c-45c & 40%-50%
Pile fabrics, chiefly of wool (40%-60%) .....40c & 50%
Blankets, etc. chiefly wool (35%-40%) by value .....18c-37c & 30%-40%
Felts, not woven (35%-40%).....18c-37c & 30%-40%
Knit fabrics in piece, valued up to $1 lb. (35%) .....30c & 40%
Valued above $1 lb.....45c & 50%
Hose and gloves, valued up to $1.75 doz. pairs (30%-40%).....36c & 35%
Valued above that (30%-40%).....45c & 50%
Knit underwear, valued up to $1.75 lb. (35%) .....36c & 30%
Valued above that (35%)....45c & 50%
Other articles, knit or crocheted, chiefly of wool, n. s. p. f. (35%).....36c-45c & 40%-50%
Clothing and wearing apparel, not knit or crocheted, up to $2 lb. (35%) .....24c & 40%
Valued $2-$4 per lb. (35%)..30c & 45%
Valued above $4 per lb. (35%).....45c & 50%
Oriental, Axminster, chenille Axminster and other rugs and carpets (35%-50%) 55%
Wilton, Brussels, velvet and tapestry rugs and carpets (20%-35%).....40%
Ingrain carpets and rugs (20%).....25%
Manufactures of wool, n. s. p. f. (35%-40%) 50%

Schedule 12—Silk and Silk Goods.

Silk partially manufactured and silk noils more than 2 in. long, not twisted nor spun (20c).....35%
Spun silk and silk yarn, etc., not bleached nor dyed nor advanced beyond singles (35%).45c & 1/10c lb. per no.
Advanced beyond singles, additional.5c
Bleached or dyed, etc., additional....10c
On bobbins or spools, additional.....10c
Of above, total on single yarn must not be less than 40% nor on more than single, 45%.
Thrown silk not advanced beyond singles, tram, organzine (15%).....25%
Sewing silk, floss and threads and yarns, n. s. p. f. in gum (15%) .....$1, but at least 35%
Ungummed (15%) $1.50, but at least 40%
Woven fabrics in piece, n. s. p. f. (45%) 55%
Plushes, velvets, etc., chiefly of silk (50%-60%) 60%
Ribbons, tubings, garters, cords, tassels etc., not embroidered (45%).....55%
Knit fabrics in piece (50%).....55%
Knit underwear, hose and gloves (50%) 60%
Knit outerwear & other goods (45%-50%) 60%
Handkerchiefs & mufflers, unhemmed (40%) 55%
Hemmed or hemstitched (50%)....60%
Clothing and wearing apparel, not knit nor crocheted (50%).....60%
Artificial silk waste (10%).....10%-25%
Artificial silk and silk waste yarns, etc. (35%) 25c-55c, but at least 25% to 45%

Knit goods, ribbons, etc. of artificial silk goods (60%).....45c & 60%

Schedule 13—Papers and Books.

Printing paper, n. s. p. f. (12%).¼c & 10%
Paper board, card board, wall board, etc., not coated, decorated, or cut (5%-25%) 10%
Tissue, india, carbon, waxed, crepe, etc. (12%-30%) .....4c-6c & 15%
Coated, embossed, decorated, gummed, reenforced, bags of above, boxes, etc. (25%-40%) .....3c-5c & 15%-20%
Pictures, calendars, cards, labels, etc. (15c) 25c
Writing, handmade, ledger, bond, typewriter, etc. (25%).....3c & 15%
Envelopes (15%-35%) in addition to rates on the paper of which they are made 5%
Books, unbound or bound (except in leather), printed sheets, pamphlets, music and other printed matter, n. s. p. f. (15%).....15%
(See also Free List.)
Blank books, drawings, engravings, photographs, maps (15%).....25%
Postcards, plain or decorated (25%)..30%
Children's books (4c).....25%
Greeting or social cards (25%)..30%-45%
Albums (25%) 30%
Papers and paper board embossed, cut, stamped, glazed, etc. (25%).....30%
Manufactures of paper, n. s. p. f. (25%) 35%

Schedule 14—Sundries.

Asbestos goods (10%-20%).....25%-30%
Athletic goods 30%
Ice and roller skates.....20%
Automobile and bicycle tires (10%)...10%
Beads and spangles (35%-50%)..35%-60%
Boots and shoes with uppers chiefly of wool, cotton, silk, etc.....35%
Braids of straw, etc. (15%-20%).15%-20%
Hats of, not blocked (25%).....35%
Blocked (40%) 50%
Straw harvest hats, up to $3 doz...25%
Hats of, sewed.....60%
Brooms (15%) 15%
Brushes, including tooth (35%).....45%
Bristles (7c) 7c
Buttons of ivory, pearl, shell (25%-45%) per line per gross.....1¼c-1¾c plus 25%
Of agate (15%).....15%
Collar and cuff of bone, ivory, mother of pearl or agate and buttons n. s. p. f.....45%
Cork bark, cut, (4c).....8c
Stoppers, etc. of (12c-15c).....20c-25c
Artificial (3c) 6c
Goods of 10c
Granulated or ground (30%).....25%
Goods of and n. s. p. f. (30%).....30%
Dice, dominoes, checkers, chessmen, billiard balls, chips, (50%).....50%
Dolls, marbles, Christmas tree goods and toys, not chiefly of china, porcelain, bisque, earthen or stone ware (35%) 70%
Fans, except palm leaf (50%).....50%
Feathers and downs, undressed, etc. (20%) 20%
Dressed or manufactured, including quilts and millinery feathers (40%) 60%
Furs, except silver and black fox, dressed on skin (30%).....25%
Manufactures of (40%).....40%
Furs, silver or black fox (30%-40%)..50%
Furs, hatters', (15%).....35%
Hair, human, raw (10%).....10%
Cleaned or drawn, but not manufactured (20%) 20%
Manufactures of, including nets (35%) 35%
Hair cloth and felt, and goods of (6c-15c sq. yd.; also 25%).....25%-40%
Jewelry, valued above 20c doz., including cigarette, card and powder cases, buckles, combs, purses, pins, etc. (50%-60%) 75-80%
Diamonds, precious stones, uncut (10%) 10%
Cut, but not set (20%).....20%
Pearls, not set nor strung (20%)...20%
Laces and embroideries of all kinds (60%) 75%-90%
Leather, chamois, enameled upholstery, bag, strap, glove, seal, goat, sheep, calf, etc., but not shoe (F-15%)....20%
Leather bags, belts, wallets, satchels, etc. and leather goods n. s. p. f. (35%) 30%
Leather gloves ($1-$2.50 doz. pr.) per dozen pairs .....$4-$9, but falling within 50%-70%
Chiefly of horsehides and pigskins (F) 25%
Locks and padlocks (20%) doz. .....70c-$2 & 20%
Manufactures chiefly of bone, chip, grass, horn, quills, india rubber, gutta-percha, palm leaf, straw, weeds, whale-bone, n. s. p. f. (10%-25%) 25%
Manufactures chiefly of ivory, mother-of-pearl, shell, plaster of Paris, hard rubber, and manufactured shells (25%-35%) 35%
Matches, gross of 144 boxes (3c) 8c; when imported in bulk, per 1,000 matches (⅜c) .....¾c
Musical instruments and parts (35%).40%
Violins, violoncellos, double basses and violas (35%) each.....$1 & 35%
Paintings, pastels, drawings, etchings, engravings, sculpture and copies (15%) 20%
Pencils, not metal, and crayons (15%-36% gross, but at least 25%) gross .....45c & 25%
Phonographs, etc. and parts (25%)...30%
Needles for above (25%).....45%
Photographic cameras and parts (15%) 20%
Dry plates (15%).....15%
Motion picture films, sensitized but not exposed, lin. ft., 1⅜ in. wide 4/10c
Exposed but not developed, lin. ft...2c
Exposed and developed, lin. ft.....3c
Positives 1c
(On above, tariff of 1913 rates the same.)
Pipes and smokers' articles (50%)....60%
Of clay (25%).....15c gross to 45%
Religious articles 15%-30%
Partly of gold, silver, platinum, precious stones, gold or silver plate..50%
Sponges (10%-15%) 15%
Umbrellas, parasols, canes (30%-35%).40%

THE FREE LIST

The following articles may be imported without duties. They were similarly free of duty in the Underwood Tariff unless the latter's rates are indicated in brackets.

Agricultural implements—Plows, harrows, harvesters, reapers, drills and planters, headers, mowers, horserakes, cultivators, thrashing machines, cotton gins, cream separators valued under $50 and parts.
Animals for breeding.
Antimony Ore.
Antiques, art goods more than 100 yrs. old.

Antitoxins, vaccines, serums, etc.
Art goods, painting, sculpture, etc., for professional purpose only.
Articles of American manufacture or growth, exported abroad and returned in same condition, including bags, barrels, etc.
Asbestos, crude.
Asphalt, asphaltum and bitumen. Bananas.

Bagging, waste and waste sugar sack cloth.
Barbed wire. Bibles. Bread.
Binding twine, single ply and less than 750 ft. to the lb.
Bones, bone dust, meal and ash, etc.
Books, music, engravings, etc. more than 20 yrs. old; printed chiefly in language other than English; for the blind; for educational institutions and not for sale.
Borax and borate of lime, soda, etc.
Brass solely for remanufacture.
Brick, n. s. p. f. Bristles, crude.

Cement, Portland, Roman & other hydraulic.
Chalk, crude. Charcoal, wood.
Coal tar products, n. s. p. f. in Schedule 1.
Coal and coke. Cocoa. Coffee.
Copper ore, composition metal, fit only for remanufacture, clippings, etc.
Cork wood, bark, unmanufactured and cork waste shavings, refuse, etc.
Cotton and cotton waste. Coral.
Cyanide of potash, soda, etc.

Drugs in crude state (barks, beans, berries, roots, etc.) not edible nor containing alcohol.
Dyeing and tanning materials.

Eggs of birds, fish, insects, except roe.

Fans of palm leaf, not decorated, etc.
Fish—Herring, smelts, tuna.
Furs, undressed and n. s. p. f.

Gloves chiefly of leather from bovine hides.
Grasses and fibers: Istle or Tampico fiber, jute, manila, sisal, henequen, etc. not dressed or manufactured in any way.
Guano, manures and other fertilizer bases.
Gums and resin, n. s. p. f., including copal.
Gunpowder and other explosives, n. s. p. f.

Hair of animals, unmanufactured, n. s. p. f.
Hides of cattle, raw, dried, salted, etc.
Horns, unmanufactured. Ice.
Household goods actually used abroad at least one year and not intended for sale.

India rubber and gutta-percha, etc., crude and scrap india rubber and gutta percha fit only for remanufacture.
Iron ore and residuum from burnt pyrites.
Ivory tusks (20%). Jet, unmanufactured.

Junk, old.

Leather, harness and shoe uppers and soles, n. s. p. f. and leather boots and shoes.
Lemon, lime and sour orange juice.
Lithographic stones, not engraved.

Metallic mineral substances, crude and unwrought metals (10%-25%).
Mineral salts derived from mineral waters.
Minerals, crude, not advanced n. s. p. f.

Needles. Newspapers and periodicals.
Newsprint paper, standard.

Oil bearing seeds and nuts—Copra, Hempseed, palm and kernels, sesame, etc.
Oil cake and meal. Oil, fish and whale.
Oils, distilled and essential, including camphor, citronella, lime, otto of roses, etc., not containing alcohol (20%).
Oils, expressed or extracted, including palm and palm kernel and olive not for food.
Oils, mineral,—petroleum and distillates of.
Ores of gold, silver, nickel, platinum.

Parchment and vellum. Phosphates, crude.
Pearl, mother of and shells, natural state.
Plaster rock, gypsum. Platinum.
Potash, derivatives and salts, crude.
Paper stock, crude; rag pulp; wood pulp, mechanically ground and chemical, waste.

Sago and flour of. Sausage casings.
Seeds—chickpeas, cowpeas and sugar beets.
Sheep dip. Shoe machinery. Shingles.
Shellfish. Silk waste and cocoons.
Silk, raw, in reeled skeins, but not wound, doubled, twisted or advanced.
Skins and hides, n. s. p. f. Soda.
Statuary, regalia, altars, etc. for art, educational, religious use only, not sale.
Stone and sand—Burrstone, quartzite, trap-rock, rottenstone, tripoli and sand; and cliffstone, freestone, granite, sandstone, unmanufactured and not fit for building.
Sulphur and ore. Tapioca. Tar and pitch.

Tea, but containers of tea in packages under 5 lbs. each pay duty as if empty.
Tin ore and black oxide of, but 4c-6c if U. S. mines produce 1,500 lbs. annually.
Tin in bars or pigs and grain and scrap.
Turpentine and rosin. Typewriters.
Typesetting machinery. Wax, n. s. p. f.

Wearing apparel and personal effects of persons arriving in U. S. and actually owned by them abroad and not for sale or for others; personal effects taken abroad by residents of U. S. and up to $100 worth of goods acquired abroad for personal use.
Wood—Logs; timber, round, unmanufactured beyond sawing; pulp; firewood; sawn boards and planks, not advanced beyond sawing, planing or grooving; clapboards, laths; railroad ties; telephone, etc. poles; pickets, palings, hoops, staves.
Woods—Sticks of orange, bamboo, rattan, etc., in rough or not advanced beyond length suitable for umbrellas, etc.

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Tariff Board.—The Payne-Aldrich Tariff Act of 1909 authorized the President to appoint persons to secure information concerning the tariff and in other ways to aid the administration of the customs laws. In September, 1909, President Taft appointed, under this authority, a Tariff Board of three members, later increased to five. In 1910-11, Congress authorized an appropriation for the work of the Board, and it functioned in making investigations, and in reporting its findings to the President and to Congress. However, dissatisfaction with the Payne-Aldrich Tariff included the Tariff

Board, as it was felt that the Board was partly responsible for the refusal of the Republican Party to lower the tariff rates to a substantial degree; and when the Democratic Party obtained control in the House of Representatives in 1911, the appropriations for the Board were ended, so that the life of the Board came to an end in June, 1912.

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Tariff Commission.—The plea long coming from all classes and parts of the country to "take the tariff out of politics" was finally met in the Revenue Act passed by Congress on September 8, 1916. That bill provided for a Tariff Commission of 6 members, not more than 3 of whom are to belong to the same political party. The members are appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, for a period of 12 years' service, and command a yearly salary of $7,500. Provision is made for power to subpoena witnesses, conduct investigations, etc., in order to make the work of the Commission effective. The duties of the Commission are to investigate and to report annually on the effect of the tariff rates to Congress, and at any other time when requested to the President or to the Tariff Committees of the House and the Senate. The members of the first commission appointed under the act of 1916 were: Prof. F. W. Taussig, of Harvard University, Chairman; ex-Congressman David J. Lewis, of Maryland; Edward P. Costigan, of Colorado; ex-Congressman William Kent, of California; W. S. Culbertson, of Kansas; and Daniel C. Roper, of South Carolina. (See Tariff.)

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Tax, Inheritance. (See Inheritance Tax.)

Tax, Poll. (See Poll Tax.)

Taxation.—The exaction of money from the individual for the use of the state is a function of all forms of government. The generally accepted theory of taxation in America is that money to be used in the service of all the citizens of the state is justly raised by taxation; that a tax which does not bear equally upon all or which, bearing equally upon all, is used only for the benefit of a few is unjust. The direction taken by all efforts at tax reform is toward self-annexation—i. e., the community as a whole to decide what is required of each individual for the public expense. Out of this principle grew the doctrine that no tax can be levied save by the representatives of the people who must pay it. It was in defense of this principle that the American colonists objected to the stamp tax imposed by Parliament and raised the claim that "taxation without representation" is tyranny. The tax levied by a conquering nation upon a vanquished foe is tribute. Direct taxation is authorized by the Constitution in proportion to the population.

The first direct tax was for $2,000,000, and was levied pro rata upon the sixteen states existing in 1798. Others have since been levied, notably that of 1861, when $20,000,000 was levied in this manner for prosecuting the war. Three-fourths of this amount was by act of March 2, 1891, refunded to the states. Congress is forbidden by the Constitution to lay any tax or duty on exports (page 20). States are forbidden to lay duties on either exports or imports, but may resort to direct taxation. Until the Civil War the federal government relied chiefly upon duties upon imports for its revenue, but since that time an internal-revenue tax has been collected. Income taxes have become established and inheritance taxes have been recommended. State taxation is direct and is assessed upon real and personal property, upon privileges, and upon individuals or polls. Before 1800 most of the states passed laws to regulate taxation. All except Delaware levied a tax on land, and nine of the original thirteen states collected a poll tax. The systems of county, state, and municipal taxation are numerous and constantly changing. According to the contention of those who favor the single-tax theory, taxation should be solely upon land values, exclusive of improvements. (See Income Tax; Inheritance Tax; Internal Revenue; Single Tax; Tariff.)

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Taxes, Direct.—Section 8 of Article I of the Constitution authorizes Congress to lay and collect taxes. During the history of the Government it has not been deemed necessary to lay direct taxes but five times—in 1798, 1813, 1815, 1816, and 1862. The last time was during the Civil War, when a direct tax of $20,000,000 was levied, to be proportionately assessed against all lots of ground with their improvements and dwelling houses. The operation of the act was suspended July 1, 1872, and by an act of March 2, 1891, $15,000,000 of this amount was refunded to the states. The earlier direct taxes were levied on houses, lands, and slaves. (See also Income Tax; Inheritance Tax.)

Taylor, Zachary.—March 5, 1849-July 9, 1850.

Sixteenth Administration—Whig.

Vice-President—Millard Fillmore.

Secretary of State—
John M. Clayton.

Secretary of the Treasury—
William M. Meredith.

Secretary of War—
George W. Crawford.

Secretary of the Navy—
William B. Preston.

Secretary of the Interior—
Thomas Ewing.

Postmaster-General—
Jacob Collamer.

Attorney-General—
Reverdy Johnson.

Taylor was elected by the Whig party, Nov. 7, 1848. He was nominated at the Whig National Convention at Philadelphia, June 7 and 8, 1848. Clay was the next most popular candidate for nomination.

Platform.—The platform endorsed General Taylor's candidacy, proclaimed Washington's administration as the model, supported the Mexican War, and solicited the support of the Whig party.

Opposition.—The Free-Soil Convention, or Barnburners, and the Abolitionists supported Van Buren. At the Free-Soil Convention at Buffalo, Aug. 9 and 10, Van Buren was formally nominated on a platform maintaining the rights of free labor against the slave power and the securing of a free soil for a free people, proposing no Federal interference with slavery, citing the Jefferson proviso of 1800 against the extension of slavery, advocating the prohibition of slavery in all new territory, demanding freedom in Oregon, cheap postage, and government retrenchment, supporting internal improvements, recommending free grants of land to settlers, and advising rapid payment of the public debt. The Democratic National Convention at Baltimore, May 22-26, 1848, nominated Lewis Cass on a platform which included the platforms of 1840 and 1844, endorsed and justified the Mexican War, expressed sympathy with the republicans of France, denounced monopolies and exclusive legislation, and heartily endorsed the policies of Polk.

Vote.—The popular vote cast by thirty States gave Taylor, 1,360,601; Cass, 1,220,544; and Van Buren, 291,263. The electoral vote, counted on Feb. 14, 1849, gave Taylor 163 and Cass 127.

Party Affiliation.—Taylor's continuous service in the army of the United States left him entirely free from party or sectional attachments. When his name was brought forward for nomination at the Whig convention, several resolutions were offered seeking to bind Taylor to the support of such Whig policies as the non-extension of slave territory, no more foreign acquisition by conquest, the protection of American industries, and opposition to the usurpation of authority by the Executive. But these resolutions were ruled out of order. Upon all of these questions, and upon Whig policies generally, Taylor had never distinctly declared himself. He was the only man available who could heal the breach in the party and unite all the discordant elements with possible hope of success. Although the Whigs had opposed the Mexican War with vehemence, they nevertheless chose as their candidate a man who had played the most important part in the prosecution of the war.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the Thirty-first Congress (1849-1851), the Senate, of 62 members, was composed of 35 Democrats, 25 Whigs, and 2 Free-Soil; and the House, of 227 members, was made up of 116 Democrats and 111 Whigs. In the Thirty-second Congress (1851-1853), the Senate, of 62 members, was composed of 36 Democrats, 23 Whigs, and 3 Free-Soil; and the House, of 233 members, was made up of 140 Democrats, 88 Whigs, and 5 Free-Soil.

Foreign Policy.—The ratification of the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty (see Great Britain, Treaties with) took place during the administration of President Taylor. The question of the Panama railway, upon which it bore, was referred to in President Taylor's First Annual Message (page 2555) and again in the message (page 2580) presenting the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty to the Senate for ratification. In expressing his reasons for the conclusion of this treaty, he says: "At the time negotiations were opened with Nicaragua for the construction of a canal through her territory I found Great Britain in possession of nearly half of Central America, as the ally and protector of the Mosquito king."

Finances.—The public debt on July 1, 1849, amounted to $63,061,858.69. In speaking of the increase, President Taylor said (page 2555): "The extraordinary expenses of the Mexican War and the purchase of California and New Mexico exceed

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT TAYLOR, 1849-1850.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)

AG OF 1850

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in amount this deficit, together with the loans heretofore made for these objects. I therefore recommend that authority be given to borrow whatever sum may be necessary to cover that deficit. I recommend the observance of strict economy in the appropriation and expenditure of public money." He leaves the matter of the subtreasury system to the wisdom of Congress, and adds: "If continued, important modifications of it appear to be indispensable."

Tariff.—In his First Annual Message (page 2556) President Taylor advocated a revision of the tariff so as to increase the revenue. He said: "I do not doubt the right or duty of Congress to encourage home industry, which is the great source of national as well as individual wealth and prosperity. I look to the wisdom and patriotism of Congress for the adoption of a system which may place home labor at last on a sure and permanent footing and by due encouragement of manufactures give a new and increased stimulus to agriculture and promote the development of our vast resources and the extension of our commerce." He strongly recommends the placing of specific duties instead of *ad valorem*, and suggested the fixing of duties high enough "to afford substantial and sufficient encouragement to our own industry and at the same time so adjusted as to insure stability."

Taylor, Zachary:
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Great Britain, 2580, 2617, 2903, 2943, 3117.
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Telegraph.—The earliest form of telegraphy is signaling, by means of flags, smoke, etc., a form which has by no means vanished from modern life; but the use of electricity to transmit messages over great distances was first seriously investigated around the middle of the eighteenth century. The succeeding progress of attempts to perfect a telegraph system is bound up with the progress of knowledge concerning the principles of electricity and magnetism. (The history of the Wireless Telegraph is treated under that head.)

In 1774 Le Sage of Switzerland improved upon the experiments in the fields of telegraphy which had been prosecuted for sev-

eral decades before that date by perfecting a wireless system about one mile long, in which a separate wire was used to transmit each letter. Le Sage used frictional electricity, as had his predecessors in that field of research. In the same year, however, Volta discovered the fact that electricity could be generated by chemical means, and this discovery was used in most later experiments of importance, which had become very numerous by the first two decades of the nineteenth century.

In 1820 Oersted discovered that a magnet needle was deflected when placed parallel to a wire over which an electric current was passing, and soon afterwards many telegraph magnetic needles came into use. Faraday's announcement soon afterward that an induced current was produced by passing a magnet through a helix of wire made the completion of a practicable telegraph system inevitably imminent. In 1831, Joseph Henry of Albany, New York, set up the first electro-magnetic telegraph system, using voltaic batteries and electro-magnets. The direct discovery of the methods used in practically all modern telegraph systems, however, was made by Samuel F. B. Morse (1791-1872) of New York City, in 1837, and a telegraph line between Baltimore and Washington was put into operation in 1844. In 1872 J. B. Stearns perfected a system whereby two messages could be sent at the same time in opposite directions and in the next two years Thomas A. Edison improved upon Stearns' results by inventions which allowed four messages to be sent at the same time in the same direction.

All the great European countries own and direct their own telegraph systems in conjunction with the postal systems. Under President Taft's administration Postmaster-General Hitchcock proposed (page 7732) that the United States follow their example, but his recommendation was not followed.

The latest available figures for the great telegraph systems of the world are as follows:

Country	*Miles Wire*	*Offices*	*Annual Messages*
Argentina	164,461	3,461*	8,805,700
A stralia	133,491	8,565*	19,432,474
Belgium	26,505	1,707	9,798,751
Brazil	83,554	2,470	5,350,603
Canada	229,598	5,021	11,980,869
Chile	34,826	999	5,598,200
China	56,280	.....	.....
Czecho-Slovakia	48,210	3,519	6,993,626
France	451,195	23,117	67,771,000
Germany	474,501	50,013	57,542,900
Great Britain	3,375,247	14,035	83,163,000
India, British	357,472	10,373	21,314,943
Italy	224,607	8,980	20,284,041
Japan	122,000	7,647	53,482,185
Mexico	63,928	528	5,591,500
Netherlands	27,542	1,388	7,814,200
New Zealand	50,898	2,344*	11,989,882
Norway	15,151	1,814	3,085,157
Poland	54,615	1,005	.....
Russia**	476,177	19,104*	37,733,804
Spain	67,142	2,520	10,000,000
Sweden	46,861	3,309	7,769,426
Switzerland	19,053	2,410	7,707,473

United States (See adjoining table).

* Post-offices. ** 1913.

The statistics of telegraph systems in the United States are as follows:

Number of systems	27
Offices	28,865
Miles of single wire	1,890,245
Messages sent	151,725,228
Number of employees	51,574
Annual salaries and wages	$ 39,643,911
Total revenue	$109,703,428
Total expenses	$ 91,871,159

Telegraph:
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Telegraph Lines (see also Atlantic Telegraph; International Ocean Telegraph):
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Proposed overland, between America and Europe, discussed, 3445.
Unification of, urged, 8719.
Union of Postal system and, discussed. (See Government Control of, *ante.*)

Telephone.—The first forms of the modern telephone were the speaking tube and the string telephone. The latter consisted of two membrane receivers and mouthpieces combined, connected by a string, and mention is made of it as early as 1667. The name "telephone" occurs in print for the first time in 1821. The history of the discoveries leading to the modern telephone are wrapped up in the same progress of knowledge concerning the principles of electricity and magnetism as are described in the article on the Telegraph (q. v.).

In 1837 Page of Boston discovered that a bar would give out sound when subjected to rapid magnetic waves, and in 1861 Reis of Germany used this discovery to perfect an electrical arrangement which he called a telephone.

However, little advance in modern telephony was made until 1876, when Alexander Graham Bell filed in the Patent Office at Washington plans for an instrument which bears a close approximation to the modern telephone. Elisha Gray made similar discoveries at about the same time, but a Supreme Court decree finally awarded the priority of discovery to Bell. The growth of the telephone from the time of Bell's discoveries was rapid. In 1885 telephone connection was completed between New York and Philadelphia; in 1902, between New York and Chicago; and in 1915 between San Francisco and New York. Many of the telephone systems of Europe are under public management and control.

In the United States, most of the telephone systems are members of or are connected with the Bell System. In 1918, there were 9,847,192 telephone instruments

in use in this system, representing 19,850,000 miles of wire and 29,420,000 average daily telephone conversations.

The most recent statistics for the telephone systems of the United States are as follows:

Number systems	2,200
Number of employees	244,490
Annual wages and salaries	$ 169,655,066
Capital stock & funded debt	$ 1,169,073,870
Revenue, total	$ 372,501,800
Expenses, including taxes	$ 313,103,060
Miles of pole line	780,200
Miles of single wire	28,827,188
Number of telephones	*9,953,710
Annual no. talks, estimated	19,809,061,085
Average talks per telephone	1,990

*Almost one to every two families.

Before the World War, it was estimated that there were some 13,570,000 telephones in use in the world. Of this number, about 65% were in the United States. The number of telephones in some other countries was estimated as follows: Germany, 1,420,000; Great Britain, 780,500; Canada, 500,000; Russia, 375,000; France, 330,000; Japan, 220,000.

A recent report of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company estimates the telephones in the leading American republics as follows:

Country	*'Phones*	*Per 100 Pop.*	*Miles Wire*
Argentina	105,205	1.11	318,417
Brazil	67,366	0.25	213,238
Chile	23,670	0.59	44,371
Uruguay	19,486	1.34	40,721
Mexico	40,211	0.25	111,794
Cuba	28,152	1.00	83,799

The latest available records give the number of telephone instruments in use in some of the leading cities of the United States as follows:

City or Area	*Telephones*	*Per 100 Pop.*
San Francisco	143,318	27.6
Minneapolis	94,509	24.4
Chicago	554,114	20.5
Washington, D. C.	83,839	18.9
Boston	272,244	17.8
Cleveland	137,871	15.3
Cincinnati	90,485	15.2
New York	845,890	15.0
Pittsburgh	124,352	14.1
Milwaukee	74,153	14.1
Philadelphia	235,050	12.9
St. Louis	131,103	12.7
Buffalo	65,042	12.2
Detroit	134,491	12.1
Baltimore	79,011	10.8
FOREIGN COUNTRIES		
Copenhagen, Denmark	90,625	13.9
Montreal, Canada	70,515	9.1
Sydney, Australasia	54,528	6.9
Berlin, Germany	154,800	6.6
Melbourne, Australasia	44,009	6.1
Hamburg, Germany	77,322	5.9
Munich, Germany	34,323	5.5
Leipzig, Germany	31,176	5.0
London, England	311,350	4.3
Warsaw, Poland	32,804	4.2
Amsterdam, Netherlands	21,727	3.5
Glasgow, Scotland	40,963	3.3
Liverpool, England	38,493	3.3
Budapest, Hungary	27,944	3.2
Buenos Ayres, Argentina	54,676	3.2
Paris, France	95,033	3.2
Vienna, Austria	64,438	3.2
Peking, China	14,808	2.1
Rome, Italy	12,701	2.1
Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	23,510	2.0
Tokio, Japan	49,900	2.0

Telephone. (See illustration opposite 4450.)

Telephone Lines:
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Control over, by Interstate Commerce Commission, 7200.
Government possession and control of, proclaimed, 8551.
In Philippines, 6732.
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Ten-Hour System. (See Hours of Labor.)

Tenements, evils of, 6902.

Tennessee.—One of the southern group of states. Nicknames: "The Volunteer State"; "The Big Bear State"; motto: "Agriculture; Commerce." It lies between lat. 35° and 36° 35′ north and long. 81° 37′ and 90° 15′ west. Tennessee is bounded on the north by Kentucky and Virginia, on the east and southeast by North Carolina (separated by the Great Smoky and Bald ranges of the Alleghanies), on the south by Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi, and on the west by Arkansas and Missouri (separated by the Mississippi River). The area is 42,022 square miles. The eastern portion of the state is mountainous, while the extreme western part, bordering on the Mississippi River, consists of a flat alluvial plain, where vegetation grows with almost tropical luxuriance. Between these two extremes are the valley of the Tennessee in its southern course, an important agricultural region, and the Cumberland Plateau, a table-land with an elevation of 2,000 feet. Extending from this plateau to the Tennessee River in its northern course through the state lies the great central basin, sometimes called the Garden of the State. West of the Tennessee Valley rises another fertile plateau before the descent to the lowlands of the Mississippi. The leading productions are corn, wheat, cotton, and live stock. Tennessee produces some of the finest tobacco grown in the United States. Manufactures of cotton goods and iron have grown up since the Civil War. The capital, Nashville, is one of the greatest educational centers in the South.

The first permanent settlement was made in 1769 at Wautauga by immigrants from North Carolina. When North Carolina proposed to cede this territory to the General Government these settlers objected and organized a state under the name of Franklin (q. v.). This government was overthrown and a Territory was organized in 1790. The state was admitted to the Union June 1, 1796. In January, 1861, a proposal to secede from the Union was defeated by popular vote, but carried in the election of June 8 of the same year. The state was the scene of some of the fiercest battles of the Civil War, including those of Island No. 10, Nashville, Lookout Mountain, Murfreesboro, Fort Donelson, Shiloh, Missionary Ridge, etc. It was readmitted into the Union in 1866.

The 1920 census gave the population as 2,337,885. In 1910, the population was 2,184,789, of whom 473,088 were negroes and 18,607 were foreign-born, including 3,903 German, 2,296 Irish, 2,034 Italian, 2,045 English, 2,484 Russian. Of the total population in 1920, 26% was urban, as compared with a 20% urban population in 1910. About 40% of the population are Baptists and 33% Methodists.

The most recent educational statistics show 697,110 children between the ages of 5 and 18, of whom 591,346 were enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 406,044. There were 12,947 teachers, of whom 3,376 were males. There are 226 public high schools, with 620 male and 776 female teachers, and 12,438 male and 18,096 female students.

Recent agricultural statistics of the Census Bureau gave the number of farms in the state as 246,012, with a total acreage of 20,041,657, or 81½ acres per farm. The 1920 census showed 252,691 farms. Fifty-four per cent of the farm land was classified as improved.

Recent figures for farm animals showed 353,000 horses, 384,000 milch cows, 593,000 cattle, 584,000 sheep, 1,946,000 swine. The last annual wool clip was estimated at 1,954,000 pounds.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	3,325,000	93,100,000	$80,997,000
Cotton	824,000	a310,000	20,150,000
Hay	1,470,000	b2,050,000	41,915,000
Tobacco	117,000	c85,410,000	17,082,000
Wheat	424,000	4,028,000	7,855,000
Potatoes	43,000	3,570,000	5,710,000
Oats	350,000	8,225,000	6,416,000
Sweet Potatoes	42,000	4,285,000	5,269,000

a—bales; b—tons; c—pounds.

There is much raising of fruit, particularly strawberries. The last apple crop was put at 5,304,000 bushels, peach and nectarine at 1,000,000 bushels, pear at 146,000 bushels. In addition, peanuts are grown in the Tennessee Valley.

The most important mineral product is coal, of which the last annual production was 6,100,000 long tons. The pig-iron production was 190,000 tons; iron ore, 410,000 long tons. The average annual copper production is in the neighborhood of 18,000,000 pounds and the zinc, 16,000 short tons.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Tennessee having an annual output valued at more than $500 at the beginning of 1915 was 4,775. The amount of capital invested was $211,423,000, giving employment to 88,514 persons, using material valued at $123,430,000, and turning out finished goods worth $212,071,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $44,910,000.

Tennessee (see also Confederate States; Memphis):
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Operation of, under Maj.-Gen. Jackson against Indian allies of Great Britain, 533.
Recommendation that Government pay expenses incurred by, 1454, 1474.

Tennesse Bond Cases.—A series of seventeen cases decided by the United States Supreme Court in 1885. In 1852 the Tennessee legislature passed an act making certain railroad bonds a statutory lien upon the property on which they were issued. Holders of state bonds afterwards brought suit to establish their lien upon the property in question. The Supreme Court held that the lien was created for the benefit of the state and not of the holders of state bonds issued under that act.

Tennessee Centennial.—An exposition held in Nashville, Tenn., from May 1 to Oct. 30, 1897, to celebrate the one hundredth anniversary of the admission of the state into the Union. The site covered about 200 acres and a notable feature was a lawn of bluegrass, a characteristic of the region. There were more than one hundred buildings, containing exhibits of art, education, and progress in the various industries, as well as forms of amusement. The total attendance was 1,786,714. The total receipts were $1,101,285, and the disbursements $1,101,246.

Tennessee River:
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Tenure-of-Office Act.—Under the terms of the Constitution the power of making appointments is vested in the President, to be exercised with the advice and consent of the Senate. In the course of his disputes with Congress, President Johnson was charged with a corrupt use of the power of appointment and removal, and on the first day of the second session of the Thirty-ninth Congress a bill was introduced "to regulate the tenure of certain civil offices." It was passed over the President's veto March 2, 1867, and was repealed in 1887. This act provided that, with certain exceptions, every officer appointed with the concurrence of the Senate should retain his office until a successor should be in like manner appointed. Johnson was impeached for violating the act in 1868 with regard to Secretary-of-War Stanton.

Tenure-of-Office Act:
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Territorial Expansion:

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Territories.—At the close of the Revolutionary War several of the states had claims to extensive tracts of land beyond their western borders. The claim was set up that these territories belonged to the United States, as having been won by all in common. Between 1781 and 1802 all these outlying tracts passed by acts of cession under the jurisdiction of the United States. Subsequent additions have been made by purchase or treaty. (See Alaska, California, Florida, Gadsden Purchase, Louisiana Purchase, Oregon, Texas, etc.) The Continental Congress resolved that the western territory to be ceded to the United States "shall be settled and formed into distinct republican states, which shall become members of the Federal Union and have the same rights of sovereignty, freedom, and independence as the other states." The Northwest Territory was organized in 1787, the Southwest in 1790. The Federal District of Columbia is governed directly by Congress, through a commission. An organized territory has a governor, appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, for four years, and a legislature composed of a council and a house of representatives chosen every two years by the people. A delegate to Congress is elected by the people every two years. He sits in the House of Representatives, where he may take part in debates, but is not permitted to vote.

Territorial legislation is subject to control by the federal Congress. The judges of territorial courts are appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, with appellate jurisdiction over these courts exercised by the United States Supreme Court.

The present territories of the United States are Alaska and Hawaii, the District of Columbia being considered a federal district. The Philippine Islands and Porto Rico are technically dependencies. The former has two resident commissioners in Washington and the latter, one. The other possessions of the United States, in order of acquisition, are Wake and other islands, Guam, Samoan Islands, Panama Canal Zone and Virgin Islands. (See Alaska, Canal Zone, District of Columbia, Guam, Hawaii, Philippine Islands, Porto Rico, Samoan Islands, Wake, Virgin Islands.)

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Texas.—The largest of the United States; nickname, "The Lone Star State." It lies between lat. 25° 51′ and 36° 30′ north and long. 93° 27′ and 106° 40′ west. It is bounded on the north by Oklahoma, on the northeast by Arkansas, on the east by Arkansas and Louisiana, on the south and southeast by the Gulf of Mexico, on the south and southwest by Mexico, and on the west by New Mexico. It has an area of 265,896 square miles. It consists of a low coast region in the southeast, west of this a prairie country, a hilly region, elevated plains to the north and west, and a mountainous country west of the Pecos River. It is an important agricultural state, the leading products being cotton, corn, live stock, sugar and rice. The manufacture of lumber and timber products, cotton seed oil and grist and flour mill products are the chief industries. The discovery and development of the oil fields has added to the wealth and population of the State.

La Salle made a landing at Matagorda Bay and built a fort in 1685. By the treaty of 1819-1821 with Spain the United States surrendered her claim that Texas was included in the Louisiana Purchase. Meanwhile Mexico had declared her independence of Spain, and Texas with Coahuila formed a state of the Mexican Republic. Texas seceded from Mexico, proclaiming her independence March 2, 1836. After the defeat of the Mexican forces under Santa Anna, by General Houston in the battle of San Jacinto, April 21, 1836, the Republic of Texas was recognized by England, France, Belgium and the United States. Annexation was accomplished by a joint resolution of Congress Dec. 29, 1845.

The dispute over the Western boundary led to the Mexican War. On March 25, 1850, Texas ceded to the United States all claims to territory outside her present limits, receiving therefor $10,000,000. An ordinance of secession was passed Feb. 1, 1861. The State was readmitted to the Union March 30, 1870.

In the eastern part of the state are valuable yellow-pine forests, and there are oyster and other fisheries on the coast.

In 1920, the population was 4,663,228, as compared with 3,896,542 in 1910. In the latter year, there were 690,049 negroes and 241,938 foreign-born, including 125,015 Mexicans, 44,929 Germans, 20,570 Austrians, 5,357 Irish, 8,498 English, 4,706 Swedes, 7,190 Italians, 5,739 Russians. The 1920 census showed 32% of the population as urban.

The most recent educational statistics show 1,441,881 children between the ages of 5 and 18, of whom the enrolment in the public schools is 1,098,989, with an average daily attendance of 788,391 and a teaching staff of 29,001, of whom 5,229 are males. There are 673 public high schools, with 1,110 male and 1,801 female teachers, and 45,735 male and 60,320 female students.

The most recent agricultural statistics available show 417,770 farms in the state, with an average of 269 acres to the farm, and with 24% of the farm land classified as improved. The 1920 census showed 435,666 farms. The number of farm animals is given as follows: Horses, 1,199,000; mules, 784,000; milch cows, 1,094,000; cattle, 4,287,000; sheep, 2,232,000; swine, 2,320,000. The last annual wool clip amounted to 11,250,000 pounds.

The last agricultural output was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Cotton	12,576,000	a4,200,000	$277,200,000
Corn	6,700,000	174,200,000	146,328,000
Oats	1,575,000	44,100,000	29,106,000
Sorghums	1,906,000	60,992,000	73,800,000
Wheat	1,225,000	15,925,000	27,391,000
Hay, tame	662,000	b1,092,000	14,633,000
Rice	281,000	9,554,000	11,942,000
Sw. Potatoes	89,000	9,345,000	12,148,000
Peanuts	184,000	4,784,000	8,563,000
Potatoes	45,000	2,340,000	5,148,000

a—bales; b—tons.

The last annual fruit production included 351,000 bushels of apples, 480,000 bushels of peaches and 205,000 bushels of pears. Texas is located in one of the richest petroleum fields in the United States; the annual output of petroleum for a recent year being 38,750,000 barrels, valued at more than $70,000,000. There is also some production of natural gas. The average annual coal production is more than 2,000,000 tons. Other minerals found and worked are quicksilver, cement, asphalt and salt. The clay products are valuable, and there is also some production of copper, silver and zinc.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Texas having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 5,084. The amount of capital invested was $283,544,000, giving employment to 91,114 persons, using material valued at $253,090,000 and turning out finished goods worth $361,279,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $59,179,000.

In rank of value of product, the leading of these industries were as follows: Slaughtering and meat-packing; oil, cottonseed and cake; flour and grist mill; lumber and timber.

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Texas vs. White et al.—A case before the Supreme Court of the United States in which the acts of secession of the Southern States were declared void and the rights of a State of the Union held to be unimpaired by the acts of a revolutionary government within the State.

In 1851 the United States issued to the State of Texas 5,000 coupon bonds for $1,000 each, payable to the State of Texas or bearer, with interest at 5 per cent semi-annually, in settlement of certain boundary claims. Some of these bonds were seized by the officers of the State government during the Civil War and sold to White & Chiles and others of New York. The bonds were payable only when indorsed by the governor. The State convention in 1866 passed an ordinance looking to the recovery of these bonds. An act passed in October of that year authorized the governor to proceed in his discretion to carry out this intention. The agent appointed by the executive procured the filing of a bill the same year asking for an injunction and the recovery of the bonds in question. The case came before the Supreme Court of the United States at the December term, 1868, on the original bill. The injunction was granted on the general ground that the action of a revolutionary State government did not affect the right of Texas as a State of the Union having a government acknowledging her obligations to the Federal Constitution. The court pronounced the act of secession void, Chief Justice Chase rendering the opinion. Justice Grier dissented on all the points raised and decided. Justices Swayne and Miller concurred in dissenting on the capacity of the State of Texas, "in her present condition," to waive on an original suit. On the merits of the case they united with the majority.

Further hearing was accorded to certain parties, and both complainant and defendants were granted liberty in the decree to apply for further directions in its execution. In one place in the court's opinion the Chief Justice said it was a historical fact that in 1862 the government of Texas in control was its only actual government, its acts in almost all respects valid, though unlawful and revolutionary as to the United States. December, 1869, the additional part of this celebrated case, known in the reports as Texas *vs.* Hardenberg, arose, the Chief Justice deciding for the court that upon the whole case the decree must be for the complainant as to the bonds claimed by Hardenberg.

Further decisions of the Supreme Court on additional portions of the case are as follows, briefly: December, 1870, *In re* Paschal, Justice Bradley delivering the court's judgment, it was ordered that the motion to compel George W. Paschal to pay to the clerk of the court the money received by him be denied. An order was granted to discharge him as solicitor and counsel for the complainant in the second case. October, 1874, *In re* Chiles, Justice Miller rendering the court's opinion, Justices Field and Hunt dissenting, it was ordered that Chiles pay a fine of $250 and the costs of the proceeding and stand committed to the marshal's custody until the same be paid. This was for contempt in disobeying the court's decree.

Textiles, Dyeing and Finishing of. (See Dyeing and Finishing Textiles.)

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Thames (Canada), Battle of.—After Perry's victory over the British fleet on Lake Erie, Gen. Harrison completed his preparations for the invasion of Canada. Sept. 21, 1813, the embarkation of the army on Perry's transports began. On the afternoon of the 27th the Army of the Northwest, consisting of 5,000 men, under the immediate command of Gen. Harrison and Gen. Shelby, governor of Kentucky, landed at Amherstburg (Malden), but found that Proctor's army, about 800 regulars and 1,200 Indians, had fled inland. Harrison started in hot pursuit. In response to the repeated demands of Tecumseh the British made a stand about eight miles north of the river Thames. Here they were attacked on Oct. 5 by about 3,000 Americans. A short but decisive battle took place, in which the British and Indians were completely routed and Chief Tecumseh was killed. The precise number of casualties in this battle is not known. The American loss was probably about 15 killed and twice that number wounded. The British lost about 18 killed, 26 wounded, and 600 taken prisoners, of whom 25 were officers. Proctor made his escape. Thirty-three dead Indians were found upon the field after the battle. (See the illustration opposite page 707.)

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Third Assistant Postmaster-General. (See Assistant Postmasters-General.)

Third Assistant Secretary of State, State Department.—This office was created in 1875, and at the present time carries with it an annual salary of $4,500. The third assistant secretary of state is appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate. He has direct supervision over the Division of Near Eastern Affairs and the Diplomatic, Appointments and Accounts Bureaus of the State Department. He presents newly-accredited foreign ambassadors and ministers to the President and has responsibility for matters relating to ceremonials and protocols. He also functions as the chairman of the Board of Examiners for the Diplomatic Service.

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Thrace.—The name applied to the eastern part of the Balkan peninsula, north and northeast of the Aegean Sea and southwest of the Black Sea. Its boundaries are indefinite. After the fall of Constantinople in the fifteenth century, it fell to the Turks. As a result of the Turko-Russian War, the northern part was given a certain amount of autonomy in 1878, and after the Balkan Wars of 1912-3, this northern section was handed over to Bulgaria, while much of the remainder of Thrace was given to Greece. As a result of the defeat of Turkey and Bulgaria, and the victory of Greece, in the World War, most of Thrace was assigned to Greece. The population of Thrace is extremely mixed, with Bulgarian Slavs, Greeks and Turks in the ascendency in most sections.

Thrace, territorial disposition of, 8840.

Three-Cent Piece.—A small silver coin authorized by Congress in 1851. It was coined

from 1851 to 1873, inclusive, with the exception of the year 1857. Its weight was originally 12,375 grains, but in 1853 this was reduced to 11.52 grains. The three-cent coin was legal tender to the amount of thirty cents. March 3, 1865, Congress authorized another three-cent piece, to be made of an alloy of copper and nickel. With the exception of the year 1877, this piece was coined continuously till 1890. Its weight was thirty grains.

Three-Dollar Piece.—A gold coin of the United States, authorized in 1853. Its coinage was begun the next year and continued till 1890. The weight of the coin was 77.4 grains, and it was legal tender to an unlimited amount.

Thrift Stamps.—Certificates for sale at twenty-five cents each, issued by the United States Treasury during the war against the Central Powers and later. They were issued for those unable to purchase Liberty Loan bonds (q. v.) or War Savings Stamps (q. v.); and purchasers were appealed to to purchase them, not by withdrawing money from other sources but through the exercise of economy or thrift. The sales campaign was opened on December 3, 1918. The arrangement by which thrift stamps were sold was that no interest would be paid upon them, but that when enough had been purchased to buy an interest-bearing War Savings Stamp, such an exchange could be effected.

Thrift, appeal for practise of, 8519.

Thurman Act. (See Pacific Railroads.)

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Ticonderoga (N. Y.), Capture of.—As soon as the events of Lexington and Concord became known it was decided by the Americans to seize the British fort at Ticonderoga, at the junction of Lakes George and Champlain. The place was garrisoned by 44 men under Capt. Delaplace. On the night of May 10, 1775, Col. Ethan Allen, with other officers and 270 Green Mountain boys, gained an entrance to the fort and Allen demanded its surrender, as traditionally reported, "in the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress." Finding resistance useless, Delaplace surrendered the garrison and 120 cannon, with muskets, ball, and powder. The surprise was so complete that not a man was lost.

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Timber-Culture Act.—An act passed by Congress March 3, 1873, for the promotion of forestry. It granted to settlers 160 acres of treeless land on condition that they plant and cultivate a certain number of forest trees.

Timber-Culture Act:

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Timber Lands. (See Lands, Public.)

Time, Regulation of. (See International Meridian Conference.)

Tippecanoe and Tyler too.—The campaign cry used prior to the election of Harrison and Tyler in 1840, arising from Harrison's success at the Battle of Tippecanoe. (See Tippecanoe, Battle of.)

Tippecanoe, Battle of (Nov. 7, 1811).—In 1806, Tecumseh, chief of the Shawnee Indians, and his brother Elkswatana, called the Prophet, formed a plan for a great confederacy of all the western and southern Indians against the whites. Their doctrine was opposed to tribal rights, and they claimed that no part of the territory could be sold by any tribe to the whites without the consent of all the Indians.

William Henry Harrison, who had been on the staff of General Anthony Wayne at the battle of Maumee Rapids, and Secretary to General Arthur St. Clair, Governor of the Northwest Territory, was appointed in 1801, Governor of the Indiana Territory, from which was later formed the States of Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. By the close of 1805 Harrison had extinguished Indian titles to 46,000 acres of land in the territory. Sept. 30, 1809, he concluded a treaty by which, for $10,550, he secured nearly 3,000,000 acres along the Wabash and White Rivers. Tecumseh and the Prophet told the Indians they were cheated by the treaties, and appealed to their savage nature to turn against the whites. About 1808 Tecumseh established his council fire on the banks of the Tippecanoe River in Tippecanoe County, Indiana, near the site of the present village of Battle Ground. Harrison was aware of the hostile feeling among the Indians over the treaties of Vincennes and Fort Wayne, which he had negotiated, and began preparations for defense. While building a stockade on the site of the present city of Terre Haute, Oct. 11, 1811, one of the white sentinels was killed by an Indian in ambush. This determined Harrison to march against the camp at Tippecanoe. On the night of Nov. 6, 1811, he encamped within a mile of the Indian village, and the Prophet had agreed to a conference on the following day. Harrison's party consisted of about 800, including 500 Indians and Kentucky militiamen. The hostile Indians were estimated by Harrison at 700. They were under the command of White Loon, Stone Eater, and Winnemac, Tecumseh being then on a mission to the Creeks and Cherokees to induce them to join his confederacy. Without waiting for the promised conference or even the dawn of day, the savages made a furious assault on Harrison's camp, which they maintained with ferocious bravery for two hours. It was after daylight when the last of the Indians were driven from the field, leaving forty of their number dead on the battleground. The loss to the whites was 37 killed and 151 wounded. The entire loss of the Indians was never ascertained. Next day Harrison advanced to the town, found it deserted, destroyed it and returned to Vincennes. This disaster broke the power of Tecumseh. (See illustration opposite page 497.)

Titles. (See Lands, Public.)

Tobacco.—A native American plant of the Nightshade family (*Nicotiana tabacum*), the leaves of which have strong narcotic effects. It was named from the Indian tabaco or pipe in which the aborigines smoked the leaves. The word was applied by the Spaniards to the herb itself. Its use was observed in Santo Domingo in 1492. It was introduced into European countries by the early voyagers, and the Virginia settlers made it their chief agricultural product, and even used it as the

standard of value. Tobacco was unknown to the civilized world prior to the discovery of America. It is a sedative and narcotic, and is used by more people and among more nations than any similar substance, with perhaps the exception of tea. After its introduction into England in 1585, its habitual use soon spread over Continental Europe and into Asia, notwithstanding the determined efforts of ecclesiastic and civil authorities to prohibit it. When the period of persecution had run its course, it was looked upon as a medicine and was prescribed for all sorts of human ailments. Its habitual use was looked upon as a luxury to be enjoyed only by the well-to-do. From 1619 to 1641 prices in London ranged from three pence to three shillings per pound. During the Civil War in the United States, the price of tobacco ranged from twelve cents to forty-five cents per pound.

Foreign Pre-War Taxes. — Before the World War, the United Kingdom levied a tax of 77 cents to 85 cents per pound; cigars, $1.21 per pound. Norway taxed manufactured tobacco 22 cents per pound; Sweden, 12 cents; Switzerland, 22 cents; Germany, 9 cents; Holland, 14 cents; Russia, 38 cents. In France, Spain, Italy, Portugal, Austria, Turkey, Rumania the government monopolized the trade in tobacco. It was also made the object of special excise taxes from time to time.

Owing to its general use, and to its status as a luxury rather than as a necessity, and perhaps also to the fact that it is of no great direct benefit to the human system, tobacco is heavily taxed in most regions of the globe. The rates of the tobacco tax in the United States and recent receipts from it are given under Internal Revenue.

The most recent figures for the annual tobacco crop in the United States are as follows:

State	*Acreage*	*Pounds*	*Value*
Connecticut.	25,000	39,000,000	$18,057,000
Illinois....	700	525,000	105,000
Indiana....	17,900	15,215,000	5,356,000
Kentucky..	550,000	456,500,000	174,383,000
Maryland..	29,000	19,575,000	5,872,000
Massach'ts.	10,000	15,400,000	7,130,000
Missouri...	3,500	3,500,000	1,260,000
New York..	2,700	3,483,000	784,000
N. Carolina	554,000	310,240,000	166,289,000
Ohio.....	90,000	77,400,000	26,084,000
Pennsyl'ia..	41,000	54,120,000	9,200,000
S. Carolina.	135,000	81,000,000	18,468,000
Tennessee..	110,000	88,000,000	22,088,000
Virginia....	230,000	131,100,000	62,141,000
W. Virginia	15,000	10,500,000	5,250,000
Wisconsin..	48,000	60,960,000	13,533,000
All others..	39,400	22,940,000	65,470,000
Total, U. S.	1,901,200	1,389,458,000	$542,547,000

War and post-war figures for the world's tobacco production are not available, but the average annual world production before the World War was slightly above 4,000,000,000 pounds, of which continental United States produced more than 1,000,000,000. The other main tobacco-producing countries were: Brazil, 100,000,000 pounds; Cuba, 75,000,000; Austria-Hungary, 170,000,000; Germany, 60,000,000; France, 50,000,000; European Russia, 230,000,000; British India, 1,000,000,000; China, 500,000,000; Dutch East Indies, 200,000,000; Japan, 120,000,000; Philippine Islands, 100,000,000; Asiatic Turkey, 75,000,000.

The most recent figures for the annual manufacture of tobacco in the United States are as follows:

Total pounds materials used	444,860,920
Tobacco factories in operation	1,871
Pounds unstemmed leaf used	159,792,119
	159,792,119
Pounds stemmed leaf used	94,494,147
Tobacco manufactured, lbs.	424,068,785
Plug, pounds	141,037,895
Twist	11,290,488
Fine cut	8,165,865
Smoking	228,566,655
Snuff	35,007,882
Cigar factories in operation..	11,483
Pounds of tobacco used:	
Unstemmed	96,270,289
Stemmed	29,927,963
Scraps	11,497,127
Cigars manufactured:	
Weighing more than 3 lbs. per 1,000	7,072,357,021
Weighing less than 3 lbs. per 1,000	713,235,870
Cigarette factories operated...	237
Pounds of tobacco used:	
Unstemmed	41,782,136
Stemmed	85,572,016
Scrap	8,179,803
Cigarettes manufactured:	
Weighing 3 lbs. per 1,000 and more	31,888,910
Weighing less than above	53,119,784,232

The total internal revenue taxes collected on tobacco during the last fiscal year were as follows:

Cigars:	
Weighing more than 3 lbs. per 1,000	$ 55,423,814
Weighing less than 3 lbs. per 1,000	992,114
Cigarettes:	
Weighing more than 3 lbs. per 1,000	285,934
Weighing less than 3 lbs. per 1,000	151,208,482
Snuff	6,948,931
Tobacco	74,663,768
Manufacturers' tax, floor tax, etc.	6,286,313
Total tobacco taxes collected	$295,809,356

In the last fiscal year, the imports and exports of tobacco to and from the United States were as follows:

Exports		*Value*
Leaf, lbs.	632,773,620	$271,940,888
Stems, Trimmings, lbs.	15,264,035	786,272
Cigarettes	17,547,371,000	43,248,768
Cigars, Cheroots	66,874,000	1,425,740
Plug, lbs.	4,730,822	2,534,637
Smoking, lbs.	4,371,925	2,521,541

Imports	*Pounds*	*Value*
Leaf	86,676,463	$68,153,282
Wrappers	7,328,719	10,011,008
Cigars, Cigarettes	4,664,876	13,111,839
All other tobacco	182,108	162,468

The last federal census of the tobacco manufacturing industry gave the following figures:

Number of establishments	13,951
Proprietors and firm members..	15,200
Salaried employees	16,822
Wage-earners, average number.	178,872
Capital	$303,840,000
Salaries	22,124,000
Wages	77,856,000
Cost of materials	207,134,000
Value of product	490,165,000

Tobacco:
Duties on, in foreign ports, 1648, 1738, 1909, 2167, 2192, 2909, 3120.
Exportation of, to countries at peace with United States, orders regarding, 3379, 3434.
Industry, referred to, 2133.
Tax on—
From Netherlands and Colonies, discussed, 4979, 4986, 5088.
Internal, removal of, urged, 5474.
Trade in, with foreign countries—
Promotion of, promised, 1588, 1713, 1822, 2167.
Referred to, 1806.
Value of annual production of, discussed, 5642, 5744, 5764, 5978.

Tobago, Island of. (See Trinidad.)

Tobago, Island of, duties on vessels from, suspended by proclamation, 5598, 6502.

Togoland. (See Africa and World War.)

Toledo, Ohio, proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2859.

Toledo War.—A bloodless dispute between Ohio and Michigan in 1835 over the territory which contained the city of Toledo. Just previous to Michigan's making application for admission to the Union, Ohio proposed to assume control of the disputed tract. Michigan passed an ordinance making the occupation of Toledo by Ohio authorities a penal offense and appealed to the Federal Government to sustain the action. The militia were called out on both sides. When armed hostilities became imminent, Michigan was admitted as a State and awarded the Upper Peninsula in exchange for the Toledo tract in dispute.

Toledo War, controversy regarding boundary between Ohio and Michigan known as, 637, 1173, 1404, 1407.

Toll.—A fee collected for a privilege. This form of collecting has been employed as a means for paying the cost of building roads and bridges, usually when a county or other corporate body borrows the money on bonds to pay for the work involved, and then sets up toll gates, where, through a series of years, money is collected from travelers on the road for the redemption of the bonds. Sometimes, however, the building is done by private enterprise and paid for thereafter with tolls collected, both for re-imbursement and for profit. Toll-bridges and toll-roads are now almost extinct, the preferred method being that of taxation.

Tonawanda Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Tonga or Friendly Islands.—Three groups of islands in the Pacific Ocean, between 15° and 23° S. and 173° and 177° West. Constituted a neutral territory by the Declaration of Berlin, 1886, they became a British protectorate by arrangement between Great Britain, Germany and the United States in 1899 and later. The total area is about 385 square miles, and the population, about 25,000. Practically the only product and export is copra.

Tonga Islands:
Treaty between Germany and Great Britain and, referred to, 5121.
Treaty with, 5121.

Tonga, Treaties with.—The treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation of 1886 provides privileges to the citizens of the one country in that of the other equal to those of the most favored nation. Trade privileges, except in the case of laborers, shall in no case be more restrictive than those granted to others. Shipping charges shall be no higher than those paid by the national ships in home ports.

Ships-of-war of either power shall have free access to any of the ports; and to facilitate repairs the government of Tonga agrees to sell to the United States land on the islands to provide a coaling or other station. Mail steamers from the United States crossing the Pacific Ocean shall have full harbor privileges on payment of one-third the customary shipping charges, so long as the vessels so partaking of this privilege shall carry the Tonga mails free of charge. Whaling and fishing vessels are granted large privileges in the islands free of harbor charges so long as they do not trade or barter spirituous liquors, arms, or ammunition to the Tongas.

No United States citizen residing in Tonga shall be compelled to do military service, or to pay higher or other license fees than do the subjects of Tonga. Deserters are to be apprehended by the local authorities upon application from the consul or, when such is deficient, from the master of the vessel. Consular officers may be appointed in terms customary in consular conventions. Freedom of conscience is extended to all citizens of the United States in Tonga.

Tonkawa Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Tonking.—A French colony in southeastern Asia, a part of French Indo-China (q. v.). It has an area of some 46,500 square miles and a population of more than 6,000,000. The chief town is Hanoi, which is the capital of French Indo-China, and the chief port is Haiphong, visited yearly by about 625 vessels. The chief crop is rice, of which the annual exports run to about 111,225 tons annually, valued at $3,300,000. Other products are maize, sugar-cane, cotton, coffee, fruit, tobacco, etc. About 500,000 kilograms of raw silk are produced annually and there is some production of zinc ore. The coral deposits also are extremely valuable. Latest figures show the annual exports as $14,000,000 and the imports as $13,000,000.

Tonnage Duties. (See Vessels, Foreign.)
"Too Proud to Fight," stand of, discussed, 8068.

Topeka Constitution.—The enactment of the Kansas-Nebraska bill, which, it has been claimed, in effect repealed the Missouri Compromise forbidding slavery north of 36° 30', left the question of slavery to be decided by the people of the territories before admission. The proslavery and antislavery advocates at once began a struggle for supremacy. Oct. 23, 1855, a constitutional convention representing the anti-slavery population of Kansas met at Topeka. This convention adopted the boundaries set by the Kansas-Nebraska bill, prohibited slavery after July, 1857.

and conferred the right of suffrage on "white male citizens", and on "every civilized male Indian who has adopted the habits of the white man." This convention was dispersed by Federal troops. The bill to admit Kansas into the Union under the provisions of the Topeka constitution was introduced in the House of Representatives by Daniel Mace, of Indiana, April 7, 1856, and in the Senate by Lewis Cass, of Michigan, March 24. The bill passed the House, but failed in the Senate. (See also Lecompton Constitution; Wyandotte Constitution.)

Topeka Constitution. (See Kansas, Government of.)

Topographical Corps:

Increase in, 873, 1474, 1607.

Internal improvements, operations of, intrusted to, 1776.

Reorganization of, recommended, 1388.

Tornado, The. (See *Virginius*, The.)

Torpedo Boats. (See Vessels, United States.)

Torpedoes:

Adoption and construction of, discussed, 5759.

Appropriation for trial with, recommended, 4304.

Tortugas. (See Dry Tortugas.)

Tory.—The terms "Whig" and "Tory" had been in use in English politics for a great many years anterior to the American Revolution. The term "Whig" designated the party opposing the royal prerogative and who were generally in favor of reforms; the term "Tory," the party upholding the prerogative and adhering to old institutions. In our colonial days the term "Tory" was applied to those who were adherents of the Crown, and the term "Whig" to the opponents thereof, and so the American sympathizers were known as Whigs, the supporters of England as Tories.

Town.—A word derived from the Anglo-Saxon word "tun," meaning "a place inclosed." The suffix still clings to the names of many English towns. In the United States the word has a varying signification. In Pennsylvania it is applied to any municipal government. In New York, Wisconsin, and most of the western states a town is a subdivision of a county, and is often called a township (q. v.), but the town is not necessarily always coextensive with the latter. In New England the town is the unit of civil organization, a county being simply an aggregation of towns.

Town Meeting.—A peculiarly democratic institution of New England and some of the newly formed western states. It is a meeting of the citizens to legislate for the town, levy taxes, elect the officers, usually a town clerk, selectmen, a treasurer, assessors, constables, overseers of the poor, and school commissioners. In some of the states the cities, by their aldermen, are authorized to transact the business formerly attended to by the town meeting. That it still has a legal existence was demonstrated as recently as 1881, when the Labor Reform Society of Boston secured a writ of mandamus to compel the city authorities to call a town meeting on petition, as required by its charter.

Towns, Seaport, protection for. (See Defenses, Public, provision for.)

Townshend Acts.—At the instance of Charles Townshend, chancellor of the exchequer, two acts were passed by the British Parliament providing for the appointment of commissioners to enforce more effectually the laws relating to taxes in the Colonies. They authorized writs of assistance and increased the duties on many articles already taxed, besides imposing others on glass, paper, colors, and tea. The object of these taxes was to support the civil government in the territories.

Township.—In the older United States counties are divided, without reference to their inhabitants, into townships varying in size from five to ten miles square. When in 1802 Col. Mansfield surveyed the Northwest Territory he divided the entire public domain into land districts, made up of a varying number of tracts each six miles square. These were called townships. These townships were again divided into thirty-six equal squares, called sections, of one square mile each and containing 640 acres. A civil township may include more or less than one township in area.

Toynbee Hall. (See Social Settlements.)

Trade. (See Commerce.)

Trade Adviser.—This office was established in the State Department (q. v.) soon after the outbreak of the World War to assist American merchants experiencing trade difficulties because of war regulations of the several belligerents. The office has since been broadened and is now known as the Economic Adviser. It advises the State Department on problems of general economic policy; coordinates economic matters within the Department; establishes and maintains connection with economic bureaus of other Departments; and handles economic cases of the State Department which have no regional character or overlap geographical divisions.

Trade Commission.—Under the law introduced by Mr. Covington of Maryland and approved Sept. 26, 1914, the President is authorized to appoint a commission of five members, not more than three of whom shall be members of the same political party, to take the place of the Bureau of Corporations and the Commissioners of Corporations. Property, records and employees of the bureau are transferred to the new Commission, whose duty it is to regulate commerce by preventing persons, partnerships or corporations (except banks and common carriers, regulated by other laws), from using unfair methods of competition.

Commerce is defined in the act as commerce in any territory of the United States or in the District of Columbia or between the States or Territories, or with a foreign nation. A corporation is defined as an organization, incorporated or not, having a capital stock, divided into shares or not, which has been formed to carry on business for profit.

Whenever the Commission shall have reason to believe that any person, partnership or corporation has been using unfair methods of competition, and that a proceeding would be to the interest of the public, it shall issue a complaint and set a day for a hearing. If found guilty, orders to desist from the specified violation of the

law are issued. In case of failure of the guilty party to comply with the law as pointed out by the Commission, the latter shall apply to the Circuit Court of Appeals where the corporation resides or where the competition complained of takes place. The findings of the Commission as to the facts shall be conclusive and the decree of the court final, except for review by the Supreme Court upon certiorari. The jurisdiction of the Circuit Court of Appeals in regard to orders of the Commission shall be exclusive, and orders shall be expedited and given precedence. Processes of the Commission may be served by personal delivery, registered mail or left at principal place of business.

The powers of the Commission are to (a) investigate and gather information concerning business, and practices of corporations, etc.; (b) require certified reports at any time; (c) report to the Attorney General final decrees entered against defendant corporations; (d) investigate upon direction of the President or either house; (e) make recommendations (upon application of the Attorney General), for the readjustment of the business of any corporation guilty of violation of the anti-trust laws, in order that the corporation may thereafter maintain its organization, management and conduct of business in accordance with law; (f) make public such information obtained by it, except trade secrets and names of customers, as it shall deem expedient to the public interest, make reports to Congress and recommend additional legislation; (g) classify corporations and make rules for carrying out the provisions of the law; (h) investigate trade conditions in and with foreign countries where such may affect the foreign trade of the United States.

Suits in equity before the Attorney General under the anti-trust acts may be referred to the Commission as a master in chancery to report an appropriate form of decree, and accepted at the option of the court. All departments of the government are required to furnish information relating to corporations. Agents and members of the Commission shall have access to evidence, are empowered to require attendance, administer oaths and take testimony at any place in the United States, with the aid and authority, when necessary of the Federal Courts. No person shall be excused from testifying before the Commission on the ground that his evidence might tend to degrade or criminate him, but no natural person shal be prosecuted on account of anything to which he may testify, and no natural person shall be exempt from punishment for perjury before the Commission. Refusal to testify is punishable by a fine of from $1,000 to $5,000. Failure to file reports when ordered subjects a corporation to a fine of $100 for each day of neglect. A member or employee of the Commission who reveals information imparted officially is subject to a fine of $5,000 or one year in prison.

The terms of the first Commissioners are to be three, four, five, six, and seven years, respectively, as designated by the President, and their successors are to be appointed for terms of seven years. The salary of the Commissioners is fixed at $10,000, and a Secretary is provided for at $5,000 per year.

The Webb-Pomerene Act, approved April 10, 1918, expressly gave the Trade Commission powers, similar to those outlined above, over associations and organizations engaged in the export trade. (See also Anti-Trust Law and Clayton Law.)

Trade Commission:

Business justice could be guided by, 7916.

Coal cost investigation, authority over, given to, 8901.

Created, 8151, 8158.

Establishment of, recommended, 7819.

Investigations of, on cost of living, 8768.

Personnel and records transferred to Fuel Administration, 8538.

Purpose of, 8030.

War administrative powers vested in, 8370.

Trade Dollar.—A silver coin issued by the United States from 1874 to 1878. It was coined for use in trade with China in competition with the Spanish and Mexican dollars. It was not intended for general circulation in the United States, though it was made a legal tender to the amount of $5 at the time of issue. The legal-tender provision was repealed in 1876. The weight of the trade dollar was 420 grains, while the standard American silver dollar weighed 412½ grains. An act of March 1, 1887, authorized the Treasurer to redeem in standard silver dollars all trade dollars presented during the following six months.

Trade Dollars discussed, 1399, 1463.

Trade of Foreign Powers. (See Commerce of Foreign Powers.)

Trade Information and Publicity, State Department.—In 1842, Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, assigned a clerk to the task of arranging and keeping up-to-date all commercial information from abroad which might be of service to the United States. In 1854, this work was organized as the Statistical Office of the Department of State, and in 1897 the name was changed to the Bureau of Foreign Commerce. When the Department of Commerce and Labor was organized in 1903, the Bureau of Foreign Commerce was transferred to the new department, and Secretary of State John Hay organized the Bureau of Trade Information and Publicity, to cover activities which the Department of Commerce and Labor could not advantageously prosecute. The duties of the new bureau were the supervision of trade reports and correspondence from American consuls and diplomatic officers, and also the publication of commercial information of interest. (See State Department; Consuls; Consular Service.)

Trade-Marks.—The ancient custom among merchants and manufacturers of using a special device for marking their goods or the packages containing them has long been recognized by the common law; and the right to exclusive use thereof has been sustained. The first statute providing for the protection of trade-marks in the United States by registration was the law of 1870. As this law was not restricted in its operation to trade between the states or with foreign nations, it was later held by the Supreme Court to be unconstitutional. Another general law was passed in 1905, based upon the commerce clause of the Constitution and amended in 1909. This law recognizes the right of a trader to stamp with his particular mark goods manufactured by him or selected or packed or in any way passing through his

hands. The trade-mark then becomes part of the good will of a trader's business and he is protected against any use or infringement thereof by another the same as in any other property right.

The existing act provides that no trade-mark will be registered which consists of or comprises immoral or scandalous matter, or which consists of or comprises the flag or coat of arms or other insignia of the United States, or any simulation thereof, or of any state or municipality, or of any foreign nation or which consists of or comprises any design or picture that has been adopted by any fraternal society as its emblem, or of any name, distinguishing mark, character, emblem, colors, flag, or banner adopted by any institution, organization, club, or society which was incorporated in any State in the United States prior to the date of the adoption and use by the applicant; Provided, That said name, distinguishing mark, character, emblem, colors, flag, or banner was adopted and publicly used by said institution, organization, club, or society prior to the date of adoption and use by the applicant; unless it shall be shown to the satisfaction of the Commissioner of Patents that the mark was adopted and used as a trade-mark by the applicant or applicant's predecessors, from whom title is derived, at a date prior to the date of its adoption by such fraternal society as its emblem, or which trade-mark is identical with a registered or known trade-mark owned and in use by another, and appropriated to merchandise of the same descriptive properties, or which so nearly resembles a registered or known trade-mark owned and in use by another, and appropriated to merchandise of the same descriptive properties as to be likely to cause confusion or mistake in the minds of the public, or to deceive purchasers; or which consists merely in the name of an individual, firm, corporation, or association, not written, printed, impressed, or woven in some particular or distinctive manner or in association with a portrait of the individual, or merely in words or devices which are descriptive of the goods with which they are used, or of the character or quality of such goods, or merely a geographical name or term; no portrait of a living individual will be registered as a trade-mark, except by the consent of such individual evidenced by an instrument in writing; and no trade-mark will be registered which is used in unlawful business, or upon any article injurious in itself, or which has been used with the design of deceiving the public in the purchase of merchandise, or which has been abandoned.

Any mark, used in commerce with foreign nations or among the several states or with Indian tribes, may be registered if it has been in actual and exclusive use as a trade-mark of the applicant, or his predecessors from whom he derived title, for ten years next preceding the passage of the act of February 20, 1905.

The fee for registration is $10; this gives exclusive right to the trade-mark for twenty years, and it may be renewed for a like period.

Aliens may register trade-marks previously registered in their own country.

Application for a trade-mark must be made to the Commissioner of Patents, setting forth a description of the trade-mark and a drawing thereof, accompanied by an affidavit to the effect that the applicant does not know of any other person who has the right to use it.

An Act of Congress, approved on March 19, 1920, puts into effect the provisions of the International Trade Mark Convention of Buênos Ayres, in 1910, by requiring a facsimile of the trade mark, name, residence of registrant, etc.

In recent years, the number of trade marks issued by the Commissioner of Patents of the United States has averaged more than 4,000 annually. More than 130,000 trade marks have been issued altogether.

Trade-Marks (see also Copyright):
Convention of South American countries for protection of, 7499.
International convention at Paris on subject of, 4714.
Treaty regarding, with—
Austria-Hungary, 4114.
Belgium, 4799, 4822.
Brazil, 4460.
France, 3967.
Germany, 4114, 4142.
Great Britain, 4408, 4419.
Italy, 4789.
Roumania, 4676.
Russia, 3887, 4220, 4247.
Spain, 4696.

Trades Unions.—The rise of a free working-class dates from the latter years of the Middle Ages. In ancient times, in well-settled communities slave labor was the rule, and in sparsely-settled communities much of the subsistence was derived from hunting, fishing and pastoral pursuits. Even through the Middle Ages, there was little work except that done in the households or on the farms; and the condition of the agricultural laborer was practically that of a serf.

In the fourteenth century in England, however, towns grew up to facilitate exchange of commodities, and there gradually flocked to them numbers of men who had become freed from their agricultural ties, and who had learned certain crafts. The Statutes of Laborers in the reign of Edward III shows the existence of a distinct class of workers, with some indication that it was becoming worthy of serious attention. In 1348, the plague devastated England, wiping out from one-third to one-half of the population, so that the workers were able to use the increased demand for labor as a means of bettering their condition.

During the next several centuries, this working-class organized itself into guilds, or associations of workingpeople grouped according to their trades. Although the modern trade union can hardly be said to have developed directly from these guilds, yet the indirect connection is very strong, as may be seen from the fact that the guilds of the fourteenth, fifteenth and sixteenth centuries had such familiar regulations as those limiting the number of apprentices and those providing many kinds of benefits for their members. The guilds, however, soon grew to represent the aristocracy of labor, and developed into what would be called today the middle class; and the condition of the lower classes was almost unbelievably wretched. The guilds did not survive much past Elizabethan times in their pristine strength—a decline due largely to the newer conditions of trade and commerce. All the way down to the beginning of the nineteenth century, the workers' conditions continued to be in a state not much above that of serfdom.

It was the coming of the industrial revolution, incident upon the invention of machinery and the steam engine and upon the establishment of factories at the beginning of the nineteenth century, which began to change conditions for the laborers. On the side of actual working conditions, the new machines had decreased the demand for labor, while making possible the employment of women and children in place of the men; and on the other hand the French Revolution had filled the world with new ideals of the rights of the working-classes. In the years following the Napoleonic wars, there was little alleviation of the wretchedness in which the mass of the people lived, while at the same time they could observe the employing and trading classes becoming steadily richer and happier. Unpremeditated revolts showed the futility of endeavoring to change conditions by sporadic and unorganized efforts; and from this realization arose the modern organizations of the working-class.

The movement in England naturally was not long in reaching the United States. There is a legend that a typographical society was organized in New York City in 1795. In 1803, the journeymen shipmen of that city definitely organized, but the virtual beginning of an extensive American trade union movement may be assigned to 1825. The organizations of this period were purely local in character, but the next twenty-five years saw the growth of the amalgamation of all laborers' associations in a given locality—the so-called trades assemblies. In 1830 there was even a convention of the workingmen of New York state, and a candidate for governor was named.

The strength of the new movement may be gauged from the fact that in 1840 it was able to establish a ten-hour working day in government shipyards. In 1850, the first vigorous union of national scope was formed among the typographers; and the cigar-workers in 1874 inaugurated the practice of using a label to distinguish goods made under union conditions.

After the Civil War, a national federation of trades unions became the next logical step. In 1866, a National Labor Congress met in Baltimore, with one hundred delegates representing some sixty organizations; but many of the latter were local in their nature, and others were little more than secret or fraternal and beneficial organizations. Meetings were held until 1872, but the lack of unification among the constituent bodies and the drifting into political action finally disrupted the body in the last-mentioned year. The next year was the year of the great panic, and labor organizations suffered along with employers.

In 1874, an Industrial Congress was held in Rochester, in which the most influential bodies represented were the secret "Sovereigns of Industry" and the "Industrial Brotherhood of the United States." The Knights of Labor (q. v.) was organized in 1869, and soon became the dominant labor organization in the country, the membership in 1886 being reported as 700,000. But its influence finally paled before that of the American Federation of Labor, which was organized in 1881. For its growth and strength in recent years, see Labor, American Federation of.

Some of the strongest unions in the country, however, are not affiliated with the A. F. of L., notably the four brotherhoods of locomotive engineers, firemen, etc., and the Amalgamated Clothing Workers. For many years, the radical Western Federation of Miners was outside the fold, and at the present time there is nothing but enmity between the American Federation of Labor members and the I. W. W. (q. v.).

A curious relation exists between the American Federation of Labor and the Socialist Party. There are many Socialists within the A. F. of L., but they represent a minority of the organization. The Socialists, as a political body, usually support the economic struggles of the unions, although they criticise severely the present administration of the A. F. of L. The unions, on the other hand, endorse many of the planks in the political program of the Socialists.

There can be little doubt that the trade unions have succeeded in bettering materially the conditions of the working-classes. Primarily, they have enabled the workers to resort to collective bargaining with their employers, so that in negotiations the individual worker or group of workers will be at no unfair advantage. A tremendous amount of social legislation, national, state and municipal must also be placed to the credit of the unions, and there is seldom an election in districts where laborers are numerous where new concessions are not made to obtain the labor vote. Workers affiliated with the unions have been able to acquire shorter working hours, higher wages, better working conditions than those not affiliated. Yet in the United States the labor movement is not so strong as in other countries; and, moreover, the United States is practically the only great industrial nation where the labor movement has not its own political party, since the American Federation of Labor gives no support to the Socialist Party of America, which, indeed, is weak in comparison with the labor and Socialist political parties of the other great Powers.

The following figures show the members of the trades unions in those countries where organized labor is strongest, together with the ratio of the members to the total population. The figures are the latest available.

Country	*Union Members*	*Percentage Population*
Australia	582,000	11%
Austria	800,000	13%
Belgium	980,000	13%
Canada	380,000	4½%
Czecho-Slovakia	660,000	4%
Denmark	360,000	12%
France	1,500,000	3½%
Germany	9,845,000	16½%
Great Britain	6,700,000	13½%
Hungary	500,000	5%
Italy	2,200,000	6%
Netherlands	373,000	5½%
Norway	120,000	5½%
Russia	4,300,000	2½%
Sweden	235,000	4%
Switzerland	265,000	6%
United States	5,000,000	5%

For an account of the states which forbid intimidation of employees and the exaction of any agreement, as a condition of employment, not to join a labor organization, see the article Boycott. See also Strikes.

Trades Unions (See also Labor):
Checks upon, 6974, 7072.
Label, injunctions to protect, 7213.
Legality of, 7345.
Members of, in government service, 6783, 6897.
Rights and duties of, 6650.

Trading-With-The-Enemy Act. — The chief provisions of this act, as approved by

the President on October 6, 1917, were as follows:

The War Trade Board succeeds the Exports Administrative Board in all the latter's functions, including complete control over exports, under the powers created in the Espionage Act (q. v.). The War Trade Board also licenses importations, the Act giving the President the power to prohibit the importation of any article or to regulate its importation.

Under severe criminal penalties, trading without a license with a person who there is reason to believe is an enemy or an ally of enemy is made unlawful. "Trade" is defined to mean to pay, satisfy, compromise, or give security for the payment of any debt or obligation; to draw, accept, pay, draw for acceptance or payment, or endorse any negotiable instrument; to enter into, carry on, complete or perform any contract, agreement or obligation; to buy, sell, loan, extend credit, trade in, deal with, exchange, transmit, transfer, assign, or otherwise receive or dispose of any form of property; to have any form of business communication or intercourse with.

An "enemy" or "ally of enemy" is defined as a person of any nationality residing within the territory of or occupied by Germany and any of her allies, including even citizens of the United States who may be thus situated. The term includes any person doing business within such territory, wherever he reside or of whatever nationality he be. (The term "person" includes a business or corporation.) The term includes also every enemy government of the United States, and every agent of such government, wherever located. Enemy aliens (q. v.) in the United States are not included in this term, although they may be subject to internment, and the President is given power to issue licenses to trade with the enemy.

It is similarly unlawful to trade with any person whatsoever who may be acting as agent for or for the benefit of an enemy or ally of enemy.

It is made unlawful to take or send outside of the United States any communication intended for an enemy or ally of enemy, and also to bring in or take out any form of communication except by mail—except through license.

A War Trade Council is created to replace the Exports Council and to act as an advisory body in all matters referred to it by the President of the War Trade Board. It is composed of the Secretaries of State, Treasury, Agriculture, Commerce and the Food Administrator, and the Chairman of the United States Shipping Board.

The Federal Trade Commission is empowered to carry out various provisions in the Act relating to patents.

A Censorship Board administers the regulations of the President concerning cable, telegraph and mail communication between the United States and foreign countries. This Board is composed of representatives of the Postmaster-general, the Secretaries of War and Navy, the War Trade Board, and the Chairman of the Committee on Public Information.

Every paper printed in a foreign language must furnish a translation to the Postmaster-general of all matter concerning the War printed by it.

It is made unlawful for any person without a license therefor to transport to or from the United States, or for any vessel of the United States registry to transport anywhere, any citizen of an enemy or ally of an enemy nation.

Trading with the Enemy Act:

Germans and Austro-Hungarians included in terms of, 8522.

Rules and regulations under, 8366, 8433, 8444, 8462

Revoked, 8486.

Training Camps, Officers'. (See Army and Preparedness.)

Transcontinental Highways.—In the days of the oxteam and prairie schooner, the plains and mountains were crossed by trails, usually along the lines of least resistance, keeping as close as possible to bases of supplies and water. The pioneers over what became known later as the "Santa Fe Trail" and the "Oregon Trail" were the first to leave permanent marks on routes now rapidly becoming highways between the Central-Western and the far-Western States.

The American Automobile Association gives the following list of important automobile pleasure highways in the United States:

Atlantic Highway.—Calais, Maine, to Miami, Florida, 2,308 miles, through Boston (448 mi.), Providence (492), New York (696), Philadelphia (790), Baltimore (893), Washington (934), Richmond (1,070), Augusta (1,515), Macon (1,678), Jacksonville (1,928), Palm Beach (2,239). Side routes, Boston to New York (235 mi.), Augusta to Jacksonville (297), St. Augustine to Tampa (252).

Bankhead Highway.—Washington, D. C., to San Diego, Cal., 3450 miles, through Richmond (134 miles), Raleigh (320), Atlanta (797), Birmingham (998), Memphis (1,301), Little Rock (1,459), Dallas (1,831), Fort Worth (1,864), El Paso (2,542), Douglas (2,810), Tucson (2,937), Phoenix (3,068). Four-State Branch, Hot Springs to Roswell, through Durant, 772 miles. White Mountain Branch, Sweetwater to El Paso, through Roswell, 505 miles.

Dixie Highway.—Chicago to Fort Myers, 1,672 miles, through Indianapolis (303 mi.), Louisville (445), Mammoth Cave (533), Nashville (646), Chattanooga (811), Atlanta (949), Macon (1,044), Tallahassee (1,245). Side Routes, Atlanta to Savannah, 298 miles; Macon to Jacksonville, 255 miles; Tallahassee to Jacksonville, 176 miles; Kissimmee to Tampa, 78 miles.

Dixie Highway, East Division.—Detroit to Miami, 1,561 miles, through Toledo (50 mi.), Lima (136), Dayton (210), Cincinnati (262), Knoxville (571), Augusta (885), Savannah (1,011), Jacksonville (1,181), Palm Beach (1,492). Side Trips, Knoxville to Chattanooga, 136 miles; Augusta to Macon, 127 miles.

Dixie Overland Highway.—Savannah to San Diego, 2,814 miles, through Montgomery (380 mi.), Meridian (561), Shreveport (886), Dallas (1,101), Fort Worth (1,136), Roswell (1,650), El Paso (1,890), Douglas (2,159), Bisbee (2,183), Tucson (2,297), Phoenix (2,429).

George Washington National Highway.—Savannah to Seattle, 3,943 miles, through Atlanta, (304 mi.), Memphis (790), St. Louis (1,230), Kansas City (1,530), Omaha (1,752), Sioux City (1,864), Sioux Falls (1,959), Deadwood (2,398), Butte (3,215), Spokane (3,597).

Jackson Highway.—Chicago to New Orleans, 1,066 miles, through Indianapolis, (197 mi.), Louisville (332), Nashville (531), Meridian (865), Hattiesburg (950). Side

Trip, Louisville to Cleveland, 427 miles; through Columbus, 309 miles.

Jefferson Highway.—Winnipeg, Canada, to New Orleans, 2,277 miles, through Minneapolis (547 mi.), St. Paul (557), Des Moines (828), Kansas City, (1,060), Joplin (1,255), Muskogee (1,394), Durant (1,554), Shreveport (1,859), Baton Rouge (2,157). Side Trip, Kansas City to Joplin, 204 miles.

King of Trails.—Winnipeg, Canada, to Laredo, Texas (1,991 mi.), through Grand Forks (159), Fargo (255), Sioux Falls (526), Sioux City (612), Omaha (722), Kansas City (943), Muskogee (1,272), Durant (1,417), Dallas (1,525), Waco (1,620), Austin (1,757), San Antonio (1,839). Side Trip, Waco to Galveston, 246 miles; through Houston, 195 miles.

Lincoln Highway.—New York to San Francisco, 3,323 miles, through Philadelphia (94 mi.), Gettysburg (211), Pittsburgh (386), Canton (487), Lima (644), Fort Wayne (708), South Bend (784), Chicago Heights (863), Joliet (896), Cedar Rapids (1,114), Omaha (1,415), Big Spring (1,783), Cheyenne (1,936), Rawlings (2,114), Salt Lake City (2,419), Ely (2,675), Reno (3,054), Sacramento (3,194), Oakland (3,320).

Side Trips, Chicago Heights to Chicago 18 miles; Big Spring to Denver, 240 miles; Cheyenne to Yellowstone Park, 541 miles; Cheyenne to Rocky Mountain Park, 93 miles; Rawlings to Yellowstone Park. Salt Lake City to Yellowstone Park, 360 miles; Ely to Los Angeles, via Midland Trail, 565 miles.

Midland Trail (Roosevelt National Highway.)—Washington, D. C., to Los Angeles, 3,368 miles, through Charlottesville (141 mi.), White Sulphur Springs (281), Charleston (391), Huntington (446), Lexington (583), Louisville (635), French Lick Springs (719), Vincennes (791), St. Louis (943), Jefferson City (1,095), Kansas City (1,270), Topeka (1,346), Beloit (1,502), Burlington (1,763), Denver (1,931), Grand Junction (2,233), Salt Lake City (2,547), Ely (2,803), Big Pine (3,102). Side Trips, Washington to Charlottesburg, 206 miles, through Richmond, 134 miles; Big Pine to San Francisco, 387 miles, through Yosemite National Park, 181 miles.

National Old Trails Road.—New York to Los Angeles, 3,281 miles, through Philadelphia (94 mi.), Gettysburg (211), Hagerstown (245), Cumberland (311), Wheeling (443), Columbus (572), Dayton (640), Indianapolis (747), Terre Haute (818), St. Louis (993), Columbia (1,135), Kansas City (1,299), Dodge City (1,691), La Junta (1,910), Raton (2,020), Santa Fé (2214), Albuquerque (2,280), Flagstaff (2,723), Williams (2,759), Ash Forks (2,779), San Bernardino (3,218), Pasadena (3,270).

Side Trips, Washington to Hagerstown, 78 miles; La Junta to Denver 186 miles, via Pueblo, 66 miles (Pueblo to Trinidad, 92 miles); Raton to Santa Lé, via Toas, 170 miles; Albuquerque to Holbrook, 281 miles; Flagstaff to Grand Canyon, 84 miles; Williams to Grand Canyon, 65 miles; Ash Forks to Phoenix, 174 miles, via Prescott, 65 miles; San Bernardino to Riverside, 11 miles.

National Old Trails Road, Mesa Verde Branch.—La Junta to Holbrook, 670 miles, via Pueblo (66 mi.), Del Norte (250), Durango (377), Ship Rock (461). Side Trip, Durango to Mesa Verde, 62 miles.

Meridian Highway.—Winnipeg, Canada, to Galveston, 1908 miles, through Grand Forks (159 mi.), Fargo (255), Watertown (431), Belleville (852), Wichita (1,031), Enid (1,151), Wichita Falls (1,371), Fort Worth (1,495), Waco (1,635), Houston (1,856). Side trip, Waco to Laredo, 377 miles, through Austin, 131 miles and San Antonio, 213 miles.

Mississippi Valley Highway.—Duluth to New Orleans, 1,635 miles, through St. Paul (160 mi.), Cedar Rapids (411), Burlington (508), St. Louis (762), Cairo (925), Jackson (1,043), Corinth (1,108), Meridian (1,365), Hattiesburg (1,459). Side Trips St. Louis to Chicago, 347 miles, through Springfield, 109 miles; Hattiesburg to Gulfport, 74 miles.

National Parks Highway.—Chicago to Tacoma, 2,712 miles, through Milwaukee (97 mi.), Madison (180), Lacrosse (362), Minneapolis and St. Paul (503), Fargo (768), Bismarck (975), Dickinson (1,095), Billings (1,447), Livingston (1,584), Butte (1,723), Missoula (1,868), Kalispell (1,997), Spokane (2,264), Wenatchee (2,436), Seattle (2,671). Side Trips, Livingston to Yellowstone Park, 55 miles; Missoula to Spokane, 212 miles; Kalispell to Glacier National Park, 34 miles; Wenatchee to Cle Elum, via. Blewett Pass, 65 miles.

National Park-to-Park Highway.—A circuit route of the National Parks, 4,403 miles Beginning from Denver, through Cheyenne (113 miles), Casper (320 miles), Cody (585), Yellowstone Park (722), Great Falls (945), Glacier National Park (1,007), Kalispell (1,114), Spokane (1,376), Seattle (1,706), Tacoma (1,747), Portland (1,910), Medford (2,237), Sacramento (2,622), Stockton (2,671), Fresno (2,790), Visalia (2,838), Los Angeles (3,059), Needles (3,370), Williams (3,582), Flagstaff (3,618), Gallup (3,828), Durango (4,006), Canyon City (4,273), Colorado Springs (4,328). Mount Ranier National Park, 77 miles from Tacoma; Crater Lake Park, 82 miles from Medford; Yosemite National Park, 128 miles from Stockton; Roosevelt National Park, 5 miles from Visalia; Zion National Park, 31 miles from Needles; Grand Canyon, 6 miles from Williams; Mesa Verde Park, 6 miles from Durango.

Old Spanish Trail.—Jacksonville, Florida to Los Angeles, 2,956 miles, through Tallahassee (174 mi.), Mobile (456), Biloxi (520), New Orleans (627), Lake Charles (953), Houston (1,104), San Antonio (1,315), Fort Stockton (1,663), El Paso (1,915), Douglas (2,184), Bisbee (2,208) Tucson (2,311), Phoenix (2,439), Yuma (2,636), San Diego (2,822).

Pacific Highway.—Vancouver, in British Columbia, to Tia Juana, Mexico, 1,807 miles through Seattle (164 mi.), Tacoma (206) Olympia (240), Portland (373). Salem (419), Medford (686), Redding (873), Sacramento (1,050), Oakland (1,168), San Francisco (1,171), King City (1,356). Santa Barbara (1,559), Los Angeles (1,658), San Diego (1,790).

Pershing Way.—Winnipeg, Canada to New Orleans, through Crookston, Mankato Cedar Rapids, Hannibal, St. Louis, Memphis, Little Rock.

Pike's Peak Ocean-to-Ocean Highway.—New York to San Francisco, 3,606 miles New York to Pittsburgh (436 mi.), over William Penn Highway (q. v.), then through Steubenville (478), Columbus (636), Dayton (704), Indianapolis (811), Springfield (1,014), Chillicothe (1,258), St. Joseph (1,337), Norton (1,666), Colorado Springs (1,990), Leadville (2,126), Rangely (2,352) Salt Lake City (2,601), Ogden (2,638) Montello (2,831), Battle Mountain (3,026) Reno (3,269), Sacramento (3,503), Oakland (3,603).

Puget Sound to the Gulf Highway.—Seattle to Corpus Christi, Tex., 2,791 miles, through Walla Walla (327), Boise (636), Twin Falls (780), Ogden (990), Salt Lake City (1,027), Rawlings (1,324), Cheyenne (1,502), Denver (1,617), Pueblo (1,736), Amarillo (2,080), Sterling City (2,391), San Antonio (2,657).

Roosevelt National Highway.—Coinciding with Midland Trail (q. v.) west of Lexington, Ky. See also Theodore Roosevelt International Highway, below.

Theodore Roosevelt International Highway.—Portland, Me., to Portland, Oregon, through Bretton Woods, Montpelier, Plattsburg, Watertown, Oswego, Rochester, Niagara Falls, London (Canada), Port Huron, Flint, Bay City, Cheboygan, Mackinaw City, Escanaba, Superior, Duluth, Grand Forks, Devil's Lake, Glasgow, Glacier National Park, Kalispell, Spokane, Seattle.

Yellowstone Trail.—New York to Seattle, 3,594 miles, through Albany (150 mi.), Utica (246), Syracuse (296), Rochester (393), Buffalo (469), Erie (563), Cleveland (667), Toledo (789), South Bend (952), Chicago (1,053), Milwaukee (1,143), Oshkosh (1,224), St. Paul (1,533), Minneapolis (1,543), Montevideo (1,688), Bowman (2,160), Billings (2,494), Livingston (2,621), Butte (2,743), Missoula (2,894), Spokane (3,116), Walla Walla (3,277). Alternative routes, Boston to Albany, 190 miles; New York to Erie, 500 miles; through Binghampton (195), Elmira (254), Hornell (320), and Jamestown (441). Side Trip, Livingston to Yellowstone Park, 55 miles.

William Penn Highway.—Easton to Reading, 52 miles, Philadelphia to Reading, 58 miles; to Harrisburg, 53½ miles; to Lewistown, 67 miles; to Huntington, 33 miles, or 37 miles; to Ebensburg via Tyrone and Altoona, 69 miles, or via Hollidaysburg, Cresson and Loretto, 51½ miles; to Pittsburgh, via Johnstown, 85 miles, or via Greensburg, 80 miles; to Paris, Pa., 34 miles.

Other important automobile trunk lines are as follows:—

Albert Pike.—Hot Springs, Arkansas, to Colorado Springs, Colorado.

Alton Way.—Chicago to St. Louis, 295 miles.

Arrowhead Trail.—Salt Lake City to Los Angeles, 853.

Big Four Route.—Terre Haute to St. Louis, 211 miles, and to Hannibal, Mo., 343 miles.

Black Diamond Trail.—Springfield, Ill. to Nashville.

Blackhawk Trail.—Dixon, Ill. to Beloit, Wis., 60 miles.

Black Hills-Denver Diamond Highway.—Denver to Deadwood, S. D., 460 miles.

Blue Grass Trail.—Momence, Ill. to Burlington, Iowa, to Omaha, Neb.

Blue Trail.—Glacier Park Station, Montana, to Banff, Canada, 327 miles.

Boone Way.—Lexington, N. C. to Louisville.

Buffalo Trail.—Great Falls to Billings, Mont., 253 miles.

California-Banff Bee Line Highway.—Los Angeles to Banff, Canada, via Spokane.

Cannon Ball Trail.—Chicago to Hannibal, 341 miles.

Caterpillar Trail.—Peoria to Pontiac, Ill., 60 miles.

Chicago, Kansas City and Gulf Highway.—Chicago to Galveston.

Corn Belt Route.—Effner, Ind., to Burlington, Iowa.

Cross-State Highway.—Hannibal to St. Joseph, Mo., 218 miles.

Custer Battlefield Highway.—Omaha to Glacier National Park.

Denver-Yellowstone Highway.—From Denver to Yellowstone Park.

Diamond Trail.—Freeport, Ill., to Galesburg, Ill., 124 miles.

Dixie Bee Line.—Danville, Ill., to Louisville.

Egyptian Trail.—Chicago to Cairo, Ill., 497 miles.

F. F. F. Highway.—Fort Worth, Tex., to Las Vegas, N. M., 639 miles.

Fort Smith, Paul's Valley and Wichita Falls Highway.—Fort Smith, Ark., to Wichita Falls, Tex., 331 miles.

Geyser-to-Glacier Highway.—Yellowstone to Glacier National Park, 546 miles.

Grant Highway.—Chicago to Portland, Ore., via Yellowstone Park, South Entrance.

Great White Way.—Davenport, Iowa, to Omaha, 337 miles.

Hawkeye Highway.—Dubuque, Iowa, to Sioux City, 340 miles.

Indian Head Trail.—Galesburg, Ill., to Minneapolis, 413 miles.

Kansas-Oklahoma-Texas and Gulf Highway.—Florence, Kan., to Dallas, Tex., 514 miles.

Kickapoo Trail.—Peoria to Muscatine, Ill.

Lakes-to-Gulf Highway.—Duluth, Minn., to Galveston, Tex., 1,826 miles.

Lee Highway.—Gettysburg, Pa., to New Orleans.

Lewis and Clark Trail.—Lewiston, Idaho, to Missoula, Mont.

Liberty Highway.—New York to Erie, Pa., 496 miles.

Logan-Lee Highway.—Rock Island, Ill., to Paducah, Ky., 441 miles.

Mackinaw Indian Trail.—Peoria to Bloomington, Ill., 42 miles.

Mark Twain Route.—Chicago to Kansas City, 555 miles.

Mohawk Trail.—Albany to Boston, 182 miles.

North Iowa Pike.—McGregor, Iowa, to Sioux Falls.

Omaha-Lincoln-Denver Highway.—Omaha to Denver, 627 miles.

Omaha-St. Louis Highway.—Omaha to St. Louis, 476 miles.

Ozark Trail.—St. Louis to Las Vegas, N. M.

Perry Highway.—Pittsburgh, Pa., to Erie, Pa., 136 miles.

Park-to-Park Highway.—Yellowstone to Glacier National Park, via Missoula.

Potash Highway.—Grand Island to Alliance, Neb.

Rainbow Trail.—Pueblo, Col., to Grand Junction, 238 miles.

Red Ball Route.—St. Paul, Minn., to St. Louis, 487 miles.

River-to-River Road.—Davenport, Iowa, to Omaha, 349 miles.

Robert E. Lee Highway.—New Orleans to San Diego.

Scott Highway.—Duluth, Minn., to Fort William and Port Arthur, 210 miles.

Southwest Trail.—Chicago to Laredo, Tex., 1,706 miles.

Utah-Idaho-Yellowstone Highway.— Salt Lake City to Yellowstone Park, West Entrance, 360 miles.

Waubonsie Trail.—Keokuk, Iowa, to Lincoln, Neb.

Yellowstone Highway.—Denver to Yellowstone Park, East Entrance, 638 miles.

Y-G Bee Line Highway.—Yellowstone to Glacier National Park via Great Falls, 355 miles.

Trans-Mississippi Exposition. — From June 1 to Oct. 31, 1898, an exhibition of the resources of the middle west was held at Omaha, Neb. The site covered about 200 acres and the buildings were grouped around a court which extended through the middle of the grounds and surrounded a lagoon or canal which terminated in a lake, adorned by an electric fountain. The grounds were ornamented with trees, shrubs and flowers, and the buildings were covered with white staff. A special feature of ethnologic interest was the gathering of 500 Indians, representative of twenty-five tribes. The total attendance was 2,615,508, and the receipts $1,924,077.

Transportation Problem, serious aspect of, 8116. (See Railroads.)

Transportation Systems of the United States placed under Federal control, 8409, 8412, 8418. (See Railroads.)

Transvaal. (See Union of South Africa.)

Travelers' Aid Society.—A national nonsectarian organization existing to protect and assist travelers, but more especially young women, girls and boys, and to safeguard them from the dangers of travel. Women agents meet trains and boats to the extent made possible by the resources of the Society.

Treason.—The Constitution of the United States declares that "treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act or on confession in open court" (24). The penalty is death. Conspiracy alone does not constitute treason. A motion to give Congress the sole power of defining the crimes of treason failed in the Convention of 1787. An act of Congress of July 17, 1862, provided for the liberation of the slaves of a person convicted of treason. At the close of the Civil War there were no prosecutions for treason. Most of the state constitutions contain provisions similar to that of the National Constitution. A notable instance of treason against a state was Dorr's Rebellion (q. v.) in Rhode Island in 1840-1842. Dorr was convicted, but was pardoned in 1852. A celebrated case of trial for treason is that of Aaron Burr, in 1807, which occurred at Richmond, Va., and resulted in the acquittal of Burr.

Article II, sec. 4 provides that any official of the Government convicted of treason shall be removed from office. (23) A Civil War act, dated July 17, 1862, makes the punishment, at the discretion of the court, either death or imprisonment at hard labor for not less than five years, along with a fine of not less than $10,000, and disability to hold office. No person is indictable for treason three years after the alleged act of treason was committed; nor, by constitutional interpretation, shall any one be open to the charge of treason unless he has voluntarily given actual assistance to those countries which are declared to be at war with the United States. (See Misprision of Treason.)

Treason:
- Act to punish, etc., 3286, 3294.
- Discussed by President Johnson, 3557.

Treason and Misprision of Treason, proclamation of President Wilson concerning, 8247.

Treasurer of the United States. (See Treasury Department.)

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- Condition of, discussed. (See Finances discussed.)
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- Outstanding arrears due Government discussed, 1016, 2747.
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- Receipts in, fluctuations in, should be prevented, 1789.
- Statement of. (See Finances discussed.)
- Surplus in—
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    - Arthur, 4635, 4721.
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    - Jefferson, 397, 444.
    - Pierce, 2747, 2818.
    - Van Buren, 1707.
  - Joint resolution directing payment of, on public debt, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 5073.
  - Proposition to deposit, in banks throughout country discussed, 5168.

Treasury Board.—Feb. 17, 1776, the Continental Congress appointed a standing committee of five members on ways and means. They were given power over the Treasury office of accounts, the committee of claims, and some minor bureau and officials. This committee was known as the Treasury Board. Two years later provision was made for a building in which to transact the business of the board, and the Treasury office of accounts was superseded by a Comptroller, an Auditor, and a Treasurer, thus forming the germ of the present Treasury Department. The office of Superintendent of Finance (q. v.) was created to take the place of this board in 1781. After a trial of three years this office was abolished and the board reestablished and continued until 1789, when it was succeeded by the present Department.

Treasury Building:

Construction of, discussed, 1613, 1696.

Destruction of, by fire, 1248, 1336, 1344.

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Incendiaries of, difficulties attending conviction of, should be removed, 1492.

Plan of, discussed, 1515.

Treasury, Constitutional. (See Constitutional Treasury System.)

Treasury Department.—After the Department of State the most important executive branch of the National Government. It is more complex and extensive than any other Department, and its head officer, though ranking second to the Secretary of State, is not inferior in influence and responsibility to that Secretary.

The Treasury Department was virtually created Feb. 17, 1776, when the Continental Congress resolved: "That a standing committee of five be appointed for superintending the Treasury." April 1 of that year a Treasury Office of Accounts was established, to be carried on under the direction of the standing committee. Sept. 26, 1778, the Continental Congress established the offices of Comptroller, Auditor, Treasurer, and two Chambers of Accounts, to consist of three commissioners each, all of whom were to be appointed annually by Congress. Feb. 11, 1779, the office of Secretary of the Treasury was established (the holder to receive a salary of $2,000 annually), but on July 30, following, this office was succeeded by a Board of Treasury consisting of five commissioners and an Auditor-General assisted by six Auditors. Again, Feb. 7, 1781, it was resolved by Congress that the finances of the Confederation should be under a Superintendent of Finance (see Finances, Superintendent of), who was later assisted by a Comptroller, a Treasurer, a Register of Auditors; and, May 24, 1784, the Superintendent of Finances was superseded by the Board of Treasury, consisting of three commissioners. This ended the effort to organize the Treasury Department under the Confederation.

The present Treasury Department was established Sept. 2, 1789, during the first session of the First Congress under the Constitution; and the act, drawn by Alexander Hamilton, was constructed with such precision and comprehensiveness that few radical changes have since been found necessary. The act provided that: "There shall be a Department of the Treasury in which shall be the following officers, namely: a Secretary of the Treasury, to be deemed the head of the Department; a Comptroller; an Auditor; a Treasurer; a Register; and an Assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury."

On May 8, 1792, the office of Assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury was superseded by the office of Commissioner of Revenue, whose duties were to collect internal revenue and direct taxes. This office was abolished by an act of Congress April 6, 1802, reestablished July 24, 1813, and again abolished Dec. 23, 1817.

The office of Undersecretary of the Treasury was created in 1921. He has charge generally of the fiscal bureaus.

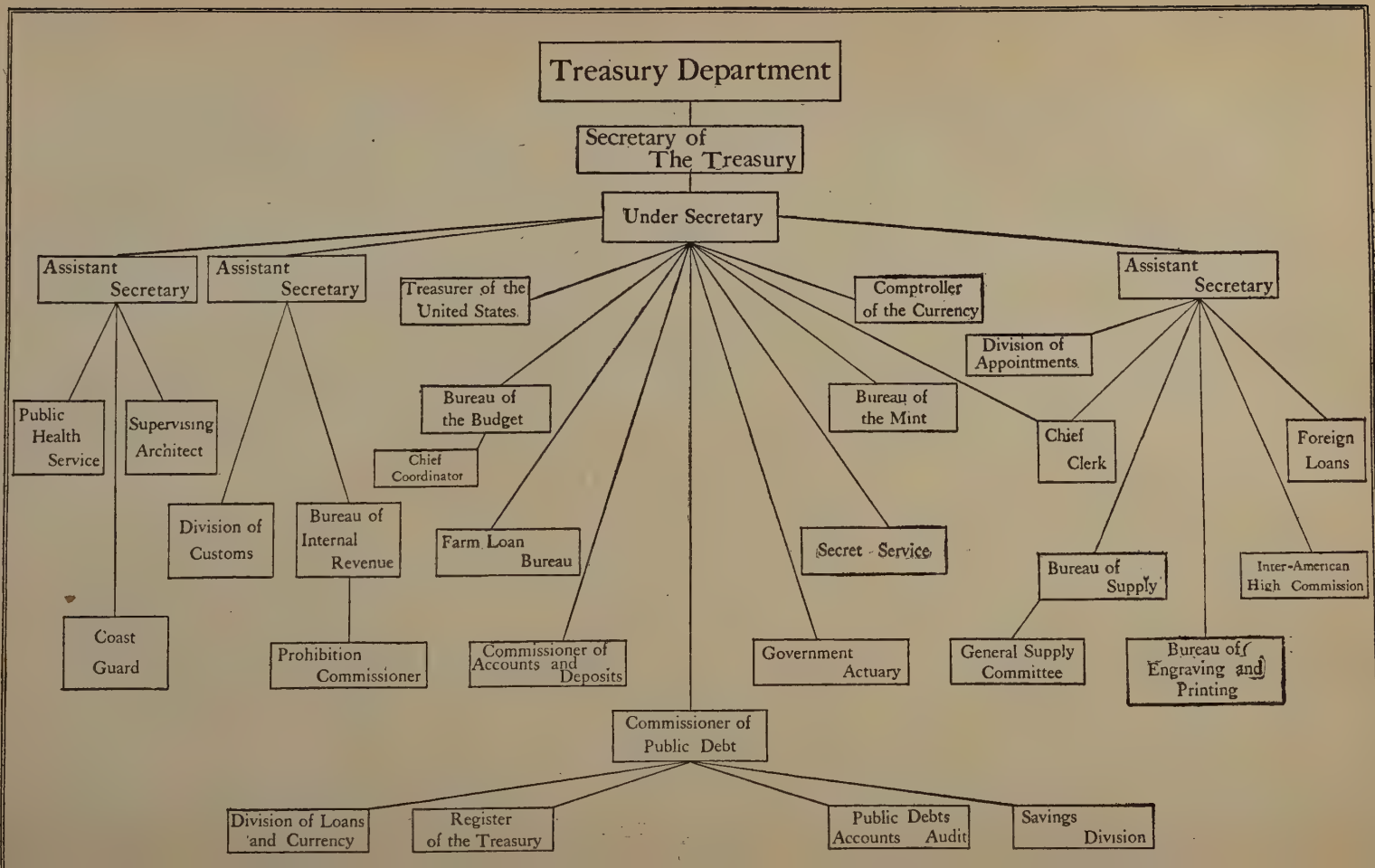
The General Land Office, whose head was a Commissioner, was created in the Department of the Treasury April 25, 1812, and was transferred to the Department of the Interior in 1849.

As head of the Department the Secretary is charged by law with maintaining the revenue for the support of the public credit; superintending the collecting of the revenue and directing the forms of keeping and rendering public accounts; granting of warrants for all moneys drawn from the Treasury in pursuance of appropriations made by law, and for the payment of moneys into the Treasury; and annually submitting to Congress estimates of the probable revenues and disbursements of the Government. He also controls the construction of public buildings and the coinage and printing of money. There are three Assistant Secretaries. Up to 1817 the Comptroller of the Treasury revised the report of the Accountants of the other departments, but an act passed March 3, of that year, created the offices of Second, Third, Fourth, and Fifth Auditors, whose duty it was to perform this work. A Sixth Auditor was added in 1836.

In 1894 the designations and duties of the auditors were changed and definitely established as follows: That of the First Auditor, to Auditor for the Treasury Department; Second Auditor, to Auditor for the War Department; Third Auditor, to Auditor for the Interior Department; Fourth Auditor, to Auditor for the Navy Department; Fifth Auditor, to Auditor for the State and other Departments; Sixth Auditor, to Auditor for the Post-Office Department. According to the act of 1894 the offices of First and Second Comptroller were succeeded by the office of Comptroller of the Treasury, whose duties were to render decisions in appeals from auditors and other officials and to prescribe forms for keeping the public accounts. The office is not now in existence.

Treasurer of the United States.—The Treasurer of the United States, whose office is a part of the Treasury Department, receives and disburses all public moneys deposited in the Treasury, sub-treasuries (q. v.) and in national banks that are United States depositories; is trustee for bonds that secure the national bank circulation and public deposits; has the custody of the Indian trust-fund bonds, and other public trusts; is fiscal agent for paying the interest on the public debt; and is ex-officio commissioner of the sinking fund of the District of Columbia. The duties of the Treasurer's office are distributed among eleven divisions.

Until 1894 the chief duty of the Register of the Treasury was the recording of


Treasury Department
Secretary of The Treasury
Under Secretary
Assistant Secretary
Assistant Secretary
Treasurer of the United States
Comptroller of the Currency
Assistant Secretary
Division of Appointments
Public Health Service
Supervising Architect
Bureau of the Budget
Chief Coordinator
Bureau of the Mint
Chief Clerk
Foreign Loans
Division of Customs
Bureau of Internal Revenue
Farm Loan Bureau
Secret Service
Bureau of Supply
Inter-American High Commission
Coast Guard
Prohibition Commissioner
Commissioner of Accounts and Deposits
Government Actuary
General Supply Committee
Bureau of Engraving and Printing
Commissioner of Public Debt
Division of Loans and Currency
Register of the Treasury
Public Debts Accounts Audit
Savings Division

the receipts and expenditures of the Government and the office was organized in several divisions, but in that year the number of divisions was reduced to two, viz., the Division of Loans and the Division of Notes, Coupons and Currency, the books relating to the recording of the receipts and expenditures of the Government being transferred to the Division of Bookkeeping and Warrants, of the Secretary's office. At present the office of the Treasurer is charged with the issue, exchange, transfer, and redemption of bonds and the receiving and registering of redeemed notes, certificates, coupons, etc.

Comptroller of the Currency.—The office of Comptroller of the Currency was established in 1863, its chief function being supervision of the national banks, their organization, and the issue and redemption of their notes.

Following is a list of the Secretaries of the Treasury with the Presidents under whom they served:

President	Secretary of the Treasury	Appointed
Washington	Alexander Hamilton, New York	1789
"	Oliver Wolcott, Connecticut	1795
Adams	" "	1797
"	Samuel Dexter, Massachusetts	1801
Jefferson	" " "	1801
"	Albert Gallatin, Pennsylvania	1801
Madison	" "	1809
"	George W. Campbell, Tennessee	1814
"	Alexander J. Dallas, Pennsylvania	1814
"	William H. Crawford, Georgia	1816
Monroe	" "	1817
J.Q.Adams	Richard Rush, Pennsylvania	1825
Jackson	Samuel D. Ingham, Penn	1829
"	Louis McLane, Delaware	1831
"	William J. Duane, Pennsylvania	1833
"	Roger B. Taney, Maryland	1833
"	Levi Woodbury, New Hampshire	1834
Van Buren	" "	1837
Harrison	Thomas Ewing, Ohio	1841
Tyler	" "	1841
"	Walter Forward, Pennsylvania	1841
"	John C. Spencer, New York	1843
"	George M. Bibb, Kentucky	1844
Polk	Robert J. Walker, Mississippi	1845
Taylor	W. M. Meredith, Pennsylvania	1849
Fillmore	Thomas Corwin, Ohio	1850
Pierce	James Guthrie, Kentucky	1853
Buchanan	Howell Cobb, Georgia	1857
"	Philip F. Thomas, Maryland	1860
"	John A. Dix, New York	1861
Lincoln	Salmon P. Chase, Ohio	1861
"	William P. Fessenden, Maine	1864
"	Hugh McCulloch, Indiana	1865
Johnson	" "	1865
Grant	George S. Boutwell, Mass	1869
"	Wm. A. Richardson, Mass	1873
"	Benjamin H. Bristow, Kentucky	1874
"	Lot M. Morrill, Maine	1876
Hayes	John Sherman, Ohio	1877
Garfield	William Windom, Minnesota	1881
Arthur	Charles J. Folger, New York	1881
"	Walter Q. Gresham, Indiana	1884
"	Hugh McCulloch, Indiana	1884
Cleveland	Daniel Manning, New York	1885
"	Charles S. Fairchild, New York	1887
B. Harrison	William Windom, Minnesota	1889
"	Charles Foster, Ohio	1891
Cleveland	John G. Carlisle, Kentucky	1893
McKinley	Lyman J. Gage, Illinois	1897
Roosevelt	" "	1901
"	Leslie M. Shaw, Iowa	1901
"	George B. Cortelyou, New York	1907
Taft	Franklin MacVeagh, Illinois	1909
Wilson	William G. McAdoo, New York	1913
"	Carter Glass, Virginia	1919
"	David F. Houston, Missouri	1920
Harding	Andrew W. Mellon, Pennsylvania	1921

Secret Service.—The Secret Service Division of the Treasury Department was created in 1861, but from 1862 until 1865 it was under the State Department. In the latter year it was permanently organized as a division of the Treasury Department. It is chiefly concerned with the detection of counterfeiting and of other frauds and crimes against the Government, but in time of war the scope of its duties is somewhat enlarged. Details are also furnished for the protection of the President of the United States, and in the frequent journeyings of the present President he is always accompanied by one or more secret-service men.

The arrest of counterfeiters number about 400 annually; other arrests are for bribery, impersonating United States Government officers, perjury, etc.

Coast Guard (q. v.)—This branch of the Government Service was formed from the Revenue Cutter Service (q. v.) and the Life-Saving Service (q. v.).

Supervising Architect.—The office of Supervising Architect, charged chiefly with the erection and maintenance of Government buildings, was created in 1864. Since 1853 this work has been done by a Division of Construction with an officer of the Engineer Corps of the army at its head.

Health Bureau.—The work of the Bureau of Public Health and Marine-Hospital Service was established in 1798 but was reorganized and the office of Surgeon-General created in 1872. This official has supervision of the health of seamen, the quarantine service, and the weekly publication of "Public Health Reports of the United States."

For more detailed information of the scope of the activities of the Treasury Department consult the index references to the Presidents' Messages and Encyclopedic articles under the following headings:

Appropriations.
Assistant Secretaries of the Treasury.
Auditors, Treasury Department.
Banks.
Banks, National.
Bank Notes.
Banks, Pet.
Banks, Savings.
Banks, State.
Bonds.
Buildings, Public.
Bureau of Engraving and Printing.
Bureau of War Risk Insurance.
Coinage Laws.
Comptroller of the Treasury.
Currency Law.
Customs.
Debt, Public.
Duties.
Engraving and Printing.
Excise Laws.
Federal Reserve Board.
Finances.
Health Service.
Import Duties.
Life-Saving Service.
Mints.
Money.
National Banks.
Public Deposits.
Reserve Banks.
Revenue-Cutter Service.
Revenue Flag.
Revenue, Internal.
Revenue, Public.
Secret Service.
Special Agents, Treasury Department.
Sub-Treasury.
Supervising Architect.
Tariff.
Taxation.

Treasury Department:

Appropriations for, transferred, 1254, 1404, 1612, 1772, 1904, 1943, 2125.
American Relief Administration to receive surplus supplies from, 9097.
Budget system, appropriations body under, should cooperate with, 8883.
Coast Guard re-transferred to, 8782.
Credit market no longer controlled by, 8884.

Efficiency and economy in, 7683.
Employees of, permitted appointment to defence bodies, 8247.
Food Administration details vested in, 8351.
Health activities of Government centred under, 8352.
Laws governing, amendment needed in, 7469.
Neutrality law enforcement authorized to, 7964.
Reforms accomplished in, 7506.
Vacancy by death of head of, 5568.
War Risk Insurance experts in, 7979.

Treasury Notes.—To meet the expenses of the War of 1812, $36,000,000 in Treasury notes bearing 5½ per cent interest were issued. They were receivable for all duties to the Government, but were not legal tender. Beginning with the panic of 1837 and extending through the Mexican War, $73,000,000 were issued, and following the panic of 1857 there was an issue of $53,000,000. The exigencies of the Civil War required the issue of Treasury notes in large amounts. An act of Feb. 25, 1862, authorized the issue of $150,000,000 of such notes with a legal-tender character and not bearing interest. These were called greenbacks (q. v.). The United States seven-thirties, of which $830,000,000 were issued, were a variety of Treasury note. Treasury notes were issued to pay for the monthly purchase of bullion authorized by the Sherman Act of 1890.

Treasury Notes. (See also Currency.)
Appropriation to meet outstanding, recommended, 3073.
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Redemption of, referred to, 1751.
Reissuance of, prohibition on, should be removed, 1686.
Retirement of, issued in payment of silver purchased under act of 1890, recommended, 6078, 6176.

Treasury Office of Accounts.—An important bureau under the Treasury Board as established by the Continental Congress. It was presided over by an auditor-general.

Treasury Savings Certificates. (See War Savings Stamps.)

Treasury, Secretary of:
Death of, vacancy caused by, how filled, 5568.
Plans of, concerning taxation, 8643, 8644, 8811, 8885.
Power of, over deposits unqualified, 1227.
Report of, 335, 464, 638, 652, 772, 800, 907, 909, 912, 1098.
Vacancy occasioned by death of, recommendations regarding filling of, 5568.
War administration details vested in, 8368.

Treasury, Solicitor of, office of, established, 1090.
Operations of, referred to, 2539.

Treaties.—The modern definition of a treaty is an agreement or covenant between two or more nations or sovereignties formally signed by duly authorized commissioners and solemnly ratified by each. In ancient times terms of treaties were dictated rather than contracted. A conqueror with an army at the gates of a capital stated his terms and declared his intention of remaining and inflicting such punishment as he saw fit until he received satisfactory assurances that his wishes would be carried out.

In the fifteenth century a jurisprudence of political treaties began to grow and was closely connected with the development of European statecraft. The treaty of Westphalia, which ended the Thirty Years' War, marked the turning point between ancient and modern diplomacy. Up to this time treaty negotiations had been based upon rights which had once existed and were recognized before rupture. After the treaties of Münster and Osnabrück, the object of diplomacy was to establish a political equilibrium at the expense of preexistent rights and to maintain the *status quo*. The efforts of European diplomats during the early part of the nineteenth century were directed toward the suppression of the revolutionary spirit and the curbing of monarchical ambitions. Later the maritime rights of neutrals, suppression of slave trade, and the international emancipation of trade, navigation, arts, and labor became leading subjects for diplomatic consideration.

The popularity of the principle of arbitration marks the latest step in diplomatic progress. The proposition made by the Czar of Russia in 1898 for the general disarmament of the world and the settlement of international disputes by a court of arbitration points to a culmination of the science of diplomacy. In this connection may also be noted Secretary Bryan's peace treaties.

The first treaties of the United States were conceived before the Declaration of Indpendence was signed. Nov. 29, 1775, the Continental Congress appointed a committee on secret correspondence, charged with ascertaining whether, if the Colonies should be forced to form themselves into an independent State, France would enter into any treaty or alliance with them. On Feb. 6, 1778, two treaties were concluded in Paris with France—a treaty of alliance and a treaty of amity and commerce. On Oct. 8, 1782, a treaty of amity and commerce was concluded with the Netherlands, and April 3, 1783, a similar treaty with Sweden.

Jan. 20, 1783, an armistice with Great Britain was arranged at Versailles, followed Sept. 3 by a definitive treaty of peace, later concluded in London, recognizing the independence of the United States. This was signed by David Hartley on the part of Great Britain and by Benjamin Franklin, John Adams and John Jay on the part of the United States. Other treaties concluded before the adoption of the Constitution were a treaty of amity

and commerce with Prussia, Dec. 10, 1785; a treaty of peace and friendship with Morocco in January, 1787, and a consular convention with France, Nov. 14, 1788.

In the United States the right of making and of ratifying treaties is, by Article II., Section 2, of the Constitution, vested in the President under the advice and with the concurrence of two-thirds of the Senate. The right of changing the terms and conditions of a treaty before ratification is claimed by the Senate.

International law or the law of nations is very clear upon the question of treaties and of all the interpretations of its conditions. No treaty may be made which will in any way or in the slightest degree override the Constitution, or which will bind either nation to any terms or conditions that flagrantly sacrifice the interests of either, or cause the nation to do anything morally wrong in the fulfillment. A treaty becomes binding at the time of signature by duly authorized commissioners, and if the ratification is delayed, such ratification becomes retroactive; though it may be specified in the treaty that its terms become operative only upon ratification. Where an ambiguity of expression or possibility of other construction of the terms of a treaty exists, no strained interpretation is permitted and the common use of the words is followed unless this leads to an absurdity. Where two meanings are possible, that one is chosen which confers the least benefit upon the party who sought or demanded the insertion of the doubtful clause. When clauses impose hard conditions upon either party these are to be interpreted strictly so as to minimize the hard conditions; and where justice, equity, and humanity are favored by the doubtful clauses they are interpreted with broad construction, so as to confer the fullest benefits.

The term "convention" is limited to agreements which deal with subordinate questions. Treaties are classified as treaties of peace, alliance, truces, commercial treaties, extradition treaties, conventions and protocols—a name given to less formal agreements between nations. Defensive treaties are designed to defend the parties mutually against the encroachments of others. Offensive and defensive treaties or alliances obligate the parties to aid one another at all times during conflict of either of the parties against the encroachments of other nations. Treaties of neutrality obligate the contracting parties to take no part in conflicts between other nations.

Extradition treaties, which provide for the return of accused criminals, are described below:

When Washington was called to the Presidency he found the northern frontier of the United States occupied by British military posts and Spain making encroachments on the south. With the outbreak of the French Revolution, Spain joined England, and French sympathizers in America were attempting to fit out privateers to prey upon Spanish and English commerce. Washington was urged to cast the fortunes of the United States into one side of the struggle. To avoid any entangling alliances he sent John Jay, Chief Justice of the United States, as a special envoy to London (page 146). Nov. 19, 1794, Jay concluded the treaty which has since borne his name. In consequence of the irritating conduct of M. Genet, the French minister at Washington, Congress in 1798 abrogated the treaties and consular conventions with France. Another treaty was made in 1800, and in 1803 three conventions were signed, including the one ceding Louisiana. One of the most enduring treaties made by the United States was that of Oct. 27, 1795, with Spain, which stood for more than 100 years. This was the only treaty not swept away by the Napoleonic wars.

The treaty of Ghent, signed in 1814, was important as settling some disputed boundary questions, as well as concluding peace between the United States and England. No mention was made of the right of search and the impressment of American seamen, though these were the especial causes of the war. Other notable treaties made by the United States were the Webster-Ashburton treaty, signed at Washington in 1842, defining the northeastern boundary between Canada and the United States, and the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, in 1848, concluding the Mexican War, by which Mexico ceded territory now comprising Nevada, Utah, most of Arizona, a large part of New Mexico, parts of Colorado and Wyoming, and all of California. The treaty with Japan in 1854 secured humane treatment for American sailors shipwrecked on the coast of Japan and the right to appoint a consular agent; it also led to the establishment of important trading privileges with the United States and Great Britain in 1858.

The treaties of Tientsin, concluded in 1858, and the Burlingame treaty of 1868 opened China to foreign travel and gave protection to Christians within her borders. The treaty of Washington was signed in 1871, and settled questions pending between the United States and Great Britain. It submitted the Alabama claims to a commission of arbitration and adjusted the fisheries question on a reciprocity basis. There was also a concession of important privileges by each of subjects of the other in America, and the question of the northwestern boundary of the United States was submitted to the arbitration of the German Emperor.

At the close of the Spanish-American War, in 1898, Spain was forced to relinquish Cuba and cede to the United States the island of Porto Rico, together with the Philippine Islands and Guam. Under the Constitution treaties are made a part of the supreme law of the land and they have a legal status similar to that of contracts. Numerous treaties have been made with the Indians and with various countries on the subject of extradition. (See Foreign Relations and Treaties with the various nations following descriptions of the countries.)

The Peace Treaty between the Allied and associated Powers on the one hand and Germany on the other hand, the Treaty of Versailles, was signed on June 28, 1919. The ratifications of it by all the countries concerned, except the United States and China, were deposited on January 10, 1920, after which the treaty went into effect. The treaty was submitted to the United States Senate by President Wilson on July 10, 1918. (See 8727.) After long consideration, the Senate added a number of reservations, with the result that the treaty failed to be ratified by the necessary two-thirds majority, by votes held on November 19, 1919, and on March 19, 1920. (See 8849.)

The treaty of peace with Austria, known as the Treaty of St. Germain, was signed on September 10, 1919, and ratifications were exchanged on July 16, 1920. The

treaty with Bulgaria, known as the Treaty of Neuilly, was signed on November 27, 1919, and ratifications were exchanged on August 9, 1920. The peace treaty with Hungary was signed at Versailles on June 4, 1920. That with Turkey, known as the Treaty of Sèvres, was signed on August 10, 1920. The treaty of St. Germain was not ratified by the United States.

The separate treaty of peace between the United States and Germany was signed on August 25, 1921, and was ratified by the two countries in November, 1921. The separate peace treaties with Austria and Hungary were signed in August, 1921, and ratified in November and December, 1921. The texts of these treaties will be found on pages 8990 to 8994. The various treaties signed at the Armament Limitation Conference in Washington in 1921 and 1922 will be found on pages 9076 to 9094. The Naval Armament Treaty was ratified in 1923.

Treaties (see Indians); for treaties with foreign nations, see the respective countries:
- Alleged violation of, memorial regarding, referred to, 2003.
- Assent of House to, not required, 188.
- Boundary survey made under treaty of Washington, 3588.
- Commercial, denouncement of, at Congressional direction, refused by President—
  - Harding, 9022.
  - Wilson, 8871.
- Contract for proposed edition of, referred to, 2273.
- Power to make, vested in President with consent of Senate, 187.
- Priority of one over another, law in regard to, 302.
- Referred to, 2538, 2540, 4851.
- Request of House for correspondence regarding, declined, 186.
- Return of, requested, 4888.
- Secret, denounced, 8230. (See also Secret Treaties.)
- Withdrawn, 4888, 4922.

Treaty of London. (See Secret Treaties.)

Treaty of Versailles. (See Germany, Treaty of Peace with.)

Trebizond, vilayet of, disposition of, 8841, 8854.

Trent Affair.—In the autumn of 1861 the government of the Confederate States sent J. M. Mason and John Slidel as commissioners to Great Britain and France, respectively. They went first to Havana, where they took passage on the British merchant ship Trent for St. Thomas, on their way to England. Nov. 8 the vessel was stopped in the old Bahama Channel by the U. S. S. San Jacinto, Capt. Wilkes. The Confederate commissioners were seized and taken to Boston as prisoners. Wilkes's act was in violation of the rights of neutral nations, for which the United States had always contended. The British Government promptly instructed its minister at Washington to withdraw from the United States unless the prisoners were set at liberty and an apology tendered within seven days. The United States disavowed the act of Capt. Wilkes and set the prisoners free.

Trent, The, removal of Confederate envoys from. (See Mason and Slidell.)

Trenton, The, loss of, at Samoan Islands, 5479.

Trenton (N. J.), Battle of.—Washington's retreat through New Jersey left him with scarcely 3,000 men on the west bank of the Delaware River on Dec. 8, 1776. On the night of Dec. 13, Dr. Charles Lee was taken prisoner at Baskingridge by the British, and his army added to that of Washington gave the latter some 6,000 able-bodied soldiers. On the night of Dec. 25, 1776, Washington, with about 2,500 men, crossed the Delaware River and on the morning of the 26th attacked an outpost of 1,500 Hessians at Trenton under Col. Rahl and captured about 1,000 of them and killed 40. The American casualties were 2 killed, 2 frozen to death, and 3 wounded. The effect of this victory and that of Princeton following it was electrical. The Americans were uplifted and the British discouraged.

Trianon Decree.—A secret edict issued by Napoleon at the Grand Trianon Palace, at Versailles, Aug. 5, 1810. It placed a duty of 50 per cent on colonial products and ordered the immediate confiscation of all American vessels and merchandise brought into French ports prior to May 1, 1810, the date of the approval of the act excluding French vessels from American waters. It also ordered that until Nov. 1 American vessels were to be allowed to enter French ports, but not to unload without his permission, offering at the same time to revoke the Milan and Berlin decrees Nov. 1. The revocation was not carried into effect, and American ships and cargoes availing themselves of the promised protection were confiscated. (See also Berlin Decrees; Embargo; Milan Decree; Orders in Council.)

Trianon, Treaty of, rights reserved to United States under, 8993, 8994.

Tribunal of Arbitration at Paris. (See Paris Tribunal of Arbitration.)

Tribunal of Paris, killing of fur seals regulated by, 7063.

Tribute paid Algeria by United States referred to, 115, 174, 325.

Trieste assigned to Italy, 8704.

Trinidad.—A British island possession in the West Indies, with an area of 1,860 square miles and a population, chiefly negro, of some 365,000. The annual revenue is in the neighborhood of $9,000,000 and imports and exports usually balance around the $30,000,000 mark. The chief exports are cocoa and sugar, followed by petroleum and asphalt (there is a large asphalt lake on the island). They go chiefly to the United Kingdom and the United States. The imports come, in order of value, from the United States, United Kingdom, Canada and Venezuela. In the fiscal year 1923 the United States exported to Trinidad goods valued at $4,502,770 and imported thence goods valued at $4,882,268. There are about 110 miles of railway line, 175 miles of telegraph and 3,500 miles of telephone wire. The above figures include the island of Tobago, 114 square miles.

Trinidad, vessels from ports of, duties on, suspended by proclamation, 4889, 6503.

Triple Alliance.—The popular name of three different political combinations of European powers: First—An alliance concluded at The Hague in 1668 between England, Holland and Sweden, having for its object the checking of the conquests of Louis XIV. Second—An alliance concluded in 1717 between England, France and Holland against Spain. With the addition of Austria in 1718 it became known as the Quadruple Alliance. Third—The Dreibund, originally formed October 7, 1879, as a dual alliance between Germany and Austria-Hungary, on the basis of mutual assistance in case of an attack by Russia on either party, and friendly neutrality in case of an attack by any other power. Italy joined this alliance and with the beginning of 1883, it has been known as the Triple Alliance. The treaty between Italy and Germany provided for common action in case of French encroachments on either power, and that between Italy and Austria-Hungary for the maintenance of a friendly neutrality in case of hostilities between France and Italy or between Russia and Austria-Hungary. (See World War.)

Triple Entente.—One of the political alliances or understandings between the European nations. Although published treaties bound the powers to no political or military alliance, it was generally conceded that Russia had an understanding with France that in the event of hostilities the two nations would unite against Germany. Great Britain also became a secret ally of France in her diplomatic and commercial rivalry with Germany. At the outbreak of the European War of 1914, Germany came to the assistance of Austria-Hungary when the latter was menaced by Russia, agreeably to the terms of the Triple Alliance, and France made ready to attack Germany on behalf of Russia in accordance with the Triple Entente. Italy maintained neutrality when the other members of the Alliance became involved, and Great Britain joined France and Russia in their operations against Germany on the ground of the violation of the neutrality of Belgium. (See World War.)

Tripoli.—An Italian province in northern Africa, wrested from Turkey by the war of 1911-12, and confirmed by the Treaty of Ouchy. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, on the east by Egypt, on the west by Tunis and on the south by the Desert of Sahara. Its exports consist mainly of products of the Sudan brought across the Sahara by caravan. The Oasis of Fezzan and some smaller oases are within its borders. It anciently belonged to Carthage and at a later date to Rome. It was overrun and conquered by the Arabs in the seventh century and by the Turks in the sixteenth century. It became an independent state in 1713, but was reconquered by the Turks about 1835. A war occurred between Tripoli and the United States. (See Tripolitan War.) The area is put at 406,000 square miles and the population, chiefly Arab and negro is estimated at 6,000,000.

Tripoli:

- Blockade of, by United States squadron referred to, 388, 389.
- Citizens of United States imprisoned in, liberated, 373.
- Claims of United States against, 1025.
- Corvette on coast of, destroyed by United States vessels, 353.
- Ex-Bashaw of, treaty with United States relative to restoring family of, to, 418.
- Hamet Caramilli, appeals of, to United States to place on throne of, in place of his younger brother, 380.
- *Philadelphia*, wreck of the, on coast of, 356, 362.
  - Officers and crew of, fall into hands of citizens of, 356.
- Pirates of, illustration of, opposite 410.
- Treaty with, 235, 378.
- War with. (See Tripolitan war.)

Tripoli, Treaty with.—The treaty of peace and amity of 1805 closed the Tripolitan War. By its terms freedom of commerce was granted to citizens of the United States upon conditions of the most favored nation. The Bashaw of Tripoli agreed to deliver to the commander of the American squadron all Americans in his hands in return for all of his subjects in the hands of the Americans. As the Americans to be released numbered about three hundred, and the Tripolitans in the hands of the Americans only one hundred, the United States agreed to pay the Bashaw of Tripoli the sum of sixty thousand dollars in compensation for the difference. The United States land forces should be immediately withdrawn without supplies; and the United States agreed to use her best offices to induce the brother of the Bashaw, her ally, to withdraw also. But the United States agreed not to use force to bring this about. Should the brother acquiesce, the Bashaw agreed to return his wife and child, held as hostages.

Passports should be granted to vessels of both nationalities, and provisions were made to render examination of passports and other papers as easy as possible. Humane provisions were made for a supply of food, repairs, and relief to distressed or shipwrecked sailors or vessels. The commerce, protection of merchants, and appointment of consuls in Tripoli were provided for on terms of the most favored nation. Freedom of conscience was guaranteed to all citizens of the United States.

Tripolitan War.—A war between the United States and Tripoli, 1801-1805. During the latter part of the eighteenth century the United States, following the custom of the leading European nations, paid an annual tribute to the rulers of the various Barbary States as the price of immunity from their piratical depredations. In consequence of a refusal on the part of the United States to increase the tribute the Bashaw of Tripoli, June 10, 1801, declared war (314). In anticipation of this event the United States had already sent a squadron to the Mediterranean. In October, 1803, the frigate *Philadelphia*, Capt. Bainbridge, while chasing a corsair into the harbor of Tripoli, struck a sunken rock and was captured with all on board. Commodore Decatur, of the *Intrepid*, ran his vessel into the harbor of Tripoli on the night of Feb. 16, 1804, and under the fire of the shore batteries burned the *Philadelphia*. Between July and September, 1804, Commodore Edward Preble made a series of attacks on the fortifications of Tripoli. Meantime Gen. William Eaton, United States consul at Tunis, joined Hamet, the rightful Bashaw

of Tripoli, in an expedition against his usurping brother. Marching from Egypt across the desert, they took Derne April 27, 1805. The success of this expedition made it possible to extort a highly favorable treaty from the Bashaw June 4, 1805, the United States agreeing to pay $60,000 ransom for the officers and crew of the *Philadelphia* and Hamet being induced to retire.

Tripolitan War:
- Blockade established by United States referred to, 388, 389.
- Discussed, 314, 331, 358, 379, 380.
- Establishing blockade, 388, 389.
- Letter of American consul regarding, transmitted, 363.
- Treaty of peace transmitted, 378.

Troops. (See Army; Militia.)

Truant Court for the District of Columbia, 7035.

Trust.—In modern commercial usage an organization for the control of several corporations or establishments under one direction or in one combination, the object being to enable the trustees or managers to direct and govern all the corporations or establishments, so as to control and suspend at pleasure the work of any, and thus to reduce expenses, regulate production, and defeat competition. In later years these combinations or trusts have greatly multiplied and increased, both in number and capital involved. The first anti-trust enactment was a provision in the constitution of Georgia, passed in 1877 and directed against the formation of pools among railroads. The Interstate Commerce (q. v.) law passed by Congress in 1887 also prohibited the formation of railroad pools. In 1889 several states passed anti-trust laws, and in 1890 Congress passed what is known as the Sherman Anti-trust law. This declared combinations in restraint of trade among the several states or with foreign powers illegal and fixed a penalty of $5,000 or one year's imprisonment. The operation of the Sherman law was not entirely satisfactory, and in 1903, on Attorney-General Knox's recommendation, Congress passed laws for expediting cases instituted under the Sherman Act, made the Interstate Commerce (q. v.) Act more effective and created the Bureau of Corporations in the new Department of Commerce and Labor (q. v.) to investigate corporations other than railroads engaged in interstate or foreign commerce. The latest enactment of Congress on the subject of trusts is the Clayton law passed in 1914.

The decisions of the United States Supreme Court, March 14, 1904, in the Northern Securities case prevented the combination of the Great Northern and Northern Pacific Railroads, declaring that a corporation organized to vote the majority of the stocks of the two railroads was not a mere holding company but a combination in restraint of trade, and ordered it dissolved. On July 1, 1905, five corporations and seventeen individuals engaged in the meat-packing industry were indicted at Chicago by the Federal Grand Jury for violation of the Sherman anti-trust law, and later pleaded guilty and were fined. The largest trust is the United States Steel Corporation, organized in 1901, which in 1908 had securities outstanding to the amount of $1,432,597,873.31, and assets aggregating $1,703,168,118.40. Moody's "Manual of Corporations" mentions some 1,500 trusts, and states that 440 large industrial and transportation trusts are active, and have a floating capital of $20,379,162,511.

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Tunis.—A French protectorate in northern Africa. It is one of the Barbary States. Tunis is bounded on the north and northeast by the Mediterranean Sea, on the southeast by Tripoli, on the south and southwest by the Desert of Sabara, and on the west by Algeria. It produces grain and fruits (principally dates and olives), and has important fishing interests. It is peopled by Arabs, Berbers, and Jews. Tunis formed a part of ancient Carthage, and later, as Roman Africa, it became the leading seat of Latin Christianity. It passed successively under the dominion of the Vandals, Greeks and Arabs. It was made a Turkish province in 1575. For a long time it was noted as a piratical state. It became a French protectorate in 1881. Area, about 50,000 square miles, with a population estimated at about 2,000,000.

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Tunis, Treaties with.—The treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation of 1797 was in some respects modified by the latter treaty of 1824. Both, in turn, were superseded by the treaty with France regarding Tunis of May 9, 1904. By this latter the consuls of the United States residing in Tunis are no longer governed by the conditions of the former treaties, but are to be regulated in all cases by international law. The government of France agrees by this treaty to accord to the said consuls all of the rights, privileges, and immunities so provided. (See France, Treaties with.)

Turin, Italy, Hygienic Congress at, 4626.

Turkestan.—A region of central Asia, east of the Caspian Sea and north of Persia, Afghanistan and Tibet, largely a desert. That part of it belonging to Imperial Russia had an area of 420,800 square miles and a population of 6,685,000 in 1915. Chinese Turkestan has an area of about 200,000 square miles and a population of several hundred thousand.

Turkey.—The Turkish or Ottoman Empire, before the World War embraced an empire in Europe and Asia of some 615,000 square miles, with a population of more than 20,000,000. At the dawn of the twentieth century, the Empire had been even larger, but by the war with Italy, 1911-12, Turkey lost Tripoli, with an area of 400,000 square miles and a population of some 6,000,000; and in the Balkan Wars of 1912-13, Turkey, which had held possession of the Balkan Peninsula between Old Servia and Old Greece to the Adriatic Sea, lost this territory to Servia and Greece, with the creation of the independent state of Albania along the Adriatic littoral and with much of Thrace surrendered to Greece and Bulgaria. At the beginning of the World War, Turkey in Europe had an area of only 10,882 square miles, with a population of about 1,890,000.

By the terms of peace of the World War (Treaty of Sévres), Turkey surrendered (1) practically all her territory in Europe to Greece, with the possible exception of Constantinople and the immediately adjacent territory; (2) the islands in the Aegean Sea, to Greece with Cyprus to Great Britain; (3) Syria to France; (4) Palestine to Great Britain; (5) Smyrna and most of the central eastern littoral of the Aegean Sea and a considerable hinterland, to Greece; (6) Armenia; (7) Mesopotamia, to Great Britain; (8) The Hejaz, along the eastern coast of the Red Sea; (9) Kurdistan. The new Turkey thus consists only of an area of about 175,000 square miles, almost all in Asia Minor, with a population estimated at 8,000,000.

In the small territory in Europe left to Turkey, Moslems are in the majority, with a sprinkling of Greeks, Bulgarians, Armenians, Jews, Gypsies. Most of the Turks are to be found in Asia Minor, but in the Turkish territory there the number of Arabs probably is close to 4,000,000, and there are also Greeks, Syrians, Kurds, Jews, Circassians, Armenians, and other races.

Physical Features.—In the western vilayets are the Granicus and Scamander, which rise in Mount Ida, 5,750 feet, the latter flowing through the plains of Troy; and the Meander, whose winding course to the Gulf of Miletus, on the Ægean coast, is the classical symbol of purposeless wandering.

Government.—The form of government in Turkey, before the country was thrown into turmoil by the World War and the succeeding peace arrangements, provided for a Parliament of two houses. The Senators were appointed by the Sultan. The members of the House of Deputies were elected by an indirect method. The Sultan ruled through a Grand Vizier and a cabinet of ministers of the executive departments. Mohammedanism was established as the state religion.

Finance.—The annual budget estimates at the close of the World War provided for a revenue of some 34,000,000 Turkish pounds and an expenditure of some 52,000,000 Turkish pounds. At the close of the World War, the total debt was placed at 465,000,000 Turkish pounds, including 155,000,000 Turkish pounds for foreign debt and 235,000,000 Turkish pounds for war debt. The normal pre-war foreign exchange gave the Turkish pound a value of $4.40 in United States currency; it was divided into 100 gold piasters.

The most recent statistics available showed about 16,500,000 acres under cultivation in Asiatic Turkey, chiefly under cereals. The soil is fertile, but agriculture is quite primitive. The tobacco crop is an important one. There are practically no manufactures. There are varied and extensive mineral deposits, but they are little worked.

Production and Industry.—The country is rich in minerals, including gold, silver, nickel, mercury, copper, iron, lead and coal, but its resources are almost entirely undeveloped; the forests of the northern mountains contain pine, fir, cedar, oak and beech, and the lower slopes and plains of the west produce figs, olives and grapes in abundance, while fruit trees flourish in the north. Cereals, cotton, rice and tobacco are cultivated, and buffaloes, camels, horses, sheep and goats form the principal wealth of the inhabitants. Carpets, rugs and cottons and mohair and silk stuffs are manufactured. Coffee, textiles and other manufactures, petroleum and salt are the principal imports. The Anatolian Railways, built by German enterprise, run from the coast to Angora, to Brusa, and to Konia, whence an extension is being built as a section of the Bagdad line (see Mesopotamia). There are also English and French lines in the west; these railways have given a great impetus to the trade of Anatolia.

Commerce.—In the last pre-war year, Turkey imported goods valued at $180,000,000, and exported goods valued at $90,000,000. The imports, in order of value, came chiefly from Great Britain, Austria-Hungary, Germany, Russia, France, Italy, Roumania, Egypt, United States. The exports, in order of value, went chiefly to Great Britain, France, Austria-Hungary, Egypt, United States, Germany.

In the most recent calendar year for which figures are available, the United States imported from Turkey in Europe goods valued at $11,176,999 and exported thither goods valued at $31,330,913; and imported from Turkey in Asia goods valued at $28,589,937, exporting thither goods valued at $10,916,885. In order of value, the most valuable goods exported to European Turkey were cotton manufactures; sugar; breadstuffs; leather; meat products and to Asiatic Turkey,—mineral oils; cotton manufactures; leather goods; sugar; iron and steel goods; alcohol.

History.—The Ottoman Turks are descended from Asiatic tribes, who migrated westward under the pressure of the Mongol invasion, and spread from Asia Minor into

southeast Europe at the beginning of the fourteenth century. The Turks captured Constantinople in 1453, and spread over the whole of the Balkan Peninsula, their name of Osmanli, or Ottoman Turks, being derived from Othman, or Osman, a notable Turkish leader in the thirteenth century. Early in the sixteenth century the Ottoman Empire was spread over Egypt and northern Africa, and penetrated northward into Hungary, a great part of which was incorporated with the Turkish dominions until 1699, when the Peace of Carlowitz freed the country from Turkish rule. In the nineteenth century the outlying African dominions, with the exception of Tripoli, broke away from their suzerain, or were occupied by other Powers, and in the latter part of the century the northern states of the Balkan Peninsula asserted their independence, under guarantees of the Christian Powers.

The revolution of 1908-1909 aimed at the restoration of the constitution granted in 1876, but withdrawn by the Sultan in 1877, from which date the rule of the Sultan was a despotism, tempered only by religious observances and the fear of a popular rising or of intervention by other Powers. The 1876 constitution, restored on July 23, 1908, consists of a monarchy and of an Assembly of two houses. During the process of constitutional reforms, which drove the Sultan Abdul Hamid (1876-1908) from the throne, war broke out between Italy and Turkey, and Tripoli and Benghazi were ceded to Italy under the Treaty of Ouchy. These events were followed in the autumn of 1912 and early months of 1913 by a disastrous war with the States of the Balkan League (Bulgaria, Montenegro, Servia, and Greece). At the outbreak of hostilities the European dominions of Turkey extended westward to the Adriatic and northward to Bosnia-Herzegovina, thus including the districts known as Macedonia, Thrace, and Albania. By the Treaty of London (1913), the northwestern boundary of European Turkey was a line drawn from Enos, on the Adriatic coast, to Midia on the Black Sea, thus excluding Adrianople, which had capitulated (after a long siege) to the Bulgarian forces. At the outbreak of the second Balkan war (in which Servia and Greece were aided against Bulgaria by Rumania), Turkey took advantage of the military difficulties of Bulgaria and reoccupied Adrianople, thus recovering a part of the lost dominions. (See Balkan Wars.) For Turkey's part in the World War, see World War.

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Turpentine and Rosin Products.—The earliest settlers in Virginia and the Carolinas extracted pitch and tar by charring wood under sod in kilns and pits. As in those days pitch and tar were used almost entirely in ship-building, they were called naval stores, by which name they and turpentine and rosin are still known. Today, however, spirits of turpentine and rosin are used chiefly as ingredients in paints, oils, varnishes, soap, paper, rubber, oilcloth, linoleum, wax, lubricants, medicines, etc. The replacement of wooden ships by steel to a great extent has decreased the demand for tar and pitch in recent times.

This industry was included in the last federal census of manufactures, made as of 1919, but not published until 1922.

The average value per gallon of spirits of turpentine distilled from gum was $1.17, as compared with $.39 in 1914 and $.44 in 1909. That from pine wood was valued at $.79, as compared with $.34 in 1914 and $.35 in 1909. The average price per barrel of rosin from crude gum was $15.68, as compared with $3.58 in 1914 and $3.85 in 1909.

In 1849, the industry was confined chiefly to eastern North Carolina, which was first outranked, by South Carolina, in 1879. Georgia led in 1889 and 1899, but then was replaced by Florida, while North Carolina has dropped to last place. In 1919, Florida produced about 40½% of the product; Georgia, 20½%; Alabama, 11%; Louisiana, 9%; Mississippi, 9%; Texas, 3½%.

There were 4 establishments employing from 250 to 500 wage-earners each; 30, from 100 to 250; 60, from 50 to 100; 330, from 20 to 50; 551, from 6 to 20; and 216 less than 6. There were 105 establishments with annual product valued at more than $100,000; 590, at between $20,000 and $100,000; 395, at between $5,000 and $20,000; and 101, at less than $5,000.

Of all the establishments, 547 were owned by individuals and employed 27½% of the wage-earners, producing 24% of the value of product. Corporations owned 247 establishments, employing 41% of the wage-earners and producing 47% of the value of product.

The unit of measure is the "crop," consisting of some 10,500 boxes or cups. In 1919, the number of crops worked was 12,141, as compared with 18,166 in 1914 and 20,158 in 1909. In 1919, 86½% of the crops were worked by the cup system, as compared with 65% in 1914 and 12% in 1909. After timber has been worked for four or five years, it is usually allowed to rest for the same length of time, or until its vitality is restored.

Trees worked averaged 13.3 inches in diameter for virgin, 13.6 inches for yearling and 13.6 for pulling, or third and subsequent years. The smallest trees worked are those in Florida, Georgia and South Carolina.

The statistics show that the greatest source of outlay is wages. The decrease in the number of establishments in recent years is due first to the decrease in the supply of the long leaf pine and secondly to the tendency to concentration in large establishments in the industry.

The increase in capital indicated is due to the development of new territory, the replacement of the old box system of collecting the gum by the more efficient but more costly cup system, and the increased cost of purchasing turpentine rights.

	1919 (Pub. 1922)	*1914*	*1909*	*1899*
Number Establishments	1,191	1,394	1,585	1,503
Persons Engaged	31,093	38,294	44,524	45,945
Capital	$33,595,986	$20,744,872	$12,400,978	$ 6,225,455
Salaries and Wages	19,215,737	10,017,385	11,018,750	9,172,177
Cost of Materials	13,929,888	5,535,561	4,910,838	6,186,492
Value of Products	53,051,294	20,990,191	25,295,017	20,344,888
Spirits of Turpentine Produced (gals.)	17,693,841	26,980,981	28,988,954	37,733,500
Barrels Rosin Produced	2,033,322	2,885,077	3,263,857	4,348,094

Turtle Mountain Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Tuscaloosa, Ala., bill to provide for purchase of site and erection of public building at, vetoed, 5521.

Tuscany.—A compartimento of the Kingdom of Italy. Tuscany corresponds nearly to the ancient Etruria. It was ruled by the Romans, Goths, Byzantine Greeks, Lombards, and Franks. It became completely disintegrated about the eleventh century, but was afterwards erected into the Grand Duchy of Tuscany. After several changes in its government it was taken by France and became a part of that country about 1808, and was restored to the Hapsburg-Lorraine line in 1814. Tuscany was annexed by Italy in 1860. (See Italy.)

Tuscany:
Treaty with France, 185.
Vessels of, discriminating duties on, suspended by proclamation, 1452.

Tuscarora Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Tutuila. (See Samoan Islands.)

Twenty-Cent Piece.—A silver coin of United States of the weight of 77.16 grains. It was authorized in 1875 and designed principally for use in the Pacific states. It was a legal tender to the amount of $5. Coinage of it was discontinued in 1878.

Two-Cent Piece.—A bronze coin of the United States of the weight of 96 grains. It was first issued in 1864, and was the first coin to bear the motto "In God we trust." It was legal tender to the amount of 25 cents. Coinage of the 2-cent piece was discontinued in 1872.

Two-Penny Act.—A law passed in 1755 by the Virginia assembly. The principal medium of exchange had up to this time been tobacco, it being considered more substantial than the paper money of the Colony. Under the provisions of the two-penny act, or option law, all debts payable, in tobacco were made payable, at the debtor's option, in money of the Colony at the rate of 16s. 8d. per hundredweight of tobacco. This was equivalent to 2d. a pound. On appeal to the Crown the law was vetoed.

Tygris, The, detention of, admitted by Great Britain, 2111.

Tyler and Luckett (assignees), act for relief of, vetoed, 4334.

Tyler, John.—April 6, 1841-March 3, 1845.

Fourteenth Administration—continued—Whig.

Harrison died April 4, 1841; Vice-President Tyler took oath of office April 6.

Secretary of State—
Daniel Webster (continued).
Hugh S. Legaré.
Abel P. Upshur.
John Nelson (acting).
John C. Calhoun.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Thomas Ewing (continued).
Walter Forward.
Caleb Cushing.
John C. Spencer.
George M. Bibb.

Secretary of War—
John Bell (continued).
John McLean (declined appointment).
James M. Porter (rejected by Senate).
John C. Spencer.
William Williams.

Secretary of the Navy—
George E. Badger (continued).
Abel P. Upshur.
David Henshaw (rejected by Senate).
Thomas W. Gilmer.
John Y. Mason.

Postmaster-General—
Francis Granger (continued).
Charles A. Wickliffe.

Attorney-General—
John J. Crittenden (continued).
Hugh S. Legaré.
John Nelson.

John Tyler was elected Vice-President by an electoral vote of 234—equal to that received by President Harrison. He succeeded to the position of President on the death of President Harrison, which occurred in a little more than one month after his inauguration. As this was the first break in the Presidential office since the organization of the Government, some dispute arose as to Tyler's title. Leading statesmen of both parties were actively discussing whether he was President or only Acting President. But Tyler settled the question for all time by signing his first message, "John Tyler, President."

Party Affiliation.—In the early part of his political career, Tyler was a strong supporter of President Madison's policies. In 1811 he opposed in the Virginia Assembly the recharter of the first Bank of the United States. As a member of Congress he was a strict constructionist; voted against Calhoun's internal improvement bill, the Missouri compromise, and protective tariff. In the Senate he opposed the "tariff of abominations" (1828). In 1832 he supported Jackson as the least objectionable candidate, but this support was only temporary. His nomination to the Vice-Presidency with Harrison was an effort to secure for the ticket the assistance of the dissatisfied Democrats.

Finance.—The great financial event of President Tyler's administration was his famous struggle with the Whig majorities in Congress over the Fiscal Bank and Fiscal Corporation, both of which measures he vetoed. In his opening message (page 1896) he recounted the history of the United States Bank, the sub-treasury system of President Van Buren, and other financial aspects. He uttered a note of warning to Congress which passed unheeded. He said: "I shall be ready to concur with you in the adoption of such system as you may propose, reserving to myself the ultimate power of rejecting any measure which may, in my view of it, conflict with the Constitution or otherwise jeopard the prosperity of the country, a power which I could not part with, even if I would, but which I will not believe any act of yours will call into requisition." Both houses passed, and the President signed, a bill to abolish Van Buren's sub-treasury plan. The fight for the national bank then came on. President Tyler had always maintained that the Federal Government had no Constitutional right to establish a national bank within a state without first having obtained the consent of that state. Both houses passed an act incorporating a bank of the United States without providing for the consent of the states, and the President vetoed it. It failed to secure the necessary two-thirds vote and died. The "fiscal corporation" bill was then brought forward incorporating such a bank in the

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT TYLER, 1841-1845.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)

FLAG OF 1845

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District of Columbia, with power to establish branches in other states. Pressure of all kinds was brought to bear upon the President to compel him to either sign this bill or to resign. But he was neither to be hoodwinked nor bullied. The bill passed both houses in September, 1841; but the President promptly vetoed it. Whereupon the majority of his Cabinet resigned, Webster alone remaining. No hoped-for embarrassment followed, for the President promptly filled the vacancies, and his nominations were at once confirmed. The great effect of the undoubted victory which Tyler won was the death-blow to paternal government.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the Tyler administration stood as follows: Jan. 1, 1842, $20,601,226.28; 1843, $32,742,922.00; 1844, $23,461,652.50; 1845, $15,925,303.01.

Tariff.—In the second year of Tyler's administration the strife between Congress and the President was renewed. Instead of the bank question, the tariff formed the matter of dispute. The importations were insufficient to supply the Government with means, and the reduction of duties by the compromise tariff had been so great that there was not money enough to meet the expenses. A bill was passed restoring the high protective tariff of 1833 and providing that the surplus revenues that were sure to accrue therefrom should be divided among the states. The President vetoed this bill on the ground that the compromise tariff provided that the protective tariff should come to an end in 1842, and because of the provision for distributing the surplus. Congress then framed another bill based on a tariff for revenue plan, with an incidental provision for protection and distribution. The President gave great offence to Congress by vetoing this bill also. There were threats of impeachment for unwarrantable assumption of authority; but the Whigs were afraid to go before the people for election in the autumn without settling the tariff, and they were obliged to pass a bill without the distributing clause. This the President promptly signed. Later, an attempt was made to pass the distributing clause in a separate bill, but the President vetoed that. In the next Congress, the Whig majority of 25 was replaced by a Democratic majority of 61.

Internal Improvements.—Congress passed two bills for river and harbor improvements, one for the eastern part of the country, and the other for the Mississippi section. The eastern bill President Tyler vetoed (page 2183); the Mississippi bill he signed. The discrimination was on the ground that the Mississippi was a great national highway, and therein differed from all other rivers, and was on that account a feature for the consideration of the Federal Government. An attempt to override the President's veto in this matter was not successful.

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Improvement of rivers and harbors, 2183.
Incorporating Fiscal Bank, 1916.
Incorporating Fiscal Corporation, 1921.
Payment of Cherokee certificates, reasons for applying pocket veto, 2182.
Revenue cutters and steamers, 2219.
Tariff bills, 2033, 2036.
Protest of President against action of House in adopting report assailing his conduct respecting, 2043.
Testimony in contested-election cases, reasons for applying pocket veto, 2108.
War between Texas and Mexico, discussed by. (See Wars, Foreign.)
Warehousing system recommended by, 2053, 2119.

Uganda.—A British protectorate in east central Africa. The total area is about 110,000 square miles, including more than 15,000 square miles of lakes. The total population is about 3,400,000. In a recent year, exports amounted to $6,000,000, chiefly cotton, coffee, hides and skins and ivory. There are more than 1,550 miles of telegraph in the protectorate.

Ukraine.—The name loosely applied to southern Russia from Poland to the Sea of Azov and the region of the Don River. The literal translation of "Ukraine" is "borderland." The Ukrainians are generally known also as Little Russians, and the Ukraine as Little Russia; and the section of the Ukrainian stock which lived before the World War in Galicia, in Austria, was known as Ruthenes.

The extent to which the Ukrainians differ ethnologically from the Great Russians, the dominant race of Russia, and the extent to which the Ukrainian language differs from Russian are matters of dispute. Strictly speaking, Ukrainia in Russia had an extent of about 200,000 square miles, but the total territory claimed by the Ukrainians, including sections of other countries inhabited predominantly by the Ukrainians, is more than 300,000 square miles in extent. The Ukrainians number about 32,000,000. Most of them belong to the Ukrainian Orthodox church, which is closely akin to the Greek Catholic or Russian Orthodox.

The Ukraine is predominantly agricultural, but the agricultural methods are still extremely primitive. The crops are varied, but wheat and other grains are especially abundant. After the Russian Revolution, the peasants gained control of the land. There are rich mineral deposits, especially iron and manganese, and one rich coal-field, in the Donetz basin. The petroleum deposits in the Galician region are extremely prolific and valuable.

Odessa on the Black Sea is the main seaport, but the capital and principal town is Kiev.

History.—From the ninth century, when a loose union of states in the Ukraine represented probably the highest form of civilization existing at that time in the territory known to-day as Russia, until the present, Ukrainian history has been the history of a race which has kept alive its national unity in spite of cruel persecution. In the eleventh century from the invading Tartar hordes, later from the Poles, in whose country Ukraine was long incorporated, and finally from the Russians, who had gained complete possession of the country in 1793 when the final partition of Poland took place (except Galicia, which fell to Austria), the Ukrainians have suffered extreme oppression and discrimination.

In the nineteenth century, the Russian government spared few efforts to Russify the Ukraine. The native language fell under rigid and cruelly enforced restrictions, the considerable Ukrainian culture was stamped out, there was general Russian colonization and the leaders of the Ukrainian nationalistic feeling were exiled. But around the middle of the nineteenth century, the movement for separate Ukrainian culture and political autonomy was revived, and persisted, in spite of persecution, on into the twentieth century. The first Duma had 63 Ukrainian representatives, 40 of whom were formed into a political unit for national independence, and the same situation was presented in the second Duma.

This was the situation of the Ukraine in European politics when the European War broke out. Not only were the Little Russians the hereditary foes of Russia, but also the Russian espousal of the cause of a restored Poland was in violation of the Ukraine's hopes for independence; so that Ukrainian sympathies were largely with the Central Powers. Although with the outbreak of the Russian Revolution in March, 1917, much of the hostility of Ukraine toward Russia ended, yet that occurrence was seized naturally as a godsend to the movement for Ukrainian national and cultural independence. Indeed, several months before, Ukraine had responded to the Allies' statement that autonomy for subject minor nationalities was one of their war aims with a demand that this principle be applied to the Little Russians.

With the Russian Revolution in March, 1917, the movement for Ukrainian independence gained headway, and on November 21, 1917, only several days after the Bolshevist Revolution in Russia, Russian Ukraine proclaimed its independence. Austrian Ukraine followed suit about one year later. In December, 1918, a provisional government was established. There were many disputes and some armed conflicts with the Bolshevist government concerning Ukraine's right to independence, and the Bolshevist government opposed the separate peace which the Ukraine made with the Central Powers several weeks before Russia made peace in the Treaty of Brest-Litovsk. In 1919 and 1920, the Ukraine was in armed conflict with both the Poles and the Bolsheviki, and was overrun on several occasions by the armies of its opponents. In 1921, it was not yet clear what the ultimate fate of Ukraine would be, although the western part had been assigned to Poland.

Ukrainians:
Contribution day for, 8273.
Included within Poland to extent of 3,000,000, 8837.

Umatilla, The, rewards to Osette Indians for rescuing, recommended, 4803.

Uncle Sam.—A personification of the United States Government. Several explanations have been given as to the origin of this expression, but the most plausible is the following: During the War of 1812 Elbert Anderson, an army contractor, bought large quantities of provisions for the Army and had them shipped to himself at Troy, N. Y. The shipping mark was "E. A." above and "U. S." below. One of the inspectors at Troy was Samuel Wilson, popularly known as "Uncle Sam" Wilson. A workman was asked the meaning of the initials "U. S.," which at that time were rarely used as an abbreviation for the United States. The prompt reply was "Elbert Anderson and Uncle Sam," referring to Sam Wilson. This interpretation became current among the workmen, many of whom afterwards enlisted and communicated the explanation to their comrades from all parts of the country as the mystic cipher elicited inquiry. The story went the rounds of the press and "Uncle Sam" became the popular appellation of the Government.

Uncle Tom's Cabin.—A novel written in 1851 by Harriet Beecher Stowe. Its successful purpose was to show the evils of slavery, and its wide popularity contributed greatly to the abolition sentiment.

Uncompahgre Reservation, bill to change boundaries of, vetoed, 5522.

Underground Railroad.—A name commonly applied before the Civil War to an arrangement whereby fugitive slaves were assisted to escape to Canada. The idea originated in some one of the northern states, and the plan consisted in harboring fugitives during the day and at night conducting them to the next "station" till they finally reached the border line. This "railroad" had many branches and the stations were a night's journey apart. The principal routes were from Kentucky across Virginia and Ohio, and from Maryland through Pennsylvania and New York. This system of aiding escaping slaves was partially organized in 1838, but did not attain its highest activity until the passage of the fugitive-slave law, about 1850.

Undersecretary of State.—This officer succeeded the Counselor of the State Department as the chief adviser and assistant of the Secretary of State, ranking next to the latter in the Department. In addition, he has direct supervision of the Latin American, Western European and Mexican Divisions of the Department and its Divisions of Publications, Political and Economic Information and Current Information, together with the Index Bureau.

Undersecretary of the Treasury. (See Treasury Department.)

Underwood Tariff Act.—The Tariff Act passed in 1913. (See Tariff.)

Unemployment Insurance.—Unemployment may be of various kinds. There is that of the unskilled worker, dependent upon the fluctuating demand for his kind of services, and the first to be thrown out of work in slack times. There is that due to the seasonal nature of the workman's calling. There is that due to the fact that the worker is trained for a calling which is dying out or in which machinery is taking the place of manual labor. There is that due to the fact that women and children, or cheaper immigrant labor, have entered the field. There is that due to the fact that the worker is more unemployable than unemployed. And there is that due to a depression in industry and a consequent decrease generally in the demand for labor.

From whatever species of unemployment, however, the worker may be suffering, society has come more and more to realize that the causes for his condition, even those which may be due to personal inefficiency, are social rather than individual causes; and that the responsibility for alleviating the distress due to unemployment is the responsibility of society. From this fact arose the movement for unemployment insurance, which attracted general attention in the United States for the first time in the depression of 1914.

On the Continent of Europe, most of the unemployment insurance is handled by local bodies. The most popular form seems to be the so-called Ghent system, in which trade unions which give unemployment benefits to their members are subsidized by the authorities. In 1911, Great Britain applied unemployment insurance to the building and construction trades, covering about 2,250,000 workmen. In 1916 occurred a temporary extension of the principle to other trades, notably those concerned with munitions and other kinds of war materials manufacture. On November 8, 1920, a new Unemployment Insurance Act came into operation, of which the salient features are as follows, including amendments as of March 3, 1921:

Those Covered.—All covered by health insurance (q. v.), except outworkers, domestic and agricultural workers, and those employed under conditions which make unemployment insurance unnecessary. Persons over 70 insurable, except those covered by old age pensions (q. v.). It was expected that altogether more than 12,000,000 workers would be thus protected against unemployment, including most of those earning less than $1,225 annually.

Contributions.—From employer, employee and state, the first giving 6d, for men of 18 and over, 5d. for women of 18 and over and 3d. for boys and 2½d. for girls of 16 and under 18. The second gives 5d. in the case of a man, 4d. in the case of a woman, 2½d. in the case of a boy and 2d. in the case of a girl. (1d. equals two cents in United States currency.) The state contributes 2¾d. for men, 2¼d. for women and proportionate amounts for boys and girls. The payments are made through special stamps affixed to unemployment books issued to employed persons through the employment exchanges. These payments are made weekly.

Benefits.—15s. weekly for men and 12s. weekly for women. (1s. equals 24 cents in United States currency.) Contributors under 18 entitled to half the full rate. Maximum payment, 26 weeks in any one insurance year (after July, 1922).

Eligibility.—Besides the provision for annual salary under $1,225, the worker must prove that he is available for work and cannot find it, is not out on strike, has not lost his employment through misconduct on his part, or voluntarily, and has kept up his contributions.

However, a person is not rendered ineligible if he refuses to accept a position in an establishment where there is a labor dispute or where the wages are lower or the conditions of work worse than those to which he has been accustomed, or in a district at a wage or in conditions of employment less favorable than those generally recognized in that district by agreements between unions and employers, or than those generally recognized in that district by good employers.

Refund.—Insured contributors who have made 500 contributions on reaching the age of 60 are entitled to a refund of the amount of their contributions with interest, less any benefit paid.

Special Schemes.—Arrangements are made for industries of their volition to set up special schemes under this act, giving equal or superior advantages.

In the United States, practically the only form of unemployment insurance at the present time is that of the trade unions and other voluntary, often fraternal, societies.

Unemployment:
Conference on—
Convened, 8997.
Statement on remedies suggested by, 8999.
Decrease in, 9025.
Extent of and remedies for, discussed, 8998.
Relief for, urged, 8929.
Unie, island of, disposition of, 8837.
Union Flags, return of Confederate and to respective States, recommended, 5163.
Proposition withdrawn, 5164.

Union Labor Party.—A successor of the Greenback party. It was organized at Cincinnati Feb. 23, 1887, and promulgated a platform embodying the principles of the Knights of Labor. In 1891 it united with the Farmers' Alliance and other elements to form the Populist party.

Union of South Africa.—This British dominion at the southern end of Africa extends northward from the Cape of Good Hope to the Limpopo River on the east, separating it from Southern Rhodesia, and to the Orange River on the west, separating it from Southwest Africa and Bechuanaland.

History.—The Cape of Good Hope was discovered in 1486 by Bartholomew Diaz, the commander of one of the many expeditions sent out by successive Kings of Portugal to discover an ocean route to India. Diaz merely doubled the Cape and returned home. Eleven years later, in 1497, Vasco da Gama not only doubled the Cape and landed in what is now Natal, but successfully accomplished the voyage to India. In 1652 the Netherlands East India Company took possession of the shores of Table Bay, established a fort, and occupied the adjacent lands, in order to be always ready with supplies for their passing ships. In 1814 the Cape was formally ceded to the British Crown.

Natal derives its name from the fact of its discovery on Christmas Day, 1497, by the celebrated Portuguese navigator, Vasco da Gama. The first European settlement was formed (1824) by a party of Englishmen, who established themselves on the coast where Durban now stands. Natal was then a part of the great Zulu kingdom. Between 1835 and 1837 another settlement was formed by a body of Dutch Boers, who came with their wagons overland from the Cape Colony and settled in the northern districts, where to this day the Boers preponderate. In the year 1843 Natal was proclaimed British and annexed to the Cape Colony. In 1856 it was erected into a separate colony, with representative institutions, and in 1893 acquired responsible government.

The Transvaal was formed as the South African Republic by parties of Dutch Boers from the English colonies who "trekked" into the interior of the continent and wrested the land across the Vaal River from the native chiefs. The discovery of the gold fields within its borders led to the settlement of large numbers of foreigners, and eventually to hostilities with the British Government. A war of nearly three years' duration was fought with great tenacity, and its close was marked by the inclusion of the South African Republic within the British Empire, "responsible government" being granted almost immediately. (See Boer War.)

The Orange Free State was founded, in much the same way as the Transvaal, by Boer emigrants from Cape Colony, and its independence was granted in 1854.

Physical Features.—The southernmost province contains many parallel ranges, which rise in steps toward the interior. The southwestern peninsula contains the famous Table Mountain (3,582 feet), while the Great Zwarte Bergen and Lange Bergen run in parallel lines from west to east of the southern province. Between these two ranges and the Roggeveld and Nieuweveld to the north is the Great Karoo Plateau, which is bounded on the east by the Sneeuwbergen, containing the highest summit in the province (Compassberg, 7,800 feet). In the east are ranges which join the Drakensbergen (11,000 feet), between Natal and the Orange Free State.

The Orange Free State presents a succession of undulating grassy plains with good pasture-land. Transvaal is also mainly an elevated plateau. The eastern province of Natal has pastoral lowlands and rich agricultural land, with the interior rising in terraces as in the southern provinces.

Government.—The Union of South Africa is constituted under the South African Act, passed by the Parliament of the United Kingdom on Sept. 20, 1909. In terms of that Act the self-governing Colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange River Colony became united on May 31, 1910, in a legislative Union under one Government under the name of the Union of South Africa, those Colonies becoming original Provinces of the Union under the names of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State respectively.

The Union Government is seized of all State property, and the railways, ports, harbors, and customs are administered by Union Commissioners for the benefit of the Consolidated Revenue Fund. The former debts of the Provinces are administered by and form a first charge upon the funds of the Union. Provision is made in the Act for the admission to the Union of Rhodesia, and for the transfer to the Union Government of the administration of protected and other native territories. The Union was inaugurated by His Royal Highness, the Duke of Connaught, in 1910. The seat of the Government is Pretoria; the capital is Cape Town. The Executive is vested in a Governor-General appointed by the Sovereign, and aided by an Executive Council, with a Legislature of two Houses.

The Senate consists of forty members. For ten years after the establishment of Union eight are nominated by the Governor-General in Council and thirty-two are elected, eight for each Province.

The House of Assembly consists of 130 elected members, fifty-one of whom represent the Cape of Good Hope, seventeen Natal, forty-five Transvaal, and seventeen the Orange Free State. Members of both Houses must be British subjects of European descent.

The Governor-General administers the executive department through a cabinet of ministers of state, headed by a premier. He has the power to summon, prorogue or dissolve either or both houses. The Assembly originates money bills, but may not pass a bill for taxation or appropriation unless it has been recommended by the Governor-General during the session. There are limits upon the amendment of money bills by the Senate.

Each province has an administrator appointed by the Governor-General and an elected provincial council. The restriction as to European descent does not apply to the provincial councils. Their enactments are subject to veto of the Governor-General. Both the English and the Dutch languages are official.

Area and Population.—The area of the Union of South Africa is 473,096 miles, as follows: Cape of Good Hope, 276,966; Natal, 35,291; Transvaal, 110,450; Orange Free State, 50,389 square miles. The last census showed a population of 5,973,394, of

whom 1,276,242 were white and 4,697,152 were colored. There is a preponderance of males. The largest towns, with their estimated populations, are Johannesburg, 275,000 and Cape Town, 195,000. The Cape of Good Hope is the most populous province, and Orange Free State, the least.

The last census of occupations showed 342,000 persons engaged in mining; 290,560 in domestic pursuits; 192,424 in agriculture; 143,255 in industry; 81,627 commercial; 59,721 professional; miscellaneous and unspecified, 15,696. Classed as dependents, 492,959. White persons engaged in the government or defence of South Africa, 26,258.

The chief religions represented among the white population were: Dutch churches, 693,898; Anglicans, 255,640; Wesleyans, 80,402; Presbyterians, 58,633; Roman Catholics, 53,793; Jews, 46,919. Among the non-Europeans, the chief religions represented were: Wesleyans, 456,017; Anglicans, 276,849; Dutch churches, 204,702; Lutherans, 195,308; Congregationalists, 173,982.

There are some 5,000 schools for whites and 2,750 schools for colored, with 275,000 white and 190,000 colored pupils, and a combined teaching staff of almost 20,000.

Finance.—Recent annual budgets have been in the neighborhood of $100,000,000. The total gross debt is approximately $850,000,000.

Production.—Recent figures show an annual wheat production of 610,000,000 pounds of wheat and 2,530,000,000 pounds of maize. More than 20,000,000 pounds of butter and 6,000,000 pounds of cheese are produced every year. In a recent year, exports included 115,000,000 pounds of wool, 20,000,000 pounds of mohair, and $11,500,000 worth of hides and skins. The production of ostrich feathers is an important activity. Cotton-growing is on the increase, a recent crop being above 800,000 pounds; more than 100,000 tons of sugar are produced annually; and the almost 5,000 acres under tea produce annually more than 5,000,000 pounds of green leaf tea.

A recent industrial census puts the value of the annual industrial output at $300,000,000. There were 5,919 factories, with total capital of $265,000,000; value of materials used, $140,000,000; number of persons employed, 134,000 (50,000 whites); wages paid annually, $61,000,000. According to number, the principal industries are those concerned with the preparation and preservation of foodstuffs and drinks; metals, engineering and cutlery; clothing and textile production; and vehicle manufacture.

The total mineral production from earliest records to a recent year amounted to $4,000,000,000, of which $2,775,000,000 was represented by gold and $915,000,000 by diamonds. The other important minerals produced are coal, copper and tin. In a recent year, the mineral production was valued at $260,000,000, of which $190,000,000 represented gold, $38,000,000 represented diamonds, $16,000,000 represented coal and $5,500,000 represented copper.

Commerce and Communications.—In a recent year, the imports amounted to $198,000,000 and the exports to $164,000,000. In order of value, the chief imports were cotton manufactures, followed by food and drink and apparel. The chief exports in order of value, and exclusive of specie, were wool, diamonds, hides and skins. The imports come chiefly from the United Kingdom, followed by the United States, India and Japan. The exports go chiefly to the United Kingdom, followed by the United States and Japan. In a recent year, the United States imported from British South Africa goods valued at $20,616,766 and exported thither goods valued at $60,939,159.

The railroads are owned by the state, and have a mileage of almost 10,000. There are 2,623 post-offices; 16,000 miles of telegraph line, carrying 54,000 miles of wire; and 3,215 miles of telephone line, with 130,000 miles of wire. Recent maritime statistics show more than 1,000 vessels, of 3,000,000 tons net, entering and clearing in the overseas trade and 1,775 vessels, of more than 2,500,000 tons net, in the coastwise trade.

Union Pacific Railroad, junction of, with Central Pacific, illustration, opposite 3856. (See also Railroads.)

Union Station, Washington, D. C. (See illustration opposite page 5635.)

Union Veteran Legion.—Organized at Pittsburgh, Pa., March 1884, and the National Organization was perfected Nov. 17, 1886. Encampments are now organized in twenty-one states and the District of Columbia, numbering 152 encampments. The membership is over 20,000. To become a member, the applicant must have been an officer, soldier, sailor or marine of the Union army, navy, or marine corps, during the late Civil War, who volunteered prior to July 1, 1873.

United Cigar Stores referred to, 7648.

United Confederate Veterans.—An association the objects and purposes of which are set forth in the constitution as finally adopted at the Houston reunion, May 23, 1895. It is a federation of all associations of Confederate veterans, soldiers and sailors. The purposes are the cultivation of ties of friendship between those who have shared common dangers, sufferings, and privations; the encouragement of the writing, by the participants therein, of narratives, episodes, occurrences, etc., of the Civil War; the collection of authentic data for an impartial history, and the preservation of war records; care for needy survivors and their dependents. Membership is by camps, and numbers about 60,000.

United Daughters of the Confederacy.—The United Daughters of the Confederacy was organized at Nashville, Tenn., Sept. 10, 1894. It is composed of the widows, wives, mothers, sisters, and lineal female descendants of men who served the Confederate cause. The objects are to unite, and to cultivate ties of friendship among, such women, to keep unsullied the record of Southern achievements in the Civil War, and to develop Southern character. It has about 100,000 members.

United Hatters. (See Loewe vs. Lawlor, et al.)

United Kingdom. (See Great Britain.)

United Labor Party.—A local political party organized in New York City in 1886. It nominated Henry George for mayor on a platform based upon his theory that values arising from the growth of society belong to the community as a whole, and that therefore land values should bear the burden of taxation (see Single Tax).

United Mine Workers of America, strike of, denounced, 8797.

United Sons of Confederate Veterans. (See Confederate Veterans, United Sons of.)

United States.—The United States is a federal republic consisting of forty-eight states and one federal district, besides the outlying territories of Alaska, Hawaii, the Philippine Islands, Porto Rico, Guam, Samoa (Tutuila), Wake and other islands, Panama Canal Zone, the Virgin Islands. Continental United States occupies the southern portion of the North American Continent, between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, in latitude 25°-49° North and longitude 67°-124° 30′ West, its northern boundary being Canada and the southern boundary Mexico.

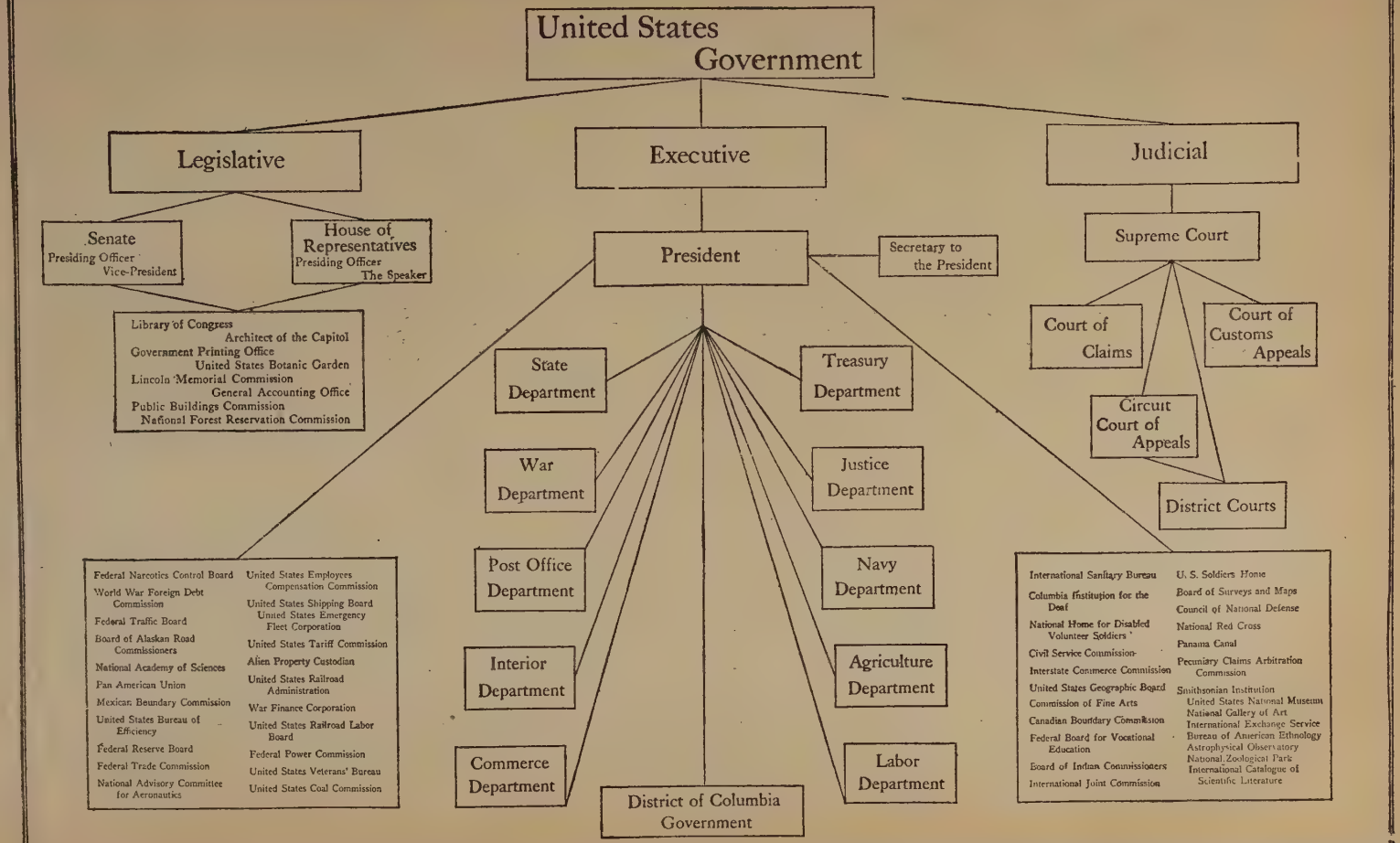
Physical Features.—The coast-line on both oceans has an estimated length of about 15,610 miles, besides 3,620 miles on the Great Lakes and 5,744 on the Gulf of Mexico. The principal river is the Mississippi-Missouri, traversing the whole country from north to south, and having a course of 4,500 miles to its mouth in the Gulf of Mexico, with many large affluents, the chief of which are the Yellowstone, Nebraska, Arkansas, Ohio, and Red Rivers. The rivers flowing into the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans are comparatively small; among the former may be noticed the Hudson, Delaware, Susquehanna, Potomac, and Savannah; of the latter, the Columbia, Sacramento, and Colorado. The Mobile and Colorado of Texas fall into the Gulf of Mexico, also the Rio Grande, which partly forms the boundary with Mexico. The chain of the Rocky Mountains separates the western portion of the territory from the remainder, all communication being carried on over certain elevated passes, several of which are now traversed by railroads; west of these, bordering the Pacific coast, the Cascade Mountains and Sierra Nevada form the outer edge of a high table-land, consisting in great part of stony and sandy desert, and in which occurs the Great Salt Lake, extending to the Rocky Mountains. Eastward the country is a vast, gently undulating plain, with a general slope southward towards the marshy flats of the Gulf of Mexico, extending to the Atlantic, interrupted only by the Alleghany Mountains, in the eastern states. Nearly the whole of this plain, from the Rocky Mountains to some distance beyond the Mississippi, consists of immense treeless prairies. In the eastern states large forests of valuable timber, as beech, birch, maple, oak, pine, spruce, elm, ash, walnut; and in the south, live-oak, water-oak, magnolia, palmetto, tulip-tree, cypress, etc., still exist, the remnants of the wooded region which formerly extended over all the Atlantic slope, but into which great inroads have been made by the advance of civilization. The Mississippi valley is eminently fertile. The mineral kingdom produces in great abundance iron, copper, lead, zinc, and aluminum; the non-metallic minerals including immense quantities of coal, anthracite, petroleum, stone, cement, phosphite rock, and salt. Precious metals include gold and silver, raised mainly in Colorado, California, and Alaska (gold), and Colorado, Montana, Utah and Idaho (silver); while precious stones are worked in great variety, including the turquoise, sapphire, tourmaline, and garnet.

History.—United States history may be said to commence with the colonizing expeditions from Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; for, although Columbus discovered America in the fifteenth century (Oct. 12, 1492), no definite European settlement was attempted until the last quarter of the sixteenth century, when England, Holland, Sweden, France, and Spain made determined efforts to bring into account the potential wealth of the newly discovered continent. Of these nationalities the English secured a paramount influence amongst the nations of Europe. In the seventeenth century a chartered company founded Jamestown (1607), and many Royalist settlements were established in the district which had been named Virginia, after Queen Elizabeth, in the previous century. But step by step with the Church and Royalist foundations in the south a similar series of Puritan and Separatist centres was established in the north. The small band of "Pilgrim Fathers" in their 180-ton *Mayflower*, from Southampton, England, to Plymouth, Massachusetts (1620), was soon followed by a stream of well-to-do merchants from Boston, Lincolnshire, and other east coast English towns, and New England became rapidly prosperous. Between these two settlements the Dutch had established themselves in New Netherlands (1621), and the Swedes in New Sweden (1638). Other English foundations were Maryland (1632), Carolina (1663), New York (1664), New Jersey (1665), and Pennsylvania (1681). Georgia (1732) was the last of the English settlements.

The Spaniards began colonizing with the second voyage of Columbus, but their settlements were mostly in Cuba, Haiti, Mexico and the islands of the Caribbean Sea and in South America. The few colonies planted on the main land were never of hardy growth. The discoveries of Cabot and Cartier opened the mouth of the St. Lawrence to French enterprise, and Champlain founded Quebec in 1608. Traversing the Great Lakes Jesuit missionaries and explorers descended the Mississippi River and established posts at St. Paul, Dubuque, Kaskaskia, and St. Louis, finally reaching New Orleans, thereby confirming the claim of France to the whole interior of the country

A continuous struggle was waged between the English and French settlements in America, but until the War of 1754-1763 little part was taken by Great Britain in the actual campaigns. The issue of this war decided the fate of America. The British Government levied an excise tax on many articles in everyday use in the colonies. The colonists resisted in arms, and bloodshed ensued at the first engagement at Lexington, April 19, 1775, and continued until the Capitulation of Yorktown, Oct. 19, 1781, when Lord Cornwallis surrendered with the whole of his forces to General Washington. When peace was concluded, Sept. 3, 1783, between America and Great Britain, no vestige of territory over which the dispute had raged remained under British rule. On July 4, 1776, the delegates of the various American colonies adopted the Declaration of Independence. (See Revolutionary War and the various battles.)

The Declaration of Independence (q. v.) was followed by the framing of a Constitution, which was ratified in 1787 to 1790 by the thirteen Original States (Delaware, Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Georgia, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maryland, South Carolina, New Hampshire, Virginia, New York, North Carolina, and Rhode Island). (See Admission of States.) This Constitution established a legislature of two houses,


United States Government
Legislative
Executive
Judicial
Senate
Presiding Officer
Vice-President
House of Representatives
Presiding Officer
The Speaker
President
Secretary to the President
Supreme Court
Library of Congress
Architect of the Capitol
Government Printing Office
United States Botanic Garden
Lincoln Memorial Commission
General Accounting Office
Public Buildings Commission
National Forest Reservation Commission
Court of Claims
Court of Customs Appeals
Circuit Court of Appeals
District Courts
State Department
Treasury Department
War Department
Justice Department
Post Office Department
Navy Department
Interior Department
Agriculture Department
Commerce Department
Labor Department
District of Columbia Government
Federal Narcotics Control Board
World War Foreign Debt Commission
Federal Traffic Board
Board of Alaskan Road Commissioners
National Academy of Sciences
Pan American Union
Mexican Boundary Commission
United States Bureau of Efficiency
Federal Reserve Board
Federal Trade Commission
National Advisory Committee for Aeronautics
United States Employees Compensation Commission
United States Shipping Board United States Emergency Fleet Corporation
United States Tariff Commission
Alien Property Custodian
United States Railroad Administration
War Finance Corporation
United States Railroad Labor Board
Federal Power Commission
United States Veterans' Bureau
United States Coal Commission
International Sanitary Bureau
Columbia Institution for the Deaf
National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers
Civil Service Commission
Interstate Commerce Commission
United States Geographic Board
Commission of Fine Arts
Canadian Boundary Commission
Federal Board for Vocational Education
Board of Indian Commissioners
International Joint Commission
U. S. Soldiers Home
Board of Surveys and Maps
Council of National Defense
National Red Cross
Panama Canal
Pecuniary Claims Arbitration Commission
Smithsonian Institution
United States National Museum
National Gallery of Art
International Exchange Service
Bureau of American Ethnology
Astrophysical Observatory
National Zoological Park
International Catalogue of Scientific Literature

and vested the executive power in an elective President; and on April 30, 1789, George Washington entered office as the first of a line of Presidents of the United States of America.

The maritime war of Britain and France led to the outbreak of hostilities between the former and the United States, owing mainly to the rival interpretation of the law of allegiance in connection with impressment of British subjects from American ships to serve in the British Navy. On June 18, 1812, the United States declared war against Britain, in which the latter was generally successful on land and the United States almost inevitably victorious on the sea. Peace was concluded by the Treaty of Ghent, on December 24, 1814, after a purposeless war.

The Mexican War, the Civil War, the Spanish-American War and the World War are described under separate headings.

Government.—By the Constitution (q. v.) of September 17, 1787, (to which nineteen amendments (See Amendments) have been added), the government of the United States is entrusted to three separate authorities—the Executive, the Legislative, and the Judicial.

The Executive power is vested in the President, advised and assisted by the heads of ten executive departments. The description and history of these departments will be found under the headings, State, Treasury, War, Attorney-General, Postmaster-General, Navy, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Labor. (See also President.)

THE PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES IN AREA, POPULATION AND MATERIAL INDUSTRIES FROM 1809 TO 1920 IS SHOWN IN THIS TABLE, WHICH IS COMPILED FROM A STATEMENT PREPARED BY THE BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE, DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

	1800	1850	1880	1900	1920[a]
Area [b] ..... square miles	892,135	2,997,119	3,026,789	3,026,789	3,026,789
Population [c] ..... no.	5,308,483	23,191,876	50,155,783	75,994,575	106,389,246
Population per sq. mile [c] .. no.	6.47	7.88	16.86	25.55	35.77
Wealth [d e] ..... dols.	.....	7,135,780,000	42,642,000,000	88,517,306,775	187,739,071,090
Wealth, per capita [d e] ... dols.	.....	307.69	850.20	1,164.79	1,764.64
Public debt, less cash in Treasury [g] ..... dols.	82,976,294	63,452,774	1,919,326,748	1,107,711,258	24,330,889,731
Public debt, per capita .. dols.	15.63	2.74	38.27	14.52	228.60
Interest bearing debt [h] .. dols.	82,976,294	63,452,774	1,723,993,100	1,023,478,860	24,061,095,361
Annual interest charge .. dols.	3,402,601	3,782,393	79,633,981	33,545,130	1,052,333,621
Interest, per capita ..... dols.	0.64	0.16	1.59	0.44	9.89
Gold coined ..... dols.	317,760	31,981,739	62,308,279	99,272,943	.....
Silver coined ..... dols.	224,296	1,866,100	27,411,694	36,345,321	11,068,400
Gold in circulation [i] .... dols.	16,000,000	147,395,456	225,695,779	610,806,472	[k]834,687,970
Silver in circulation [i] .... dols			68,622,345	142,050,334	[k]385,083,071
Gold certificates in circ. dols.	.....	.....	7,963,900	200,733,019	390,522,842
Silver certific. in circ.... dols.	.....	.....	5,789,569	408,465,574	118,521,774
U. S. notes ..... dols.	.....	.....	327,895,457	313,971,545	337,299,793
National bank notes in circulation ..... dols.	.....	.....	337,415,178	300,115,112	696,345,834
Federal Reserve notes ... dols.	.....	.....	.....	.....	3,122,001,747
Fed. Res. bank notes ... dols.	.....	.....	.....	.....	198,735,191
Total circ. of money .... dols.	26,500,000	218,761,982	973,382,228	2,055,150,998	6,084,854,578
Per capita ..... dols.	5.00	12.02	19.41	26.93	57.19
National banks ..... no.	.....	.....	2,076	3,732	7,990
Capital ..... dols.	.....	.....	455,909,565	621,536,461	1,214,769,000
Bank cleargs. N. York .. dols.	.....	.....	37,182,128,621	51,964,588,564	214,703,444,468
Total United States .. dols.	.....	.....	.....	84,582,450,081	387,091,941,000
Deposits in Nat. banks. dols.	.....	.....	833,701,034	2,458,092,758	[m]13,533,908,000
Deposits in savgs. banks dols.	.....	43,431,130	819,106,973	2,389,719,954	5,902,577,000
Depositors in savgs. bks. no.	.....	251,354	2,335,582	6,107,083	11,434,881
Farms and farm prop. [d] dols.	.....	3,967,343,580	12,180,501,538	[n]20,439,901,164	40,991,449,000
Farm products, value [p] .. dols.	.....	.....	2,212,450,927	4,417,069,973	24,982,000,000
Manfg. establishments [d] no.	.....	123,025	253,852	[q]207,514	275,791
Value of products [d] ... dols.	.....	1,019,106,616	5,369,579,191	[q]11,406,926,701	[q]24,246,434,724
United States Govt. receipts—net ordinary [r] dols.	10,848,749	43,592,889	333,526,501	567,240,852	6,688,900,647
Customs ..... dols.	9,080,933	39,668,686	186,522,065	233,164,871	322,902,650
Internal revenues ..... dols.	809,397	.....	124,009,374	295,327,927	5,405,031,575
U. S. Govt., disbursements, net ordinary [t] dols.	10,813,971	40,948,383	264,847,637	487,713,792	6,304,098,173
War ..... dols.	2,560,879	9,687,025	38,116,916	134,774,768	9,253,059,384
Navy ..... dols.	3,448,716	7,904,725	13,536,985	55,953,078	2,909,272,389
Pensions ..... dols.	64,131	1,866,886	56,777,174	140,877,316	221,614,781
Int. on public debt .. dols.	3,402,601	3,782,393	95,757,575	40,160,333	615,867,337
Imports of merchandise dols.	91,252,768	173,509,526	667,954,746	849,941,184	5,238,621,668
Exports of merchandise dols.	70,971,780	144,375,726	835,638,658	1,394,483,082	8,111,039,733
Imports, silk, raw ..... lbs.	.....	.....	2,562,236	11,259,310	44,816,918
Rubber, crude ..... lbs.	.....	.....	16,826,099	49,377,138	632,392,636
Tin plates ..... lbs.	.....	.....	379,902,880	147,963,804	66,944
Iron and steel, manufactures of ..... dols.	.....	20,145,067	71,266,699	20,478,728	26,880,164
Domestic exports, iron and steel manufac ..... dols.	52,144	1,953,702	14,716,524	121,913,548	932,675,866
Domestic exports, all manufactures ..... dols.	.....	23,223,106	121,818,298	484,846,235	3,827,919,628
Farm animals, value .... dols.	.....	544,180,516	1,576,917,556	2,228,123,134	8,566,313,000
Cattle ..... no.	.....	17,778,907	33,258,000	43,902,414	68,232,000
Horses ..... no.	.....	4,336,719	11,201,800	13,537,524	21,109,000
Sheep ..... no.	.....	21,773,220	40,765,900	41,883,065	48,615,000
Mules ..... no.	.....	559,331	1,729,500	2,086,027	4,995,000
Swine ..... no.	.....	30,354,213	34,034,100	37,079,356	72,909,000
Production of gold ..... dols.	.....	50,000,000	36,000,000	79,171,000	58,488,800
Silver, com. value .... dols.	.....	50,900	34,717,000	35,741,100	61,966,412
Coal ..... long tons.	.....	6,266,233	63,822,830	240,789,310	485,949,107
Petroleum ..... gals.	.....	.....	1,104,017,166	2,672,062,218	15,864,198,000
Pig iron ..... tons	.....	563,755	3,835,191	13,789,242	31,015,364

THE PROGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES IN AREA, POPULATION AND MATERIAL INDUSTRIES FROM 1800 TO 1920—*Continued.*

	1800	1850	1880	1900	1920
Steel.....tons	.....	.....	1,247,335	10,188,329	44,462,432
Tin plates.....lbs.	.....	.....	.....	849,004,022	3,301,624,244
Copper.....long tons	.....	650	27,000	270,588	585,063
Wool.....lbs.	.....	52,516,959	232,500,000	288,636,621	301,307,000
Wheat.....bush.	.....	100,485,944	498,549,868	522,229,505	940,987,000
Corn.....bush.	.....	592,071,104	1,717,434,542	2,105,102,516	2,917,450,000
Cotton.....bales	153,509	2,454,442	6,605,750	10,245,602	11,420,763
Cane sugar.....lbs.	.....	247,577,000	178,872,000	322,549,011	241,998,400
Sugar consumed.....lbs.	.....	.....	1,979,221,478	4,477,175,236	9,721,948,011
Cotton consumed 500-lb.bales	18,829	422,626	1,865,922	3,603,516	6,288,920
Domestic cotton exported lbs.	.....	638,381,604	1,822,061,114	3,100,583,188	3,543,743,487
Railways operated.....miles	.....	9,021	93,267	194,262	264,233
Passengers carried.....no.	.....	.....	.....	576,331,251	1,084,997,896
Freight carried 1 mile tons	.....	.....	.....	141,596,551,161	394,465,400,493
Revenue, ton per milecents	.....	.....	.....	0.729	0.715
Passenger cars.....no.	.....	.....	.....	34,713	56,505
Other cars.....no.	.....	.....	.....	1,416,125	2,515,737
American vessels built *y* tons	106,261	279,255	157,409	393,790	3,850,639
Trading domestic, etc. tons	301,919	1,949,743	2,715,224	4,338,145	6,395,429
Trading foreign.....tons	669,921	1,585,711	1,352,810	826,694	9,928,595
On Great Lakes.....tons	.....	198,266	605,102	1,565,587	3,138,690
Vessels passing through Sault Ste. Marie Canal tons	.....	.....	1,734,890	22,315,834	50,089,490
Commercial failures.....no.	.....	.....	4,735	10,774	3,352
Amount of liabilities..dols.	.....	.....	65,752,000	138,495,673	86,743,876
Post-Offices.....no.	903	18,417	42,989	76,688	53,084
Receipts of P.-O. Dept..dols.	280,804	5,499,985	33,315,479	102,354,579	436,239,126
Telegrams sent (1).....no.	.....	.....	29,215,509	63,167,783	151,725,288
Newspapers, etc. (3).....no.	.....	2,526	9,723	20,806	21,664
Public schools, salaries dols.	.....	.....	55,942,972	137,687,746	436,477,090
Patents issued.....no.	.....	993	13,947	26,499	38,598
Immigrants arrived (5)...no.	.....	369,980	457,257	448,572	621,576

a Figures of 1920 are somewhat preliminary and subject to revision; in certain cases, the figures are the nearest to 1920 available. *b* Exclusive of Alaska and islands belonging to the United States. *c* Census figures, relating to Continental United States. *d* Census figures. *e* True valuation of real and personal property. *g* 1800 to 1850, outstanding principal of the public debt, January 1. *h* Figures for the years 1800 to 1850 include the total public debt. *j* Gold and silver cannot be stated separately prior to 1876. From 1862 to 1875, inclusive, gold and silver were not in circulation, except on the Pacific Coast, where it is estimated that the average specie circulation was about $25,000,000, and this estimate is continued for the three following years under the head of gold. After that period gold was available for circulation. *k* As the result of a special investigation by the Director of the Mint, a reduction of $135,000,000 was made in the estimate of gold coin in circulation on July 1, 1907, as compared with the basis of previous years, and on September 1, 1910, a reduction of $9,700,000 was made in the estimate of silver coin. *m* Includes all deposits, demand and time. *n* Includes value of buildings, $3,556,639,496. The Twelfth Census was the first to collect statistics of buildings on farms. *o* Includes value of buildings. *p* Gross value of all farm products. The figures of the various censuses are not comparable, reason for which will be found in census reports. *q* Exclusive of neighborhood industries and hand trades, included in years previous to 1905. *r* "Ordinary receipts" include receipts from customs, internal revenue, direct tax, public lands, and "miscellaneous," but do not include receipts from loans, premiums, Treasury notes, or revenues of Post-Office Department. *t* "Ordinary disbursements" include disbursements for war, navy, Indians, pensions, payments for interest, and "miscellaneous," but do not include payments for premiums, principal of public debt, or disbursements for postal service paid from revenue thereof. *w* Domestic exports only after 1860. *y* Includes canal boats and barges prior to 1880. (1) Figures relate to the Western Union only and after 1900 do not include messages sent over leased wires or under railroad contracts. (3) 1800 to 1850, inclusive, from census of 1880; from 1880 to 1900, inclusive, from Rowell's Newspaper Directory; after 1900 from Ayer's American Newspaper Annual. (4) Includes salaries for teachers only. (5) 1850, total alien passengers arrived; 1850, 15 months ending December 31; after 1850, fiscal years ending, June 30.

The Legislative power is vested in two Houses, the Senate and the House of Representatives, the President having a veto power, which may be overcome by a two-thirds vote of each House. Two Senators from each state are elected by the people thereof for the term of six years; and Representatives are chosen in each state, by popular vote for two years. The number of Representatives for each state is allotted in proportion to its population—at present one for 212,407. (See articles on Apportionment, Congress, Senate and House.)

The *Judiciary* consists of three sets of federal courts: (1) The Supreme Court at Washington, D. C., consisting of a Chief Justice and eight puisne judges, with original jurisdiction in cases affecting ambassadors, etc., or where a state is a party to the suit, and with appellate jurisdiction from inferior federal courts. (2) The Circuit Court of Appeals, dealing with appeals from district courts, and consisting of the Justice of the Supreme Court for the circuit and all the Circuit and District Judges within the circuit. (3) The District Courts, eighty-five in number, served by a District Court Judge. Besides these, the Court of Customs Appeals (q. v.) was created in 1909. (See Judiciary Courts, and Supreme Court.)

Education.—The system of public instruction extends from the kindergarten to the university. Control is vested in the state and local authorities, the only central organization being the Bureau of Education charged with statistical and advisory functions only. The number of illiterates is swollen by immigrants, and by the fact that some 44 per cent of the colored population receive no instruction. It is said that no home is beyond reach of a school, whilst in some cases pupils are conveyed to and fro at public expense. A salient feature of the American system is co-education of the sexes throughout, there being comparatively few institutions where the tuition is not dual. Powerful aid is afforded by private and philanthropic initiative. Special Schools and Professional Establishments are numerous. Leading Universities are California, the Catholic University of America, Chicago, Clark, Columbia, Cornell, Harvard, the Johns Hopkins, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Princeton, Stanford, Virginia, Wisconsin, and Yale. (See Education.)

Articles on the co-ordinate branches of the United States government will be found al-

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- Interior Dept.
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United States Employees' Compensation Commission.—This body was created by Act of Congress approved September 7, 1916, to control the payment of compensation to all civil employees of the Federal Government injured, except by intoxication or wilful misconduct, in the performance of their duties. By Executive Orders of the Presidents, compensation for employees of the Panama Canal Commission and Alaskan Engineering Commission has been placed under the jurisdiction of those bodies.

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placed in the custody of the State court. The Pennsylvania officials, with the militia, resisted payment for twenty-six days, when the marshal assembled a *posse comitatus* of 2,000 men, and the money was paid over without actual collision.

United States vs. Todd.—A case not printed, there having been no reporter at the time. It was possibly the first case in which the United States Supreme Court declared a Federal statute unconstitutional. Under an act of Congress passed in 1792 the name of Yale Todd was by the circuit court of Connecticut ordered to be placed upon the pension list. It was afterwards (Feb. 17, 1794) decided by the Supreme Court of the United States that the circuit court could not constitutionally make such a decree, nor could it act in the capacity of a commission not of judicial function.

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University of Paris praised, 8651.

University Settlement. (See Social Settlements.)

Unlawful Expeditions. (See Illegal Combinations.)

Unrest. (See Social Unrest.)

Upper Pend d'Oreille Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)
Treaty with, 2913.

Uruguay.—Uruguay is the smallest of the South American Republics and lies between 30°-35° S. latitude and 53° 25'57° 42' W. longitude, with an eastern (Atlantic) seaboard of 120 miles, a southern shore line of 235 miles on the estuary of Rio de la Plata, and 270 miles of the Uruguay River on the west. In the north the territory is conterminous with Brazil for 450 miles.

Physical Features.—The country consists mainly (and particularly in the south and west) of undulating grassy plains. In no case do the peaks exceed 2,000 feet.

The principal river of Uruguay is the Rio Negro, flowing from northeast to southwest into the Rio de la Plata. The boundary river Uruguay is navigable from its estuary to Salto, about 200 miles north, and the Negro is also navigable for a considerable distance. On the southeast coast are several lagoons, and the northeast boundary crosses Lake Mirim.

The climate is extraordinarily healthful, with great uniformity of temperature, the summer heat being tempered by the breezes of the Atlantic and the geographical position causing a high thermometer in winter.

History.—Uruguay resisted all attempted invasions of the Portuguese and Spaniards until the beginning of the seventeenth century, and 100 years later the Portuguese settlements were captured by the Spaniards. From 1726-1814 the country formed part of the Spanish South America and underwent many vicissitudes during the Wars of Independence. In 1814 the armies of the Argentine Confederation captured the capital and annexed the province, and it was afterward annexed by Portugal and became a province of Brazil. Aug. 25, 1825, through the heroism of the thirty-three liberators (whose memory is perpetuated in the name of one of the provinces), the country threw off the Brazilian yoke. This action led to war between Argentina and Brazil, which was settled by the mediation of the United Kingdom, Uruguay being declared an independent state in 1828.

Government.—In 1830 a Republic was inaugurated, with a Constitution of Sept. 10, 1829, amended last in 1918 and effective in 1919. The President is elected by the legislature for a term of four years and is ineligible for a consecutive period of office.

There is a Congress of two houses. The Senate consists of nineteen members (one for each department), elected by indirect vote for six years and renewable as to one-third every two years. The Chamber of Deputies is composed of ninety members, elected for three years by direct vote. Congress meets in annual session from February to June.

Each of the nineteen Departments has a Prefect appointed by the President, and an elective municipal council. Justice is administered in subdistrict and district courts, and in departmental courts at each provincial capital. There is a high court at Montevideo composed of three judges elected by Congress.

The executive power is divided between the President and the National Administrative Council. The latter consists of nine members, elected by the people. Six belong to the majority party and three to the leading minority. The President has charge of the Departments of War and Marine, Foreign Affairs and Interior, and appoints their ministers. The other departments, Education, Industry, Finance and Public Works, are controlled by the Council, which appoints their ministers.

Area and Population.—The area of Uruguay is 72,153 square miles, with a population estimated at 1,429,585. The last preceding census showed a population of 1,042,686, of whom 181,222 were foreigners, chiefly Italian and Spanish. The capital, Montevideo City, has an estimated population of 365,000. It is the only large town.

Most of the people are Roman Catholics, but there is complete separation of church and state. Primary education is compulsory. Latest educational statistics showed 987 public schools, with 105,475 pupils and 207 private schools, with 19,909 pupils. There are a university at Montevideo and some special and professional schools, including many schools conducted by the churches.

Finance.—The unit of value is the peso, equal to $1.03½ in United States currency. Recent budgets have been in the neighborhood of $30,000,000 annually. The public debt is officially announced as $173,703,012.

Production and Industry.—More than 100,000 of the people are engaged in agriculture. The last annual yield of the principal crops was given as follows:

Crop	Acreage	Metric Tons
Wheat	849,427	187,523
Oats	165,221	53,655
Linseed	52,275	12,660
Barley	5,197	1,578

There is much production of wine, the vineyards yielding in a recent year more than 40,000,000 kilos. of grapes and 5,630,000 gallons of wine. Olives and tobacco also are cultivated.

The rearing of live-stock is the most important industry. Latest figures showed within Uruguay 7,802,442 cattle, 567,154 horses, 11,472,852 sheep, 16,663 mules, 12,218 goats and 304,000 pigs. The extensive pasture lands are particularly suitable for cattle breeding and sheep farming, and there are many establishments for the preparation of jerked beef (tasajo) for Brazil and Cuba, and of meat extract for Europe, while the department of Paysandu sends a special brand of ox-tongues all over the world. The frozen meat industry is now developing rapidly.

The mining industry is in its infancy and awaits capital. Gold and silver, lead, copper, magnesium and lignite are indicated, and gold is produced in small quantities.

Manufactures.—The industries connected with the live stock raising constitute the chief manufactures, with the exception of flour from home-grown grain. Outside these, Uruguay still depends very largely on imported goods.

Commerce.—In a recent year the imports were valued at $40,000,000 and the exports at $135,000,000. In order of value, the chief exports are wool and canned goods and food extracts. The imports come chiefly from the United States, Argentina, Brazil and the United Kingdom. The exports go chiefly to the United Kingdom, United States, Spain, France, Italy, Argentina.

In a recent year, the United States imported from Uruguay goods valued at $33,780,647 and exported to Uruguay goods valued at $33,720,550. The chief exports to Uruguay from the United States were, in order of value, iron and steel goods; mineral oils; sugar.

Communications.—The three railroads, all British-owned, have a total mileage of 1,654. There are 260 telegraph offices and 4,808 miles of telegraph lines. There are 27,000 miles of telephone wire in Montevideo and 37,300 miles elsewhere in the country. There are more than 1,000 post-offices.

Uruguay:
American citizens aggrieved by acts of, referred to, 2014.
Treaty with, 2703, 2718, 2813, 4072.
Delay in exchange of ratifications of, referred to, 2915.

Uruguay, Treaties with.—An extradition treaty was concluded with Uruguay March 11, 1905, and a naturalization convention was signed at Montevideo August 10, 1908.

Uruguay also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910 and proclaimed in Washington, July 29, 1914. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Usury.—A charge for the use of money in excess of the legal rate of interest. Usury is universally discredited and in many states it is a penal offense. (See Statutes of Limitations and Interest Laws.)

Utah.—One of the western group of states sometimes referred to as "Deseret," a word taken from the Book of Mormon and signifying "Honey Bee." Nickname, "Mormon State." The State extends from lat. 37° to 42° north, and from long. 109° to 114° west. It is bounded on the north by Idaho and Wyoming, on the east by Colorado and Wyoming, on the south by Arizona, and on the west by Nevada. The area is 84,990 square miles. The surface is largely mountainous and includes part of the Great Basin and all of the Great Salt Lake. The region formed a part of the territory ceded by Mexico in 1848. Agriculture, mining and manufacture, are the leading industries. Probably no other state in the Union has such a variety of resources. Irrigation has been practiced from the beginning and was once thought absolutely necessary, but in later years arid farming has achieved wonderful success. The main products of the soil are wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, sugar beets, corn, alfalfa and timothy. The yearly wool clip amounts to many millions of pounds and is continually increasing. Utah fruits are superior in sweetness, firmness, beauty and fine flavor. The most successful manufacturing industry, aside from the smelting, milling and refining of ores, is the making of beet sugar. Salt production is also extensive, as is fruit and vegetable canning. The mountains of Utah contain inexhaustible deposits of minerals of great variety; some of them unique and peculiar to the region. Silver, lead, coal and iron have been mined for many years, and gold has also been found; but copper is the great mining staple in Utah at the present time.

The first white settlements were made by the Mormons in 1847-1848. The Territory of Utah was organized in 1850. Prejudice against these people and the polygamous practices of some of them, kept Utah out of the Union for many years, though she possessed every qualification for statehood and made repeated efforts to secure it. After the issuance by the Mormon Church of its manifesto discontinuing the practice of polygamy a State Constitution was framed prohibiting plural marriages, and this instrument being approved at Washington, the State was admitted Jan. 4, 1896. The Mormons still have a majority in Utah, though in the leading cities the Gentile or non-Mormon element predominates.

In 1910, the population was 373,351. Of these, 65,882 were foreign-born, including more than 18,000 English, 3,963 Germans, 8,300 Danes, 4,039 Greeks, 7,227 Swedes, 1,657 Irish, 2,853 Scotch, 1,672 Welsh, 2,305 Norwegians, 3,117 Italians, 1,870 Austrians, 2,050 Japanese. Forty-six per cent of the population was urban. The 1920 census gave the population as 449,396.

The most recent educational statistics show 131,374 children between the ages of 5 and 18, of whom 110,193 were enrolled in the schools, with an average daily attendance of 85,996. There were 917 male and 2,532 female teachers, and 642 public elementary schools. There were 43 public high schools, with 256 male and 215 female teachers, and 4,648 male and 5,449 female students.

The 1910 census showed 21,676 farms in the state, with an average of 157 acres to the farm and 40% of the farm land classed as improved. The 1920 census gave the number of farms as 25,664.

The last annual agricultural production was given as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay, tame....	472,000	*1,265,000	$16,445,000
Wheat.....	280,000	5,366,000	8,210,000
Potatoes.....	17,000	3,298,000	2,638,000
Oats.....	78,000	3,143,000	2,514,000
Corn.....	24,000	521,000	782,000
Barley.....	17,000	685,000	685,000
Sugar Beets...	112,700	*1,305,000	.....

* Tons.

The last annual fruit crop included 918,000 bushels of apples, 825,000 bushels of peaches and 60,000 bushels of pears.

Utah is one of the leading states in mineral production. In a recent year, the copper production amounted to 182,589,000 pounds, $31,579,000; lead, 219,098,000 pounds, $10,165,000; silver, 12,724,000 fine ounces, $6,244,000; coal, 3,085,000 tons, $5,860,000; gold, 189,107 fine ounces, $3,908,000; zinc, 22,643,000 pounds, $3,325,000. Other important mineral products are salt, gypsum, manganese ores, petroleum, sulphur.

The raising of live-stock, especially sheep, is prosecuted on a wide scale. Recent figures for farm animals give 145,000 horses, 109,000 cows, 518,000 other cattle, 2,245,000 sheep, 114,000 swine. The last annual wool clip was estimated at 15,800,000 pounds.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Utah having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 1,110. The amount of capital invested was $71,653,000, giving employment to 17,129 persons, using material valued at $62,234,000, and turning out finished goods worth $87,114,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $13,696,000.

Utah:
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Affairs in, correspondence regarding, referred to, 3115, 3123.
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Appropriation bill passed by legislature of, and vetoed, discussed and recommendations regarding, 4984.
Brigham Young, first governor of, 2985.
Alleged rebellion under leadership of. (See Alleged Rebellion in, *ante*.)
Removal of, and successor appointed, 2986, 3034.
Difficulties with, terminated, 3018, 3034, 3179.
Extraordinary session of legislature of, act authorizing, recommended, 4984.
Gilsonite or asphaltum in, disposition of lands containing, discussed, 6168.
Government of, discussed by President—
Arthur, 4837.
Buchanan, 2985, 3014, 3024, 3034.
Fillmore, 2663.
Hayes, 4558.
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Industrial home in, report of board on, referred to, 5186.
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Land laws, extension of, over, recommended, 2623, 3037.
Land office in, recommended, 3037.
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Legal proceedings and condition of affairs in, referred to, 3115.
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Commissioners appointed under "act in reference to bigamy," etc., referred to, 4678, 4731, 4771, 4801, 4837, 4946.
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Mountain Meadow massacre in, referred to, 3123.
Peace restored in, 3179.
Polygamy in, discussed by President—
Arthur, 4644, 4731, 4771, 4837.
Buchanan, 2985.
Cleveland, 4946, 5379.
Garfield, 4601.
Grant, 4105, 4157, 4309, 4310.
Harrison, Benj., 5553, 5641.
Hayes, 4511, 4557.
Pardons granted persons guilty of unlawful cohabitation in polygamous marriage, 5803, 5942.
Proclamation regarding, 3024.
Recommendations regarding suppression of, 2987.
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Threatened conflict between Federal and Territorial authorities in, discussed, 4162.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamation against, 5932.
Utah and Northern Railway, agreement with Shoshone and Bannock Indians for disposal of lands for use of, 4655, 5187.
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Ute Commission, appropriation for, recommended, 4672.
Ute Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Vacancies in Public Offices, power of President to make provisional appointments to fill, discussed, 3190.

Vallandigham Case.—May 5, 1863, Clement L. Vallandigham, a lawyer and politician of Ohio, was arrested in accordance with orders issued by Gen. Burnside, of the United States Army, commanding the Department of Ohio. On the day following he was taken before a military commission, and subsequently tried, convicted and imprisoned for uttering opinions disloyal to the Union. May 19 the President commuted this sentence to banishment. Vallandigham applied to the Supreme Court for a writ of certiorari to review the proceedings of the commission, by which he claimed to have been unlawfully convicted. The Supreme Court, Justice Wayne delivering the opinion, decided that it had no power to review proceedings ordered by a general officer of the United States Army. Justices Nelson, Grier and Field concurred; Chief Justice Taney and Justice Miller were not present.

Valparaiso, Chile, sailors of the *Baltimore,* assaulted at. (See *Baltimore,* The.)

Van, vilayet of, referred to, 8854.

Van Buren, Martin.—1837-1841.

Thirteenth Administration—Democratic.

Vice-President—R. M. Johnson.

Secretary of State—
John Forsyth (continued).

Secretary of the Treasury—
Levi Woodbury (continued).

Secretary of War—
Joel R. Poinsett.

Secretary of the Navy—
Mahlon Dickerson (continued).
James K. Paulding.

Postmaster-General—
Amos Kendall (continued).
John M. Niles.

Attorney-General—
Benjamin F. Butler (continued).
Felix Grundy.
Henry D. Gilpin.

Martin Van Buren was elected by the Democratic party in 1836. At the Democratic National Convention, held at Baltimore, May 20, he was nominated on the first ballot.

Opposition.—A rival faction of the party nominated Hugh L. White, of Tennessee. Several rival candidates were named by States as National Republican or Whig candidates. Among these were William Henry Harrison, Daniel Webster and Willie P. Mangum. Twenty-six states participated in the election, Arkansas and Michigan having been recently admitted.

Vote.—At the election held Nov. 8, the popular vote was Van Buren, 762,678; Harrison, 548,007; White, 145,396; and Webster, 42,247. The electoral vote, counted Feb. 8, 1837, gave Van Buren, 170; Harrison, 73; White, 26; Webster, 14; and Mangum, 11—all of South Carolina.

Party Affiliation.—In his youth, Van Buren was a zealous adherent of Jefferson; he was elected to the State senate of New York as a Clinton Republican; but in 1813 resumed friendly connections with Madison's administration. He disentangled the political complications that prevailed during the "era of good feeling" (1819-1821) in New York and brought about the election to the Senate of Rufus King, an old-school Federalist. Later, he became a generous supporter of Jackson, but in all of his political affiliations his conduct was marked by conservatism and moderation.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the Twenty-fifth Congress (1837-1839) the Senate, of 52 members, was made up of 31 Democrats, 18 Whigs, and 3 Independents; and the House, of 242 members, was made up of 117 Democrats, 115 Whigs, and 10 Independents. In the Twenty-sixth Congress (1839-1841) the Senate, of 52 members, was composed of 22 Democrats, 28 Whigs, and 2 Independents; and the House, of 242 members, was made up of 103 Democrats, 132 Whigs, 6 Independents, and 1 vacancy.

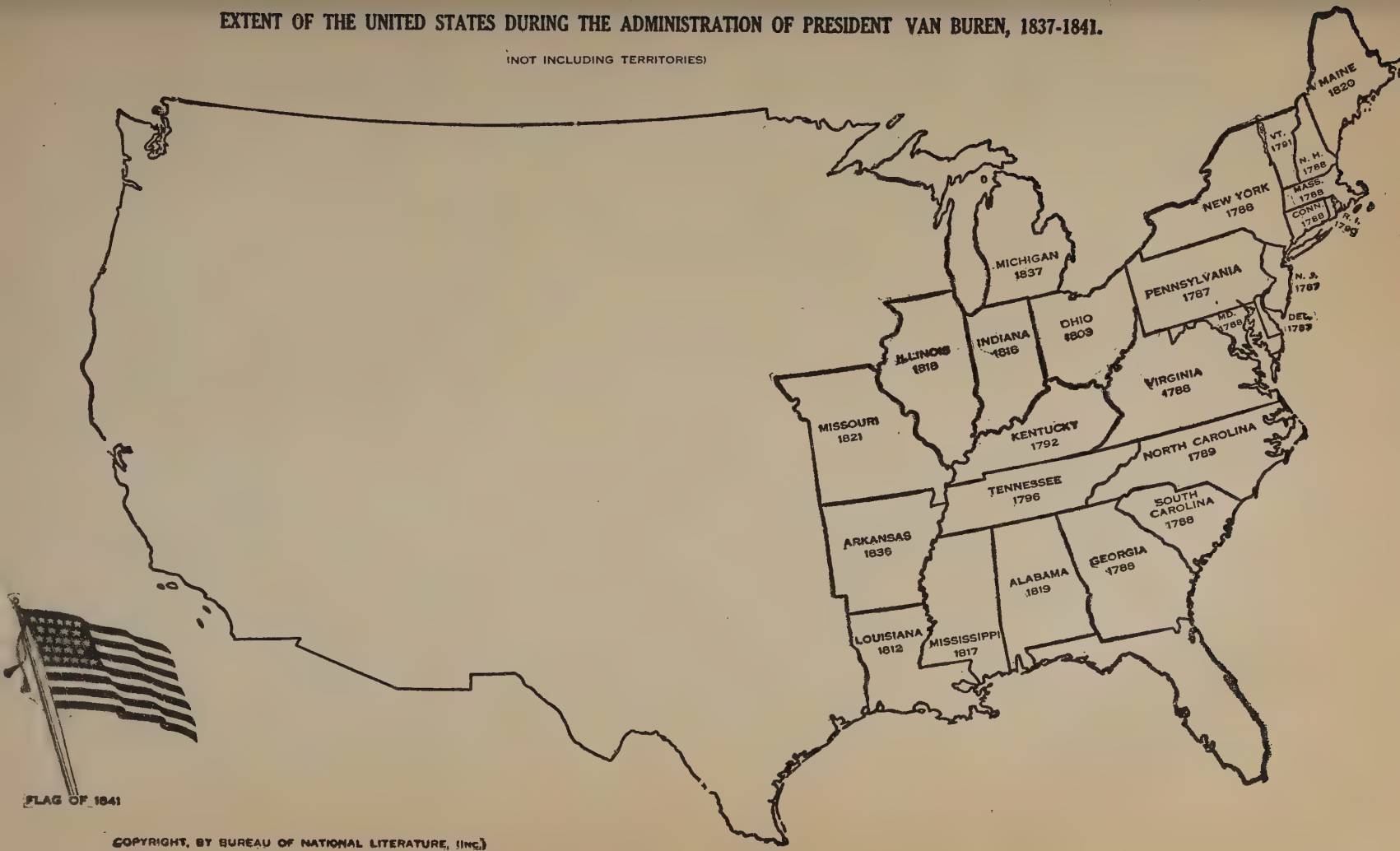
Finance.—A commercial panic began in March, 1837, by the failure of Briggs & Co., of New Orleans. The panic reached its height in May, when all the banks in New York, Boston, Philadelphia and Baltimore suspended specie payments. This so much embarrassed the Government that President Van Buren convened Congress in special session in September, 1837, to consider the situation. In his Special Message (page 1541) he analyzes in detail the financial crisis and the causes which led to it. He then unfolds his plan for the institution of an independent treasury for the keeping and disbursing of Government funds. It was the return to the system in use in Washington's time and was departed from, despite the earnest warnings of Jefferson, when the United States Bank was chartered for the deposit of Government money. Congress was unwilling to sanction the plan, but the President, with unusual insistence, succeeded, near the close of his term of office, in securing the assent and cooperation to his sub-treasury plan. The Whig Congress of 1842 repealed the measure and deposited the funds in selected private banks until 1846, when the sub-treasury system was again adopted and has persisted to the present day. In his Fourth Annual Message (page 1827) the President gives a survey of the fiscal affairs of the country and says that "It will serve to illustrate more fully the principles by which I have been guided in reference to two contested points in our public policy which were earnest in their development and have been more important in their consequences than any that have arisen under our complicated and difficult, yet admirable, system of government. I allude to a national debt and a national bank. . . . Coming into office a declared enemy of both, I have earnestly endeavored to prevent a resort to either."

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the administration of President Van Buren stood as follows: Jan. 1, 1838, $10,434,221.14; 1839, $3,573,343.42; 1840, $5,250,875.54; 1841, $13,594,480.75.

Commerce.—The commercial status of the United States in the year 1840 is shown by the following statistical summary: Area, 2,059,043 square miles; population, 17,069,453; population per square mile, 8.29; wealth, $7,135,780,000; money in circulation, $186,305,488; imports, $98,258,706; exports, $123,668,932; miles of railway, 2,818; vessels built, 121,203 tons; vessels in deep-sea trade, 899,765 tons; vessels in coastwise trade, 1,280,999 tons; vessels on the Great Lakes, 54,199 tons; post-offices, 13,468; immigrants arrived, 84,066.

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT VAN BUREN, 1837-1841.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)



FLAG OF 1841

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Foreign Policy.—It is regarded as one of the most creditable features of the Van Buren administration that it was able, despite the popular wish in some quarters, to remain neutral during the rebellion in Canada. The burning of the *Caroline* in this connection caused the President to issue his proclamations of neutrality (pages 1698, 1699). In this case, as in all others, the President consistently followed the course laid down in his Inaugural Address (page 1537) where he said: "We have no disposition, and we disclaim all right, to meddle in disputes, whether internal or foreign, that may molest other countries, regarding them in their actual state as social communities, and preserving a strict neutrality in all their controversies."

The Democrats renominated Van Buren but he was defeated by Wm. H. Harrison.

Van Buren, Martin:
Annual messages of, 1590, 1700, 1746, 1819.
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Finances discussed by, 1541, 1596, 1686, 1706, 1751, 1757, 1789, 1822.
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Northeastern boundary, correspondence regarding. (See Northeastern Boundary.)
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Vancouver Island: Agent sent to, referred to, 3068, 3072. Boundary question regarding. (See Northwestern Boundary.)

Vandalia, The, loss of, at Samoan Islands, 5479.

Vanderbilt, The, presented to United States by Cornelius Vanderbilt, recommendations regarding, 3288. Referred to, 3585.

Vatican. (See Pope.)

Venezuela.—Venezuela lies on the north of the South American continent and is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, west by the Republic of Colombia, east by British Guiana, and south by Brazil. The western boundary is in dispute, the area estimated by Venezuelan geographers (599,538 square miles) lying between 1° 40′ S.-12° 26′ N. latitude and 59° 40′-73° 31′ W. longitude. Included in this area are over seventy islands off the coast, with a total area of about 14,650 square miles, the largest being Margarita, which is politically associated with Tortuga, Cubagua and Coche to form the newly constituted State of Nueva Esparta. Margarita has an area of about 400 square miles.

Physical Features.—The Eastern Andes from the southwest cross the border and reach to the Caribbean Coast, where they are prolonged by the Maritime Andes of Venezuela to the Gulf of Paria on the northeast. The main range is known as the Sierra Nevada de Merida, and contains the highest peaks in the country in Picacho de la Sierra (15,420 feet) and Salado (13,878 feet), the maritime ranges containing the Silla de Carácas (8,531 feet). Near the Brazilian border the Sierras Parima and Pacaraima and on the eastern border the Sierras de Rincote and de Usupamo enclose the republic with parallel northward spurs, between which are valleys of the Orinoco tributaries. The slopes of the mountains and foothills are covered with dense forests, but the basin of the Orinoco is mainly llanos, or level stretches of open prairie, with occasional woods.

The principal river of Venezuela is the Orinoco, exceeding 1,500 miles in length. The Orinoco is navigable for large steamers for some 700 miles, and by smaller vessels as far as the Maipures Cataract, some 200 miles further up stream. The coastal regions of Venezuela are much indented and contain many lagoons and lakes, of which Maracaibo, with an area exceeding 7,000 square miles, is the largest lake in South America.

The climate is tropical and except where modified by altitude or tempered by sea breezes is unhealthy. Yellow fever is endemic at Carácas, and plague cases have occurred there since 1908.

History.—Venezuela was visited by Columbus in 1498, and in 1499 by Alonzo de Ojeda and Amerigo Vespucci, the former naming the Gulf of Maracaibo Venezuela, or "Little Venice" (on account of the Indian pile-built settlements on the coast and

shores of the lake), and the name was afterwards extended to the whole of the Orinoco basin. In 1550 the territory was formed into the captaincy-general of Carácas, and the country remainder under Spanish rule until the revolt under Simon Bolivar, a native of Carácas, who defeated the Spanish forces in the battles of Lastoguanes (1813) and Carabobo (1821), and thus secured the independence of the country. Bolivar was an untiring hero in the cause of independence, and through his efforts (and those of his adjutant Sucre) Venezuela, Ecuador and Colombia (Upper Peru) achieved their freedom from Spain, while Peru was enabled to establish its independence in consequence of his victories. He died in 1830, at the age of forty-seven, and his remains were re-interred at Carácas in 1842. Venezuela formed part of the Federal Republic at Colombia from 1822-1830, since which time it has been independent. There have been many revolutions since 1846, particularly in 1849, 1868, 1889, 1891, 1900, and 1908. In 1854 President Monagas liberated the African slaves, and in 1864 President Falcón divided the country into States and formed them into a Federal Republic.

Venezuelan Question.—Protection of the sovereignty of Venezuela by the United States through the application of the Monroe Doctrine has, on two notable occasions, called for prompt and determined action by our Presidents—Cleveland in 1895, and Roosevelt in 1902. (See Monroe Doctrine.)

The contention in 1895 was with Great Britain over the boundary between Venezuela and British Guiana. In July 1888, President Cleveland laid a statement of the dispute before the Senate (Page 5204). President Harrison, in his first annual message, expressed the hope that the question might be amicably adjusted in accordance with the historic titles of the two parties (Page 5471), but regretfully announced in his third annual message (Page 5616), that the friendly efforts of the United States in that direction had proved unavailing.

Upon his return to the Presidency, Cleveland was again confronted by the question, and in his first message announced that the controversy was still pending. (Page 5873.) In the second message during his second term he declared his determination to bring about arbitration—"a resort to which Great Britain so conspicuously favors in principle and respects in practice, and which is earnestly sought by her weaker adversary." (Page 5958.)

In July, 1895, the American Ambassador at London was instructed to communicate to the British Government the position of the United States on the question. This took the form of a protest against the enlargement of the area of the British possessions on the American continent, especially at the expense of Venezuela without the latter's consent, referring to the traditional and established policy of this Government (Page 6064), and denying the right of Great Britain to establish an arbitrary line through the territory in debate and submit to arbitration only the portion lying on one side of it.

Great Britain's reply called forth a special message from Cleveland December 17, 1895 (Page 6087), in which he laid the British reply before the Senate. The reply declared the Monroe Doctrine "inapplicable to the state of things in which we live at the present day." (Page 6088.) Cleveland firmly upheld the Monroe Doctrine, and proposed a commission of his own to determine the boundary line, and asked Congress to appropriate money to carry out the terms, whatever the consequences, which he intimated might be forcible maintenance of his contention, under the Monroe Doctrine. (Page 6090.)

Mr. Cleveland's attitude caused much excited comment throughout the country, but his position was stoutly backed by the people and newspapers of all political parties. Diplomatically, the matter was skillfully handled, and finally referred to arbitration, and it was announced to the next Congress that a general arbitration treaty with Great Britain was under way. (See page 6154.) The arbitral tribunal was appointed under the treaty of February 2, 1897, and the award was made October 3, 1899. The terms of award were announced by President McKinley in his third annual message, December 5. (See page 6380.)

(See also illustration opposite page 5195.)

The next invocation of the traditional doctrine by the United States in behalf of Venezuela was during Roosevelt's Administration. Debts due by the South American Republic to citizens of England, France, Germany, Italy, and other foreign countries, were long over-due, and payment seemed remote, if not hopeless. The creditors appealed to their respective governments for redress. England, Germany and Italy agreed upon what they termed a pacific blockade for the forcible collection of the claims. Operations began December 3, 1902, and on the 9th four Venezuelan vessels were seized and an ultimatum was sent to President Castro. Upon its rejection, two forts at Porto Cabello and San Carlos were bombarded by the allies.

In his first message to Congress, December 3, 1901, President Roosevelt said of the Monroe Doctrine (page 6664) that there must be "no territorial aggrandizement by any non-American power at the expense of any American power on American soil. * * * We do not guarantee any state against punishment if it misconducts itself, provided that punishment does not take the form of the acquisition of territory by any non-American power."

By diplomatic interviews, all the Powers concerned, except Germany, were brought to a state of willingness to arbitrate. In the case of Germany, President Roosevelt found it necessary to intimate that Admiral Dewey, in command of the fleet, would prevent forcible occupation of the Venezuelan ports. At the same time the President informed the German Ambassador that in event the Emperor should consent to arbitration the credit for such advanced ground in international disputes would be accorded to the Emperor.

The German Ambassador conveyed personally to the President the assurance of the German Emperor that his Majesty's government would consent to arbitration and that it had no purpose or intention to make even the smallest acquisition of territory on the South American Continent or the Islands adjacent. This voluntary and friendly declaration was afterwards repeated to the Secretary of State.

Through the offices of the diplomatic representatives of the United States at Caracas and the Government at Washington, protocols were signed whereby Venezuela agreed (see page 6794) to set apart a certain percentage of the customs receipts of two of her ports to be applied to the payment of whatever obligations might be ascertained by mixed commissions appointed for that

purpose to be due from her, not only to the three powers already mentioned, whose proceedings against her had resulted in a state of war, but also to the United States, France, Spain, Belgium, the Netherlands, Norway, Sweden and Mexico, who had not employed force.

The blockading powers, however, demanded that the sums ascertained to be due their citizens by such mixed commissions should be accorded payment in full before anything was paid upon the claims of any of the so-called peace powers. The powers at this juncture asked that the question be referred to President Roosevelt for decision, but he declined, and suggested that the whole matter be submitted to the Hague Tribunal for adjudication. This was finally agreed to, and amicable settlement was reported in a special message by Roosevelt, January 23, 1905. (See page 6941.) The Hague Tribunal pronounced in favor of the allied powers.

This later incident found echo in the Third International Conference of South American Republics at Rio Janeiro in July and August, 1906, when Dr. Drago, former Minister of Foreign Affairs of Argentina, announced the adherence of South American Republics to the Monroe Doctrine, and the conference, after discussion, recommended that their delegates to the Second Peace Conference at the Hague oppose the compulsory collection by armed forces of debts due its citizens by any other government. This became known as the Drago Doctrine. (See Drago Doctrine.) Mr. Roosevelt stated the policy of the United States on this question in his sixth annual message. (Page 7060.)

Area and Population.—The area is given as 398,594 square miles. Estimates for the population range from 2,250,000 to 2,850,000.

Roman Catholicism is the state religion.

Government.—The present constitution in force was officially adopted on June 13, 1914. By its provisions the government is that of a Federal Republic of twenty autonomous States, a Federal District, and two Territories, with a President elected by the federal congress for seven years and ineligible for a consecutive term of office and a cabinet of seven members, each in charge of an executive department.

The Federal Congress consists of two Chambers. The Senate consists of forty members (two from each State), native born Venezuelans above thirty years of age, elected for four years. The Chamber of Deputies consists of 117 members elected for four years by direct vote in each State, in the proportion of one per 35,000 inhabitants (each State having at least one representative, irrespective of population) with other representatives for every 15,000 in excess of that number.

Each of the States has an elective President and Legislative Assembly.

Education.—Primary education is free and nominally compulsory, but little effort is made to instruct the Indians, and schools are confined to urban areas. More than half of the people are illiterate.

Finance.—The revenue is derived from customs and customs surtax of 30 per cent, and excise. Salt and matches are State monopolies and are farmed out, the latter to an English company; Cigarette paper is also a farmed monopoly, and with the excise on cigarettes produces 6,000,000 bolivares. Recent budgets have been in the neighborhood of $14,500,000. The unit of currency is the bolivar, valued at $0.19 in United States currency.

The latest figures gave the public debt as $28,500,000.

Production and Industry.—Agriculture and stock raising are the principal industries of the country, and most of the land is suited for these purposes. The chief agricultural products are coffee, cacao, sugar, maize, beans, wheat, rice, potatoes, vegetables and fruit of various kinds. Cotton is now being grown successfully for three native cotton mills. The Live Stock is stated to include about 2,000,000 cattle, 1,750,000 pigs, 1,500,000 goats, and 200,000 sheep. The llanos, or grassy plains, could support many times the present estimated number with organization and development of the industry, much of the pastoral area having been abandoned since the War of Independence.

The fisheries round the coast and of the lakes are of much importance for the food of the people. Round the northern islands are important pearl fisheries, but they are only carried on in a primitive way by native fishers.

Gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, lead, mercury, sulphur, coal, asphalt and petroleum are known to exist.

It is estimated that 200,000 acres are under coffee, with more than 30,000 coffee plantations. There are about 5,000 cocoa and 11,000 sugar plantations. About 3,000 tons of sugar are produced annually.

Commerce.—Recent trade statistics show imports of $16,500,000 and exports of $19,000,000. The chief exports are coffee and cocoa, followed by hides. The trade is chiefly with the United States, followed by the United Kingdom, Spain and France. In a more recent year than that for which the above figures were given, the United States imported from Venezuela goods valued at $22,388,862 and exported thither goods valued at $29,151,969. In order of value, the chief exports from the United States to Venezuela are cotton goods; iron and steel goods; flour; chemicals, etc.

Communications.—There are twelve railroad lines, with a total length of 535 miles. There is much navigation by water. There are 5,814 miles of telegraph wire, with 215 telegraph offices; and 12,511 miles of telephone wire. The post-offices number 310.

Cities.—Capital, Caracas. Estimated population, 75,000. Other towns are Maracaibo (35,000), Valencia, Puerto Cabello and La Guaira, and Ciudad Bolivar.

Venezuela (see also Caracas):
American citizens expelled from, 2952.
Blockade of ports of, by Great Britain, Germany, Italy, 6794.
Boundary dispute with Great Britain regarding British Guiana, 5204, 5471, 5616, 5873. 5958, 6064, 6087, 6154.
Arbitration of—
Discussed, 6337, 6380.
Recommended, 6064.
Treaty for, 6154.
Monroe doctrine reasserted and attitude of United States respecting, 6064, 6087.
Civil war in, terminated, 2552.
Claims of France against, 4761.
Claims of United States against (see also Aves Island; Caracas Commission; Venezuela Steam Transportation Co.)—

Acknowledged, 2702.
Adjustment of, 6338.
Awards of commission, referred to, 4321, 4539, 4693, 4716, 4853.
Distribution of, 4421, 4629, 4807.
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Course pursued to enforce provisions of, 4320.
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Arthur, 4761, 4807.
Cleveland, 5090, 5369.
Fillmore, 2702.
Grant, 3964, 4005, 4012, 4014, 4144, 4192, 4245, 4295, 4320.
Harrison, Benj., 5673.
Jackson, 1319.
Johnson, 3587.
Pierce, 2952.
Taylor, 2552.
Tyler, 2193.
Indemnity to be paid satisfactorily arranged, 2206.
Mixed claims commission discussed, 4432, 4761, 4920, 5471.
Termination of, 5547.
Payment of, 3444, 4295, 4320, 4321, 4359, 4629, 5873.
Objection to, 4144, 4192, 4245.
Abandoned, 4295.
Submitted to Hague Court and decided, 7380, 7493.
Correspondence with, transmitted 5907.
Differences of, with France and Belgium, discussed, 6070.
Diplomatic relations with, 4562.
Disputes with, settlement of all, 7416.
Foreign claims against, submitted to Hague Court of Arbitration, 6794, 6941.
Fugitive criminals, convention with, for surrender of, 2917, 3185.
Discussed, 5962.
Import duties imposed upon American products by, 5672.
Retaliatory measures proclaimed, 5703.
Imprisonment of American citizens in, 4789, 4803, 5198.
Independence of, asserted, 613.
Minister of, to United States, grade of raised, 4718.
One hundredth anniversary of independence celebrated, 7658.
Relations of, with France, discussed, 4629.
Revolution in, followed by provisional government, referred to, 4522.
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Buchanan, 3111, 3185.
Cleveland, 5196.
Jackson, 1444, 1450.
Johnson, 3587.
Pierce, 2917.
Van Buren, 1751.
Vessels of United States—
Seized or interfered with by, 4114, 4371, 5198, 5547, 5673, 5873, 5962, 6070.
To transport remains of Gen. Paez to, recommended, 5193.

Venezuela, Treaty with.—Apart from certain claims conventions, the only diplomatic relation between the United States and Venezuela which survives is the protocol of 1903, by which United States claims against Venezuela were submitted to arbitration. The commission, consisting of two members (one chosen by the President of the United States, the other by the President of Venezuela) must sit at Caracas. An umpire must be appointed to preside over the deliberations, and it was agreed that the umpire should be chosen by the queen of the Netherlands. The commissioners, acting under oath, should determine after due investigation, the justice of the claims. Should the two commissioners be unable to reach a decision, the vote of the umpire should decide the questions. Venezuela also became a party to the convention between the United States and the several leading republics of South and Central America for the arbitration of pecuniary claims and the protection of inventions, etc., which was signed in Buenos Aires in 1910. (See South and Central America, Treaties with.)

Venezuela Steam Transportation Co., seizure and detention of steamers of, and claims arising out of, 4114, 4371, 5198, 5547, 5673, 5873, 5962.
Award in favor of, 6070.

Venice, Italy, Geographical Congress at, 4626.

Venus, Transit of. (See Naval Observatory.)

Vera Cruz (Mexico), Siege and Capture of.—March 9, 1847, Gen. Scott, who had been ordered to Mexico to conduct an expedition against its capital city by way of Vera Cruz, landed a force of 12,000 men on the beach in the vicinity of that port. By March 22 the attacking forces were in position and the siege guns mounted. Gen. Scott summoned the governor of Vera Cruz to surrender. Upon his refusal a bombardment was begun and kept up until the morning of the 26th, when overtures for surrender were made by Gen. Landero. Articles of capitulation were signed March 27. The Mexicans lost nearly 500 pieces of artillery, besides other arms and much ammunition. Five thousand prisoners were taken and paroled, and the best port of Mexico, with its famous and almost impregnable fortress of San Juan de Ulloa, was captured. The American loss was insignificant.

Vera Cruz, Occupation of.—During the Mexican revolution of 1913, Americans and other foreigners in Mexico were subjected to gross hardship and abuse. Property was seized and the owners were insulted, threatened, imprisoned, and in several instances actually met death at the hands of one or the other of the warring factions. Presi-

dent Wilson increased the regular troops at the border posts and sent naval vessels to the Mexican seaports to protect the lives and property of Americans and citizens of foreign countries.

On the 9th of April, 1914, a paymaster of the U. S. S. *Dolphin* landed at Iturbide bridge, Tampico, with a whaleboat and boat's crew to take off supplies. The men were unarmed and the boat carried, both at her bow and at her stern, the flag of the United States. The men were arrested, but later released, and an apology was made, but Admiral Mayo demanded that the flag of the United States be saluted with special ceremony. This was refused by President Huerta of Mexico. Citing this and a number of similar insults preceding it, President Wilson, April 20, 1914, asked Congress to approve the use of the land and naval forces of the country to enforce the fullest recognition of the rights and dignity of the United States. This was granted and Vera Cruz was occupied by the American forces. In the three days of fighting seventeen sailors and marines were killed and fifty wounded. The naval occupation was followed by a brigade of the regular army under Gen. Funston. Before attempting an advance into the interior, operations were halted by an offer of mediation between the United States and Mexico made by the diplomatic representatives of Argentina, Brazil and Chile. These met in Niagara Falls, Canada, in May. An attempt was made to adjust the differences between the two countries, but the demand for a salute to the American flag was not complied with and the American forces were withdrawn from Vera Cruz on November 23, 1914. (See illustrations opposite pages 7652 and 7716.)

Vera Cruz, Mexico:

Battle of, referred to, 2385.

Occupation of—

Funeral of marines killed in, address of President Wilson at, 7939.

Illustrations of, 7652, 7716.

Verdun, Siege of. (See World War.)

Vermont.—One of the New England States; nickname, "The Green Mountain State"; motto, "Freedom and Unity." It extends from lat. 42° 44′ to 45° 1′ north and from long. 71° 38′ to 73° 25′ west. It is bounded on the north by Quebec (Canada), on the east by New Hampshire (separated by the Connecticut River), on the south by Massachusetts, and on the west by New York (separated in part by Lake Champlain). It has an area of 9,564 square miles. Vermont is traversed from north to south by the Green Mountains. It is an agricultural state and has extensive quarries of marble and granite. The manufacture of wood-pulp is an important industry. It was explored by Champlain in 1609. The first settlement was at Brattleboro in 1724. Vermont was early claimed by both New Hampshire and New York. It was admitted to the Union in 1791.

In 1910, the population was 355,956, of whom 49,891 were foreign-born, including 14,643 French Canadians, 4,594 Italians, 11,415 English Canadians, 4,938 Irish, 2,436 English, 2,455 Russians, and 2,615 Scottish. In that year, 47½% of the population was urban. The 1920 census gave the population as 352,428.

There are 2,472 public schools, with 3,023 teachers and 61,059 enrolled pupils. There are 78 public high schools, with 385 teachers and 3,403 male and 4,673 female students.

The last federal census gave the number of farms as 32,709, with an average of 142½ acres to the farm, and with 35% of the farm land classified as improved. More recent figures give the number of farms as 29,072.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop,	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay, tame.....	910,000	a1,320,000	$30,360,000
Corn.....	25,000	1,175,000	1,480,000
Oats.....	81,000	2,835,000	2,126,000
Potatoes.....	27,000	3,510,000	4,388,000

a—tons.

Barley is also grown, as is tobacco, and the apple crop is important. The production of maple sugar and syrup is a valuable industry. The fruit crop included 1,600,000 bushels of apples and 19,000 bushels of pears.

There is much attention to cattle-raising, especially cows. Latest figures gave the farm animals as: Cows, 281,000; other cattle, 190,000; horses, 86,000; sheep, 107,000; swine, 120,000. The last annual wool clip was 663,000 pounds.

About half of the marble produced in the United States comes from Vermont. In a recent year, the marble product was valued at more than $5,000,000.

The forests of the state are extensive, and have given rise to an extensive manufacture of lumber and timber products and paper pulp.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Vermont having an annual output valued at more than $500 at the beginning of 1915 was 1,772. The amount of capital invested was $79,811,000, giving employment to 37,217 persons, using material valued at $42,555,000, and turning out finished goods worth $76,811,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $22,002,000 in the course of the year.

Vermont:

Admission of, into Union, 90.
Application made for, 87.

Constitution of United States, evidence of ratification of amendment to, 107, 166.

Officers appointed for, 91.

Vessels (see also Steamboats; Steamships; Vessels, Foreign; Vessels; United States):

American registry for American owned, 5985.

Canadian, permitted to aid disabled vessels in waters of United States, proclaimed, 5828.

Vessels, Foreign (see also under the several powers):

Appropriation for vessels detained by United States recommended, 6336.

Bond required of, 145.

Committing open hostility, right to detain for inquiry, 353.
Consular jurisdiction over crews of, in United States, 4038, 4129.
Correspondence regarding, 81.
Detained by United States, appropriation for, recommended, 6336.
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Discussed, 5089.
Recommended, 81, 1242.
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Brazil, 2372.
Bremen, 606.
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France, 752, 2371, 3711, 3969, 3973, 4182.
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Greece, 1539.
Hamburg, 607.
Hanover, 970.
Hawaiian Islands, 3713.
Italy, 942, 3021.
Japan, 4131.
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Mecklenburg-Schwerin, 1365.
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France, 253, 432.
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Jackson, 1022, 1392, 1411, 1476.
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Lincoln, 3385, 3450.
McKinley, 6344.
Madison, 455, 461, 471, 504, 513, 538, 551.
Monroe, 594, 615, 618, 631, 649, 677, 765.
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Duties levied on, by Great Britain returned, 596.
Effect of, in protection of harbors, 407.
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Injunction restraining, from sailing in armed condition removed, 255.
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Marine railway for repair of, referred to, 1043.
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Northern and Northwestern lakes, passage of gunboats from tide water to, referred to, 3402.
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Sale and transfer of, while abroad, laws regarding, defective, 1755.
Sale of, referred to, 3830.
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Spain discussed by President—
Adams, John, 243.
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Hayes, 4436, 4560.
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Pierce, 2761, 2767, 2778, 2869, 2900. (See also *Black Warrior*, The; *El Dorado*, The; *Virginius*, The.)
Venezuela, 4114, 4371, 5198, 5547, 5673, 5873, 5962.
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Tonnage duties on, referred to, 1123.
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Visited by British officers, 3062.
Whaling interfered with by Russian vessels, 3794.

Veterans' Bureau.—The United States Veterans' Bureau was created by an act of Congress approved on August 9, 1921, by which act the bureau was established as an independent office under the President. The Bureau of War Risk Insurance was abolished by this act and the powers and duties pertaining to the Director of the War Risk Insurance under the Treasury Department were transferred to the Veterans' Bureau, together with the functions, powers, and duties conferred upon the Federal Board for Vocational Education by the act of June 27, 1918, known as the vocational rehabilitation act, and all personnel, properties, etc., of the United States Public Health Service as prescribed and provided in a written order of the Secretary of the Treasury on April 19, 1921, designated "Order relative to the transfer of certain activities of the United States Public Health Service, relating to the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, including the trainees of the Rehabilitation Division of the Federal Board for Vocational Education."

The Bureau of War Risk Insurance was created by act of Congress approved September 2, 1914, to insure American vessels and their cargoes against the risks of war. By an act approved June 12, 1917, Congress added the duty of insuring the lives of masters and crews of American vessels. On October 6, 1917, the most important provisions of the war-risk act were added. These provided for payment of allotments and allowances to the dependent families of members of the military forces of the United States, payment of compensation for death or disability, and the writing of term policies of insurance by the Federal Government against death or total disability. (See War Risk Insurance.) Several amendments to the act have been made since, notably the amendments approved December 24, 1919, which provided for an optional payment in lump sum of the converted forms of insurance and substantial increases in the amount of compensation payable on account of death or disability, and the amendment of August 9, 1921, which greatly decreases the restrictions on reinstatement of lapsed insurance by disabled ex-service men and the furnishing of hospital and other medical treatment for disabled members of the military and naval forces, and transfers the duty of furnishing vocational training to disabled members of the military and naval forces from the Federal Board for Vocational Education to the Veterans' Bureau.

At the end of the fiscal year, 1922, the Government had made appropriations on account of soldier and sailor veterans of the World War as follows:—

Family allowances	$ 298,615,000
Death and disability compensation	397,150,000
Insurance	23,000,000
Administrative expenses	53,193,906
Vocational rehabilitation	249,000,000
Public Health Service, hospital construction and patients	154,646,520
Bonus, act of February 4, 1919	256,239,900
Bringing home remains	31,000,000
Total	$1,462,845,326
Awards made for death, no.	59,732
Awards made for disability, no.	356,114
Monthly awards to disabled veterans or their families, amount	$ 8,105,917
Disabled ex-service men receiving compensation and medical care	175,137
Insurance policies in force, war risk term, no.	274,492
Amount of above	$2,064,531,283
Insurance policies in force, U. S. Government life, no.	286,356
Amount of above	$1,062,610,928
Paid out for insurance claims.	$354,272,222
Beds in hospitals under Veterans' Bureau and other hospitals	28,156
Tubercular	11,995
Neuro-psychiatric	5,003
General	11,358
Beds planned to be available at the end of 1924	21,693

The nursing activities during the year were as follows:—

Cases receiving nursing care	141,696
Visited at homes	78,687
Office, placement and school interviews	502,333
Tuberculosis cases supervised	140,227
Neuro-psychiatric cases supervised	75,865

The record of rehabilitation at the end of the fiscal year, 1922, was as follows:—

Men entered vocational training	304,077
Still in training	198,180
Completed training	50,198

Of the men still in training, 99,090 were in 445 different employment objectives; 54,754 were in 2,761 schools or colleges; 38,313 were in 30,080 industrial establishments; and 6,023 were in the 47 special schools operated and maintained by the Veterans' Bureau.

Among those registered for training were 646 blind, 602 deaf and 346 with speech defects. The successful rehabilitations included 31 blind, 27 deaf and 15 with speech defects.

Veterans' Bureau, activities of, 9148.
Veterans of Civil War, gratitude of country to, 6672.

Veterans of Indian Wars of the United States.—Instituted by officers of the United States Army at Philadelphia, April 23, 1896. The objects are "to perpetuate the

faithful services, heroism, and privations of the officers and soldiers of the Army of the United States of America, as well as of the auxiliary forces of the several states of the Union, in their successive campaigns conducted against a savage foe on our frontiers, in the interests of civilization, and for the settlement and defense of our Territories at different periods in the history of our common country since the close of the War of the Revolution; and also to collect and preserve for publication a record of these services and other historical data relating thereto, as well as to unite in a fraternal bond of union all those who are entitled to membership therein."

Veterans of World War:
Bonus for. (See Compensation, *below.*)
Civil service rating of, increased five points, 9003.
Compensation to, additional, rejection of bill for, urged, 8979, 9098, 9147, 9339, 9351.
Cost of, estimated, 9149.
Gratitude and duty to, discussed by President—
Harding, 8925, 8979.
Wilson, 8642, 8715, 8758, 8813, 8886.
Pensions for, predicted, 9151.
Wounded, measures for relief of, discussed and urged, 8944, 8982, 9100, 9148, 9351.

Veto.—The act by which the executive refuses his approval of a measure of the legislative body with which he is associated. The Constitution gives the President of the United States power to veto any act of Congress by refusing to sign the bill after its passage. In the Colonies (except Rhode Island and Connecticut) the governors had power to veto acts of the colonial legislatures. Massachusetts was the first of the original states to grant the veto power to its governor. This was in 1780. In the Convention of 1787 several veto plans were discussed, one of which proposed to associate the Supreme Court with the President in the exercise of the power. The plan finally adopted resembled that in use in Massachusetts. If the President refuses to sign an act, it is returned to the House in which it originated with his reasons for refusing his signature. That House may then proceed to reconsider the act, and if it again passes both Houses with a majority of one-third, it becomes a law. The Constitution also provides that "if any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress by their adjournment prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law."

Washington sent only 2 veto messages and Adams and Jefferson, none. Lincoln sent 3; Johnson, 22; Grant, 46. The greatest number was sent by Cleveland in his first administration, 301.

Veto Messages. (See the several Presidents; the several subjects.)

Veto, Pocket.—The power of the President to prevent the enactment into law of a bill presented to him within ten days before the adjournment of Congress, without sending in a refusal to sign or his objections in writing, is known as a pocket veto.

Veto Power discussed by President—
Polk, 2512.
Taylor, 2561.
Vetoes, Pension. (See Cleveland, Grover; Grant, Ulysses S.)
Vetoes, Pocket. (See the several Presidents; the several subjects.)
Vice and Disease Centers in District of Columbia, eradication of, 7548.

Vice-Admiral.—An honorary rank in the United States Navy created by Congress Dec. 21, 1864, and conferred upon David G. Farragut. At the time of its creation it was the highest grade in the Navy. Two years later (July 25, 1866) Congress created the rank of admiral and bestowed it upon Farragut, making David G. Porter vice-admiral. Oct. 17, 1870, after the death of Admiral Farragut, Porter was promoted to the vacancy and Rear-Admiral Stephen C. Rowan was made vice-admiral. On his death in 1890 the grade became extinct During the colonial period it was customary for the royal governor to be appointed vice-admiral, which made him head of the colonial admiralty courts. (See also Admiral.)

Vice-Admiral, creation of grade of, recommended, 3450, 6423.

Vice-President of United States.—The Constitution provides for the office of Vice-President. His duty is to preside over the Senate, and in case of the removal, death, resignation, or disability of the President to succeed him. His salary is $12,000 per annum. Until the adoption of the twelfth amendment, in 1804, the candidate for President receiving next to the highest number of votes was declared Vice-President. Six Vice-Presidents have succeeded to the Presidency, by reason of the death of the President, viz.: John Tyler, who succeeded William Henry Harrison in 1841; Millard Fillmore, who succeeded Zachary Taylor in 1850; Andrew Johnson, who succeeded Abraham Lincoln in 1865; Chester A.

A list of Vice-Presidents follows:

Name and Birthplace	Inaugurated
John Adams, Quincy, Mass.....	1789
Thomas Jefferson, Shadwell, Va....	1797
Aaron Burr, Newark, N. J.....	1801
George Clinton, Ulster Co., N. Y....	1805
Elbridge Gerry, Marblehead, Mass...	1813
Daniel D. Tompkins, Scarsdale, N. Y.	1817
John C. Calhoun, Abbeville, S. C....	1825
Martin Van Buren, Kinderhook, N. Y.	1833
Richard M. Johnson, Louisville, Ky..	1837
John Tyler, Greenway, Va.....	1841
George M. Dallas, Philadelphia, Pa..	1845
Millard Fillmore, Summerhill, N. Y..	1849
William R. King, Sampson Co., N. C.	1853
John C. Breckinridge, Lexington, Ky.	1857
Hannibal Hamlin, Paris, Me.....	1861
Andrew Johnson, Raleigh, N. C....	1865
Schuyler Colfax, N. Y. City, N. Y.,	1869
Henry Wilson, Farmington, N. H...	1873
William A. Wheeler, Malone, N. Y...	1877
Chester A. Arthur, Fairfield, Vt....	1881
Thos. A. Hendricks, Muskingum Co., O.	1886
Levi P. Morton, Shoreham, Vt.....	1889
Adlai E. Stevenson, Christian Co., Ky.	1893
Garret A. Hobart, Long Branch, N. J.	1897
Theodore Roosevelt, N. Y. City, N. Y.	1901
Charles W. Fairbanks, Unionville Center, O...	1905
James S. Sherman, Utica, N. Y.....	1909
Thomas R. Marshall, No. Manchester, Ind...	1913
Calvin Coolidge, Plymouth, Vermont..	1921

Arthur, who succeeded James A. Garfield in 1881; Theodore Roosevelt, who succeeded William McKinley in 1901; and Calvin Coolidge, who succeeded Warren Gamaliel Harding in 1923. In the succession of 1841, the attempt was made to give Tyler only the title and rights of "Acting President," but he claimed the full office of President. Six Vice-Presidents have died in office, namely, George Clinton, Elbridge Gerry, William R. King, Henry Wilson, Thomas A. Hendricks and James S. Sherman. Only one resigned, John C. Calhoun.

Vicksburg (Miss.), Siege and Capture of.—The night after the battle of the Big Black, May 17, 1863, McPherson's and McClernand's corps crossed the river on floating bridges made of bales of cotton covered with plank. Sherman, who carried the only pontoon train in the army, passed over at Bridgeport, a few miles above. The whole army then moved upon Vicksburg. Sherman, still holding the right, marched toward the Yazoo River, and on the 19th rested his right on the Mississippi, within plain view of Porter's gunboats. McPherson followed Sherman with the Seventeenth Army Corps, halting where the latter had turned off. McClernand came up by the Jackson road and deployed to the left. The investment of Vicksburg was thus complete by May 19, 1863. At this time Grant's army was over 30,000 strong. The Federal force was increased to nearly 70,000 during the siege. The Confederate garrison, commanded by Gen. Pemberton, consisted of about 27,000 men and 102 guns. The fortifications were bastioned earthworks. The place was provisioned for about two months.

On the afternoon of the 19th Grant ordered a general assault, which was repulsed with a loss to the Federals of 942. Three days later he made another attack, but the assailants succeeded merely in planting their flags on the outer slopes of the bastions. The city was found to be too strong to be taken by assault. The Federal loss on the 22d was 3,199. During the skirmishing on the 18th, 20th, and 21st of May the Union army lost 241 men. Porter assisted materially in these attacks by a constant fire from his gunboats and mortar boats. Pemberton soon began to feel the effects of the siege. By the end of May his meat rations were reduced one-half, and not long thereafter the bacon supply was entirely exhausted. There were no signs of the arrival of reenforcements and 6,000 men lay sick and wounded in the hospitals and private houses. Some of his men had been in the trenches forty-seven days and nights. Besides, they were by this time constantly exposed to bursting shell and sharpshooters.

Thus despairing of aid, his resources about exhausted, the Confederate commander resolved to capitulate. July 3, 1863, Vicksburg was surrendered to Grant. Gen. Grant accorded magnanimous terms. The entire garrison was paroled and was allowed to depart with rations to last them beyond the Union lines. The results of the campaign were the defeat of the Confederates in several engagements, the occupation of the capital of Mississippi, and the capture of the important post of Vicksburg with its garrison and munitions of war, a loss to the Confederates of over 30,000 prisoners and several thousand killed and wounded. Among the dead were Generals Tracy, Tilghman, and Green. Grant's losses in the campaign, from the first skirmish at Port Gibson, May 1, to the surrender of Vicksburg, were 1,511 killed, 7,396 wounded, and 453 missing—a total of 9,360.

Victory Bonds, maturity of, referred to, 8981. (See also Liberty Loans.)

Vienna, Austria:
International Exposition in, discussed, 4142, 4190.
International Patent Congress in, 4215.

Vienna, Congress of:
Denounced, 8402.
Referred to, 9066.

Villeré's Plantation (La.), Battle of.—After the battle of Lake Borgne, La. (q. v.), the British expedition pushed on toward New Orleans by way of the Bayon Bienvenue and Villeré's Canal. Dec. 23, 1814, within an hour after hearing that the British were approaching, Jackson had 1,800 of his troops on the march to meet them. Half of the invading army, some 2,500 men, had approached to within nine miles of New Orleans without serious check. The schooner *Carolina* dropped down the river to a point opposite Villeré's and opened a terrible fire upon the invading army, killing or maiming 100 men in 10 minutes. The general engagement lasted about two hours. Both combatants retired from the field in the darkness. The loss of the Americans was 213, while that of the British was about 400 men.

Violence, laws needed against resorters to, 8814.

Virgin Islands.—Formerly the Danish West Indies. They comprise the islands of St. Thomas, St. Croix and St. John, which lie in the Caribbean Sea almost due east of Porto Rico on an important trade route to the Panama Canal, and are the northernmost and westernmost of the Lesser Antilles. Their principal product is sugar cane, although molasses, cotton and live stock are also produced. St. Thomas is an important coaling and cable station and also is noted for its bay rum.

Unsuccessful attempts had been made by the United States in 1867 and in 1902 to obtain the islands from Denmark. In 1916 the Government announced officially that negotiations for their purchase had been completed, and on January 18, 1917, ownership formally passed to the United States. The price paid was $25,000,000 and abandonment of any United States claims in Greenland arising from American explorations in that country. The islands are of especial value to this country because their fortifications are of great service in protecting the Panama Canal.

The total area of the islands is 132 square miles. The population is 26,051, of which about 10,000 are on St. Thomas and 15,000 on St. Croix. There are three cities—Charlotte Amalie, on St. Thomas, with 7,747 inhabitants; and Christiansted and Frederiksted, on St. Croix, with 4,574 and 3,144 inhabitants, respectively. Most of the inhabitants are negroes.

Under the Act of Congress approved March 3, 1917, known as the Organic Act, the military, civil and judicial powers necessary for the Government of the islands are vested in a Governor, appointed by the President of the United States by and with the consent of the Senate. All laws as set forth in the Danish code of April 6, 1906, are continued in force until otherwise provided for by the Congress of the United States. Danish citizens residing in the islands at the time of the signing of the treaty were permitted to retain their Danish citizenship by making declaration to that effect before a court of record; other-

wise, United States citizenship is considered to have been accepted.

There are two municipalities—that of St. Thomas and St. John, and that of St. Croix. The legislative functions of each are vested in a colonial council, the former of elected members and 4 appointed by the Governor; the latter with 13 elected members and 5 appointed by the Governor. The members serve for four years. The right of franchise is restricted to those citizens of unblemished character who have resided on the islands for five years and who have an annual income of at least $300. The Governor administers through a cabinet of six heads of departments, and the entire administration is directly under the Navy Department.

There are twenty public and twenty-seven private and parochial elementary schools, with 139 teachers and 3,793 pupils. High, industrial and night schools are planned.

In a recent year revenues were estimated at $175,000. The annual deficit in the Government is met by appropriations by the United States Congress. Both Danish and United States currency is legal tender.

There are 430 farms on the islands, with a total acreage of about 70,000. There are also 85 industrial establishments. Sugar and cotton are grown, and bay rum is produced. In a recent year, the United States imported from the Virgin Islands goods valued at $4,541,786 and exported thither goods valued at $3,993,478.

There is fortnightly service direct to St. Thomas, and also schooner service to San Juan, Porto Rico. There are a post-office, a cable office and telephone connections in each municipality. There is a powerful radio station at the Naval Station on St. Thomas.

Virgin Islands:
Cession of, to United States, treaty for, discussed and submitted, 3777, 3779, 3796, 3886.
Lighthouse service on, 8319.
Quarantine duties on, 8361.
Payment for, 8224.
Rules for government of, 8332, 8426.

Virginia.—One of the thirteen original states; nicknames, "Old Dominion," "Mother of States," "Mother of Presidents"; motto, "Sic semper tyrannis" ("Be it ever thus to tyrants"). Virginia is bounded on the northwest and north by West Virginia (separated by the Alleghany Mountains), on the north and northeast by Maryland and the District of Columbia (separated by the Potomac River), on the east by the Chesapeake Bay and the Atlantic Ocean, on the south by North Carolina and Tennessee and on the southwest by Kentucky. Accomac and Northampton Counties lie east of the Chesapeake. The state's area is 42,627 square miles. Virginia is traversed by the Blue Ridge Mountains from northeast to southwest. It is level toward the southeast. It is one of the foremost States in the Union in the production of tobacco. The State also produces largely wheat, corn, vegetables, fruit, timber, coal, iron, salt and building stone, and manufactures flour, leather, iron and tobacco.

Virginia was the first settled of the British American Colonies, the settlement having been made by the English at Jamestown in 1607. Virginia became a royal colony in 1624. It was the largest and most influential of the colonies. It took a conspicuous part in the events leading up to the Revolution. Virginia ceded to the United States all its territory beyond the Ohio River in 1784. It ratified the Constitution in 1788. This great state furnished four of the first five Presidents, and altogether five of the Presidents of the United States. It seceded from the Union April 17, 1861, and became one of the principal battle grounds of the Civil War. The state was readmitted to the Union in 1870.

The 1920 federal census gave the population as 2,309,187, an increase of about 12% since 1910. The negro population was 30% of the whole, as compared with 32½% in 1910. The foreign-born numbered 30,785, of which 5,421 were Russians, 3,752 were English, 2,802 were Germans and 2,435 were Italians. More than 70% of the population was rural and illiteracy was 6% among the native whites and 23½% among the negroes.

The 1920 census showed the number of farms in the state as 186,242, an increase of 1% over 1910. Seventy-two per cent of the land area of the state was in farms and 51% of the farm land was improved. The average value of the farms was $6,425, of which $4,061 was represented by the land. The average value of the farm land was $40.75 per acre. The average acreage per farm was 99.7.

The estimates for a recent crop were as follows, the first figures being acreage and the second, annual production—Corn, 1,904,000, 47,600,000 bush.; Wheat, 847,000, 8,301,000 bush.; Potatoes, 136,000, 14,688,000 bu.; Sweet Potatoes, 44,000, 4,180,000 bush.; Hay, 912,000, 930,000 tons; Cotton, 34,000, 17,000 bales; Tobacco, 167,000, 91,850,000 pounds.

The most valuable mineral produced is coal, of which from seven to nine million tons are usually mined annually.

Recent educational statistics gave the population between the ages of 5 and 18 as 689,398, of whom 505,190 were enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 351,171. There were some 13,600 public elementary schools and 415 public high schools. The latter had 439 male and 1,010 female teachers, with 11,435 male and 17,722 female students.

The federal census of manufactures published in 1922, taken as of 1919, gave the number of manufacturing establishments in the state as 5,603. There were 139,178 persons engaged, an increase of 18% in five years. The primary horsepower had increased 24½% in the same period. The capital was $463,644,498 and the annual salaries and wages, $145,914,536. The cost of materials was $371,540,833 and the value of the annual product, $643,511,621.

The chief industries were:—

Industry	*Wage-Earners*	*Product*
Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes	7,335	$63,273,000
Flour and gristmill	937	36,154,000
Lumber and timber	15,960	35,389,000
Cars, shop construction	12,086	32,777,000
Cotton goods	6,518	32,535,000

Of the wage-earners, 83% were male and 17%, female. Twenty-three per cent worked in establishments where the prevailing hours of labor were 60 or more weekly and an additional thirty per cent where the hours were 54 or more weekly.

There were 11 establishments employing more than 1,000 wage-earners each; 16, from 500 to 1,000; and 31, from 250 to 500.

There were 100 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each.

Virginia (see also Confederate States; Richmond):
- Alexandria County retroceded to, by proclamation, 2320.
- Application of loyal persons in, to remove within Union lines, 3360.
- Authority of United States reestablished in, 3535.
- Boundary line of, referred to, 125, 142.
- Bounty lands of, referred to, 80.
- Census of, incomplete, 654.
- Claims of, for militia services in War of 1812, 806.
- Elections in, troops stationed at polling places, referred to, 4367, 4372.
- Lands ceded to Indians by, 108.
- Loyal persons in, application of, to remove within Union lines, 3360.
- Mediation of, for settlement of questions threatening Union, discussed, 3192.
- Militia services in War of 1812, claims of, for, 806.
- Persons in, attempting to exercise official powers of civil nature, order regarding, 3245.
- Ratification of amendment to Federal Constitution by, referred to, 105, 106, 249.
- Reconstruction of, recommendations regarding, 3965.
  - Referred to, 4000.
  - Time for submitting constitution to voters, proclaimed, 3967.
    - Referred to, 3983.
- War between the States, course regarding, pursued by, 3224.
- Withdrawal of, from Union, discussed, 3224.

Virginia Bill of Rights, praised by President Wilson, 8103.

Virginia Coupon Cases.—A series of eight cases in which the United States Supreme Court in 1884 denied the right of a state to pass laws impairing the obligation of contracts. An act of the Virginia legislature in 1871 authorized the receipt of coupons of the state's funded debt in payment of taxes and debts due the state. An act of 1882 required payment of tax dues in "gold, silver, United States Treasury notes, national-bank currency, and nothing else." The tax collectors thereupon refused to accept the coupons in payment of taxes, as authorized by the law of 1871. The court decided the law of 1882 void, and judgment was found in favor of the plaintiff taxpayers.

Virginia Plan.—At the opening of the Convention of 1787 to amend the Articles of Confederation, Edmund Randolph, of Virginia, on behalf of his delegation, set forth the defects in the old articles and submitted a series of fifteen resolutions drawn up by Madison. This was the first plan of revision presented to the convention and is sometimes called the "Randolph Plan" or the "National Plan." It provided for representation according to population in two branches of Congress—the first chosen by the people, the second by the state legislatures; Congressional control of taxation and commerce; Congressional veto of state enactments; an Executive chosen by Congress; a limited veto by the Executive and part of the judiciary upon acts of Congress. There were other and less important provisions. The Constitution as framed and ratified was based on the Virginia plan, but quite a number of its leading features were either rejected altogether or greatly modified.

Virginia Resolutions.—A set of nine resolutions drawn up by James Madison, then a member of the Virginia legislature, passed by that body, and signed by the governor Dec. 24, 1798. The reason for the passage of these resolutions and similar ones by Kentucky about the same time was to give expression to the feeling that had been growing since 1791 that the Federal party was endeavoring to obtain greater power than that conferred upon the Government by the Constitution. The direct cause of their adoption was the passage of the alien and sedition laws (q. v.) by Congress. The resolutions deplored the broad construction given to the Constitution, as tending toward monarchical government. They declared the Union to be a compact between the states composing it, and that when this compact was infringed, each state might interpose to protect itself. The alien and sedition laws were denounced as "palpable and alarming infractions of the Constitution." (See also Alien and Sedition Laws; Kentucky Resolutions.)

Virginius, The.—Oct. 31, 1873, the *Virginius*, an American schooner suspected of carrying men and arms from New York to the Cuban insurgents, was captured by the Spanish gunboat *Tornado* on the high seas near Jamaica. Capt. Fry and thirty-five of the crew and four Cuban passengers were executed. The affair created much ill feeling between the United States and Spain. The latter country made such reparation as lay within her power by disclaiming any intention to insult the United States, by paying an indemnity, and by surrendering 102 remaining prisoners. It was proved that the *Virginius* was not entitled to sail under our flag. She foundered at sea off Cape Fear Dec. 19, 1873, while on her way to New York. (See illustration opposite page 4329.)

Virginius, The, seized by Spanish vessel and citizens of United States on, put to death, discussed, 4189, 4195, 4210.
- Claims regarding, settled, 4276.
- Condition of indemnity fund, referred to, 5187, 5908.
- Correspondence regarding, transmitted, 4436.
- Distribution of indemnity to claimants, discussed, 4290, 5122.
- Orders regarding, 5077, 6339.

Visa Office.—This office of the State Department has charge of matters pertaining to the entry of aliens into the United States with respect to the granting or refusing of visas and of examination of visa applications submitted by American consuls abroad.

Visits of Foreign Commissions.—On April 20, 1917, a commission to the United States from England arrived at an American port to consult and to be consulted concerning the part to be played by the United States in the struggle against Germany. It was followed by the arrival, on April 24, of a similar commission from France; and on May 9, by the advance-guard of a similar commission from Italy. The leading figure in the English Commission was Minister Balfour, and the leading figures in the French Commission, ex-Premier Viviani and Marshal Joffre. The advance-guard of the Italian Commission was headed by Enrico Arlotta, Minister of Maritime and Railway Transportation. After consulting in Washington with the President, the Cabinet, and high officials of the United States Army and Navy, the French and English commissions paid visits to different cities of the East and Middle West, being received everywhere with acclamation. The remainder of the Italian Commission arrived in Washington on May 23, 1917. It was headed by the Prince of Udine, the eldest son of the Regent of Italy; and included in its personnel Guglielmo Marconi, the inventor of the wireless telegraph. In June, a Belgian commission arrived in the United States. It was headed by Baron Moncheur, formerly Belgian minister to the United States, Mexico, and Turkey, and later chief of the political bureau of the Belgian Foreign Office. The counsel of the commission was M. Carlier, a prominent Belgian banker; and other members were General Leclerq, Major Osterrieth, and Count d'Ursel. In the same month, a similar commission from Russia was received in the United States. It was headed by Special Ambassador Boris A. Bakhmetieff. In September, 1917, a commission from Japan was received in Washington under the leadership of Viscount Ishii.

Vizcaya, The, mentioned, 6317.

Vladivostok, Siberia, occupation of, by United States and Japanese troops discussed, 8591, 8824, 8825, 9062, 9063. (See also Russia, Intervention in.)

Vocational Education, Federal Board for.—The Federal Board for Vocational Education was created by act of Congress approved on February 23, 1917. This act makes appropriations to be used in cooperation with the states in the promotion of vocational education. For the fiscal year 1917-18 the amount appropriated was $1,860,000, but the appropriation increases each year until in 1925-26 it reaches $7,367,000, which sum is provided annually thereafter. The money appropriated is to be given to the various states for the purpose of inaugurating or stimulating vocational education in agriculture and the trades and industries and in the preparation of teachers of vocational subjects. Its allotment is upon condition that for each dollar of federal money expended the state or local community, or both, in which schools are established shall expend an equal amount for the same purpose.

By the passage of the federal vocational rehabilitation act, approved June 27, 1918, and the amendment thereto of July 11, 1919, the board was charged with the duty of furnishing vocational rehabilitation to every member of the military or naval forces of the United States discharged with a disability incurred, increased, or aggravated while a member of such forces or traceable to service therein, needing vocational rehabilitation to overcome the handicap of such disability. In furnishing training under the act no limitations were imposed by the board with respect to the courses to be pursued, and all careers were opened to the disabled men, much of it being given directly in the trades and industries. The board carried out this work of training the disabled soldiers, sailors, and marines and placing them in employment in their particular line of endeavor until the passage of the bill on August 9, 1921, creating the Veterans' Bureau, which consolidated all the agencies dealing with the disabled soldiers, sailors, and marines. (See Veterans' Bureau.)

The industrial rehabilitation act was approved on June 2, 1920. By this act the Federal Government agrees to cooperate with the states in rehabilitating and restoring to remunerative occupations any persons disabled in industry or otherwise, and names the Federal Board for Vocational Education as the administrative agency. The duties imposed upon the Federal board include the making of such rules and regulations as may be appropriate to carry out the purposes of the act; the provisions, through cooperation with the states, for vocational rehabilitation for disabled persons; the examination of state plans and their approval, if in conformity with the provisions of the act; the cooperation with such public and private agencies as may be deemed advisable for this purpose. The Federal Board must ascertain annually whether the states are properly using Federal funds and must certify, on or before the 1st day of January of each year, to the Secretary of the Treasury those states which have accepted and complied with the provisions of the law, naming the amount of money which each state is entitled to receive. The Federal Board is authorized to make such studies and investigations of the vocational rehabilitation of disabled persons and their placement in suitable or gainful occupations as are needed to carry out the intention of the act.

Vocational Education, advocated by President Wilson 8187. (See also Education.)

Vocational Education for Disabled War Veterans:
Extent of, 9148.
Federal Board for, investigated, 8944.
Statistics of, 8983.
Support urged for, 8758, 8886.

Volga River, Russia, famine in valley of, 9030.

Volpna, port of, assigned to Italy, 8707.

Volunteer Act regarding Militia, passage of, 7514.

Volunteer Naval Reserve. (See Naval Reserve.)

Volunteer System of Army:
Assistance to, discussed, 7800.
Reliance upon in crisis, discussed, 6672.
(See also Army and Preparedness.)

Volunteers.—Persons who enter the military service of their own free will for temporary duty, as distinguished from regulars of a permanent military establishment. By an act passed in 1792 the American Congress recognized the existence in a number of states of volunteer organizations not included in the militia of those states. The

Government has since from time to time raised volunteers for temporary purposes. Such troops are United States rather than state forces, and their officers are to be appointed by the President. A provisional force of 25,000 volunteers was authorized by Congress for the war with England in 1812. During the Mexican War 73,500 volunteers were enlisted. During the Civil War a number of calls were made for volunteers, aggregating nearly 2,800,000 enlistments. In the war with Spain over 200,000 volunteers were enlisted. (See also Militia; Army.)

Volunteers of America. (See Salvation Army.)

Votes for President, Count of.—The electoral votes of the states are received by the President of the Senate. The two Houses meet in joint session on a day fixed by law, and the President of the Senate opens the returns and hands them to tellers, who count the votes and announce the result. In 1876 two sets of returns were received from certain states. A special electoral commission was appointed by Congress to decide which were the regular returns. In 1887 Congress passed a law providing that contests over electors should be finally decided under state laws as far as possible.

Vote of Thanks. (See Thanks of Congress.)

Wabash and Erie Canal, grant of land in aid of, to Indiana, 1725.

Wabash Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)
Instructions to commissioners in making treaty with, 6271.
Troops must be called for, to suppress, 53, 74.
Treaty with, 127.

Wabash River, act for improvement of navigation on, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 1337.

Wageworkers. (See Labor.)

Wahpeton Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Wake and Other Islands.—The United States flag was hoisted over Wake Island in January, 1899, by Commander Taussig, of the *Bennington,* while proceeding to Guam. It is a small island in the direct route from Hawaii to Hongkong, about 2,000 miles from the first and 3,000 miles from the second.

The United States possesses a number of scattered small islands in the Pacific Ocean, some hardly more than rocks or coral reefs, over which the flag has been hoisted from time to time. They are of little present value and mostly uninhabited. The largest are Christmas, Gallego, Starbuck, Penrhyn, Phœnix, Palmyra, Howland, Baker, Johnston, Gardner, Midway, Morell, and Marcus islands. The Midway Islands are occupied by a colony of telegraphers in charge of the relay in the cable line connecting the Philippines with the United States, in all about forty persons.

The Santa Barbara group is a part of California and the Aleutian chain, extending from the peninsular of Kamchatka in Asiatic Russia to the promontory in North America which separates Bering Sea from the North Pacific, a part of Alaska.

Wakefield, Va., appropriation for approaches to monument at, to mark birthplace of Washington, recommended, 4803.

Wales. (See Great Britain.)

Walker vs. Jennison.—A slave case decided by the Massachusetts Supreme Court in 1783. It placed a construction upon the State constitution which soon afterwards put an end to slavery in the State. A negro servant had been whipped and imprisoned by his master, and public indignation was aroused by the offense. The owner of the slave was prosecuted. The Supreme Court, sitting in Worcester, found the defendant guilty of assault and imposed a fine upon him. The holding of the court was that the State constitution of 1870, in declaring all men free and equal, had abolished slavery in Massachusetts. As a matter of strict fact, runaway slaves were advertised for in the Boston newspapers after the decision had been promulgated. Nevertheless, the institution of slavery very soon after 1783 came to an end in Massachusetts.

Walker River Reservation, Nev., right of way for railroad through, 4736, 4776, 4953, 5178.

Walla Walla Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

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Wampum.—An Indian word meaning "white" and referring to strings of white beads worn for ornament and used as a medium of exchange. The beads were made of clam shells, through which holes had been drilled, and were strung upon a thread. Tradition says the Narragansets were the first Indians to use wampum. This is perhaps true as regards the beads made of the quahog or clam shell of the coasts of Rhode Island and Connecticut, though periwinkle shells were also used. Its use as money spread from the coast Indians inland. It was also used by the colonists of New England and the Middle States, having been deemed legal tender from 1627 to 1661. Beads of black or dark purple were rated at double the white wampum. Wampum was known to the Dutch settlers under the name of "sewon" or "zeewand." Payments were made by cutting off the desired number of beads. They were also used in the simple arithmetical calculations of the Indians.

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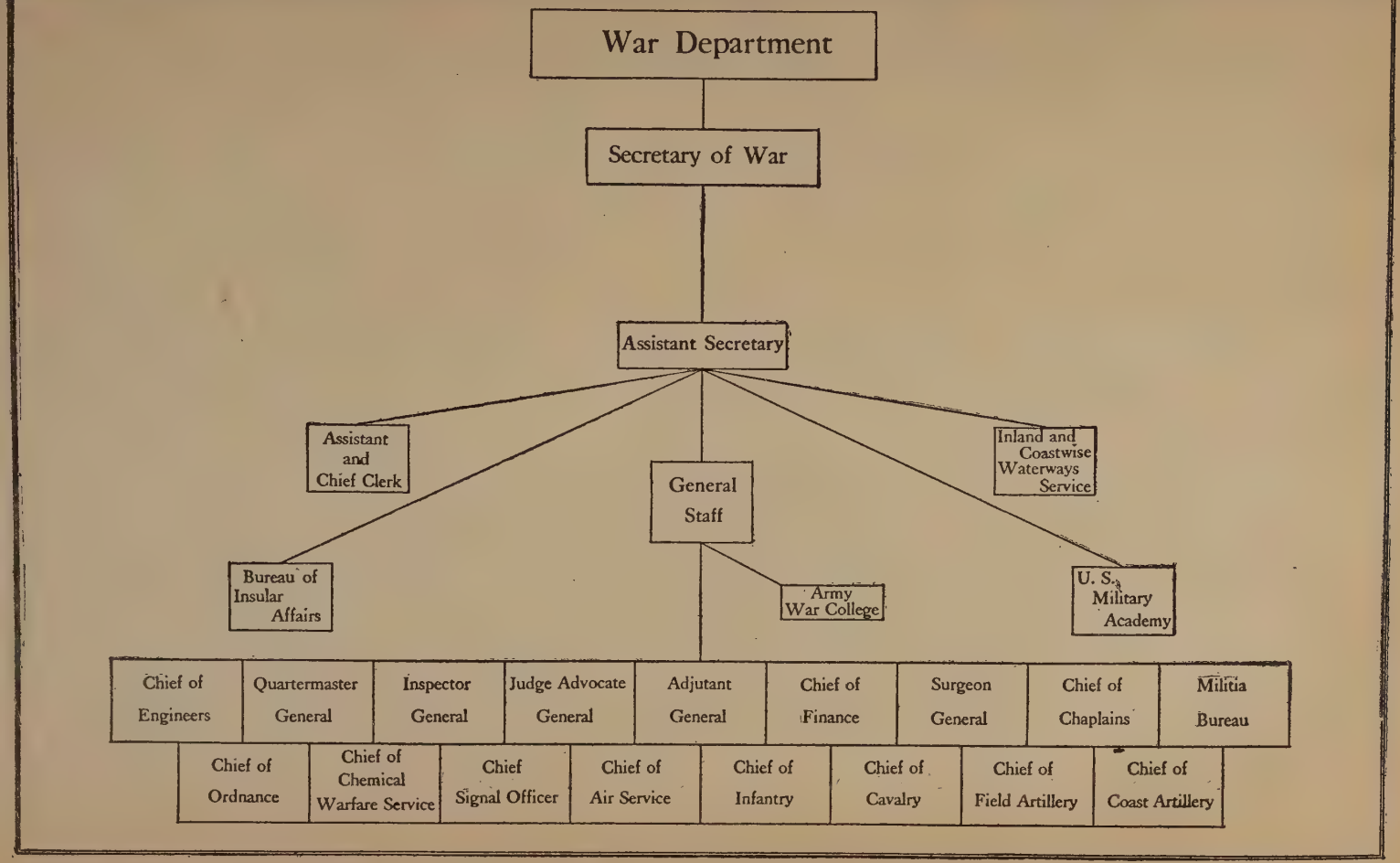
War Department
Secretary of War
Assistant Secretary
Assistant and Chief Clerk
General Staff
Inland and Coastwise Waterways Service
Bureau of Insular Affairs
Army War College
U. S. Military Academy
Chief of Engineers
Quartermaster General
Inspector General
Judge Advocate General
Adjutant General
Chief of Finance
Surgeon General
Chief of Chaplains
Militia Bureau
Chief of Ordnance
Chief of Chemical Warfare Service
Chief Signal Officer
Chief of Air Service
Chief of Infantry
Chief of Cavalry
Chief of Field Artillery
Chief of Coast Artillery

War College. (See War, Department of and illustration, frontispiece, Vol. IX.)

War Department.—An Executive Department of the federal government established by act of the First Congress under the Constitution, on Aug. 7, 1789. The work then taken up by the Department was begun by the Continental Congress, that body on June 15, 1775, having elected George Washington "to command all the continental forces raised or to be raised for the defense of American liberty." An Adjutant General, Quartermaster-General, and Commissary-General were also appointed, and on Dec. 26 of the following year Congress gave General Washington power to appoint all officers below the grade of Brigadier-General and to fill vacancies in all departments of the American Army.

In response to the recommendation of Washington, Congress, on June 13, 1776, created the Board of War, which was the germ of the modern War Department. The office of Secretary of War was created in 1781 and was filled by Henry Knox from 1784. When the War Department was formally established in 1789 he was made the first Secretary under the Constitution.

Adjutant-General.—The office of Adjutant-General was formally created by an act of Congress of March 3, 1813, there having been no regular Adjutant-General from the disbanding of the Army in 1783 up to that time. An act of March 5, 1792, created the dual office of Adjutant and Inspector-General, but on the reorganization of the Department this office was changed to that of Adjutant-General. By an act of Congress approved April 23, 1904, this office was united with the Record and Pension Office to form the office of the Military Secretary. This is the Department of records, orders and correspondence of the army and militia, the Military Secretary being charged with transmitting all orders of the Secretary of War, conducting the recruiting service, etc.

Inspector-General.—The Inspector-General's office was established under the Constitution by an act of March 3, 1813, although in 1777 an Inspector-General of Cavalry, and of Ordnance and Military Manufactures, had been appointed. It is the duty of the Inspector-General to inspect all military commands, stations, schools, armories, arsenals, fortifications and public works carried on by the War Department.

Judge-Advocate General.—The office of Judge-Advocate General of the Army was created in 1775, was discontinued in 1802, and existed again from 1812 to 1821. An act of March 2, 1849, authorized the President to appoint a Judge-Advocate of the Army, but in 1862 the title was changed to that of Judge-Advocate General. This office was made head of the Bureau of Military Justice, created June 20, 1864, but by the act of July 5, 1884, the office of Judge Advocate-General and the Bureau of Military Justice were united under the designation of Judge-Advocate General's Department, of the War Department. It is the duty of the Judge-Advocate General to review the proceedings of all courts-martial, courts of inquiry and military commissions, and give opinions on legal questions arising under laws and regulations pertaining to the War Department.

Quartermaster.—The Quartermaster's office was formally organized in the War Department by an act of Congress of March 28, 1812, although provision had been made for a Quartermaster-General by the Continental Congress as early as June 16, 1775. Various enactments were also made concerning the office up to 1785, when it ceased to exist until, as stated, it was finally organized in 1812. It is the duty of the Quartermaster's Department to furnish the army with military supplies; provide transportation for troops; construct military roads and bridges; maintain national cemeteries; and provide supplies for the militia of the various states.

Commissary-General.—The earliest legislation concerning the subsistence of the army was the resolution of the Continental Congress of June 16, 1775, creating the office of Commissary-General of Stores and Provisions. This office was succeeded on June 10, 1777, by two offices, the Commissary-General of Purchases and the Commissary-General of Issues, which acted under the direction of a committee of Congress until Nov. 25, 1779, when they were placed under the supervision of the War Board. The clothing of the troops was provided for by the ordinance of June 17, 1777, which created the office of Clothier-General, this office being placed under the direction of the War Board on April 10, 1782. An act of the Continental Congress of July 10, 1781, directed the Superintendent of Finance to procure all supplies by contract; and again on March 8, 1792, the Congress under the Constitution placed a similar duty upon the Treasury Department, which had succeeded the Superintendent of Finance. The latter act was repealed on July 16, 1798, and the Secretary of War was required to provide subsistence for the army. An act of March 16, 1802, provided for three military agents to do this work, but this system was abolished by an act of March 28, 1812, which created the office of Commissary-General of Purchases. This in turn was abolished by an act of March 28, 1812, its duties transferred to the Quartermaster's Department. The office was again created by act of April 14, 1818, to continue about a century before again abolished. The head was later referred to as the Commissary General of Subsistence.

Surgeon-General.—A hospital department for the army was created by Congress on July 27, 1775, its head being called Director-General and Chief Physician. By an act of March 3, 1813, the office of Physician and Surgeon-General was created and on April 14, 1818, the medical branch of the War Department was given a permanent head with the title of Surgeon-General.

Engineer Corps.—The Corps of Engineers was created on March 11, 1779, disbanded in November, 1783, but restored by the acts of May 9, 1794, and March 16, 1802. As early as July 25, 1777, however, there had been a "geographer and surveyor of roads" appointed. By an act of March 3, 1818, the appointment of topographical engineers was authorized, and in August, 1818, a Topographical Bureau was established in the War Department under the direction of the Secretary of War and the Chief Engineer. On July 5, 1838, an independent corps of topographical engineers was created, but by the act of March 3, 1863, it was merged with the Corps of Engineers. Besides those duties germane to its military nature, the Corps of Engineers conducts the river and harbor improvements.

Ordnance Department.—To consider ways and means of supplying the continental troops with arms and ammunition, a committee was appointed by the Continental Congress on May 27, 1775; and although a Commissioner of Artillery Stores (later called Commissioner-General of Artillery

Stores) was appointed, the business of providing arms and ammunition was conducted by a secret committee of the Continental Congress and the Board of War. An act of April 2, 1794, authorized the President to appoint an officer who, under the War Department, should perform ordnance duty, and on May 14, 1812, the Ordnance Department was formally established in the War Department. By an act of March 2, 1620, it was merged with the artillery but was reorganized as an independent bureau by an act of April 5, 1832.

Signal Corps.—The Signal Corps was practically created June 21, 1860, when Congress authorized the addition of a signal officer to the staff of the army. The Signal Corps, by that name, was organized by an act of March 3, 1863. The duties now performed by the Weather Bureau were added to those of the Signal Corps in 1870, but in 1890 that work was transferred to the Department of Agriculture. The Chief Signal Officer has charge of all means of military communication.

Customs and Insular Affairs.—A Division of Customs and Insular Affairs was established in the War Department in December, 1898, for conducting the business relating to the civil government of Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippine Islands. In 1900 the designation of this division was changed by Department orders to that of Division of Insular Affairs, and by an act of July 1, 1902, it was definitely established by law as a bureau of the War Department.

Inland and Coastwise Waterways Service.—Supervises the Government barge lines; investigates types of waterways equipment and arrangements between rail and water carriers; and promotes waterways traffic in general.

Chief of Finance.—Acts in general as the budget officer of the Department.

Chief of Chaplains.—Supervises the work of the Army chaplains and develops plans for the moral and spiritual improvement of the Army.

Chief of Chemical Warfare Service.—Investigates, develops and supplies to the Army all smoke and incendiary materials, toxic gases and gas defense appliances; also supervises the training of the Army in chemical and gas warfare.

Chief of the Air Service.—Procures, maintains and operates all aircraft equipment for the Army, including radio and signaling systems within Air Service activities; operates the flying fields; and trains the Air Service.

Chiefs of Infantry, Cavalry, Field Artillery, Coast Artillery.—Advise the Chief of Staff on all matters pertaining to these branches of the service, supervise the special service schools and boards of them, and develop their tactics in accord with the general War Department doctrine.

General Staff.—Better to coordinate the various offices of the Department, the General Staff Corps was established by an act of Congress approved Feb. 14, 1903. It consists of a Chief of Staff, who took the place of the Commanding General of the Army; two general officers detailed by the President from the regular army not below the grade of brigadier-general, and forty-two officers of minor grade similarly detailed by the President. It is the duty of the General Staff Corps to prepare plans for the national defense, and for the mobilization of the military forces in time of war; to assist the Secretary of War in increasing the efficiency of the military establishment; and in case of war to act as a board of strategy. The Chief of Staff, under the direction of the President, or the Secretary of War under the direction of the President, has supervision of all troops of the line, the Adjutant-General's, Inspector-General's, Judge-Advocate General's, Quartermaster's, Subsistence, Medical, Pay, and Ordnance Departments, the Corps of Engineers, and Signal Corps.

In administering the affairs of the Department, the Secretary is aided by an Assistant Secretary, as well as by the chiefs of the various offices, bureaus, divisions

Following is a list of the Secretaries of War and the Presidents under whom they served:

President	Secretary of War	Appointed
Washington	Henry Knox, Massachusetts	1789
"	Timothy Pickering, Mass.	1795
"	James McHenry, Maryland	1795
Adams	" "	1797
"	John Marshall, Virginia	1800
"	Samuel Dexter, Massachusetts	1800
"	Roger Griswold, Connecticut	1801
Jefferson	Henry Dearborn, Massachusetts	1801
Madison	William Eustis, Massachusetts	1809
"	John Armstrong, New York	1813
"	James Monroe, Virginia	1814
"	William H. Crawford, Georgia	1815
Monroe	Isaac Shelby, Kentucky	1817
"	Geo. Graham (*ad. in.*), Virginia	1817
"	John C. Calhoun, S. Carolina	1817
J.Q.Adams	James Barbour, Virginia	1825
"	Peter B. Porter, New York	1828
Jackson	John H. Eaton, Tennessee	1829
"	Lewis Cass, Michigan	1831
"	Benjamin F. Butler, New York	1837
Van Buren	Joel R. Poinsett, South Carolina	1837
Harrison	John Bell,* Tennessee	1841
Tyler*	John McLean, Ohio	1841
"	John C. Spencer, New York	1841
"	James M. Porter, Pennsylvania	1843
"	William Wilkins, Pennsylvania	1844
Polk	William L. Marcy, New York	1845
Taylor	George W. Crawford, Georgia	1849
"	Edward Bates, Missouri	1850
Fillmore	Charles M. Conrad, Louisiana	1850
Pierce	Jefferson Davis, Mississippi	1853
Buchanan	John B. Floyd, Virginia	1857
"	Joseph Holt, Kentucky	1861
Lincoln	Simon Cameron, Pennsylvania	1861
"	Edwin M. Stanton, Ohio	1862
Johnson	" "	1865
"	U. S. Grant (*ad. in.*), Illinois	1867
"	Lor. Thomas (*ad. in.*), Illinois	1868
"	John M. Schofield, New York	1868
Grant	John A. Rawlins, Illinois	1869
"	William T. Sherman, Ohio	1869
"	William W. Belknap, Iowa	1869
"	Alphonso Taft, Ohio	1876
"	James Don. Cameron, Penn.	1876
Hayes	George W. McCrary, Iowa	1877
"	Alexander Ramsey, Minnesota	1879
Garfield	Robert T. Lincoln, Illinois	1881
Arthur	" "	1881
Cleveland	William C. Endicott, Mass.	1885
B. Harrison	Redfield Proctor, Vermont	1889
"	Stephen B. Elkins, West Virginia	1891
Cleveland	Daniel S. Lamont, New York	1893
McKinley	Russell A. Alger, Michigan	1897
"	Elihu Root, New York	1899
Roosevelt	" "	1901
"	William H. Taft, Ohio	1904
"	Luke E. Wright, Tennessee	1908
Taft	Jacob M. Dickinson, Tennessee	1909
"	Henry L. Stimson, New York	1911
Wilson	Lindley M. Garrison, N. Jersey	1913
"	Newton D. Baker, Ohio	1916
Harding	John W. Weeks, Massachusetts	1921

* John Bell also continued by President Tyler in 1841 until appointment of successor.

and corps named above, who are officers of the regular army of the United States. Two bureaus of the Department not now in existence are: The Bureau of Refugees, Freedmen and Abandoned Lands (1865-1873), which aided in the work of reconstruction, after the Civil War; and the Bureau of the Provost-Marshal General (1863-1866), which had to do with the enrolling and calling out of the national forces and the arrest of deserters and spies.

War College.—To coordinate and direct the instruction in the various service schools and to extend the opportunities for investigation and study in the army and militia Congress established the War College at Washington, and placed it under the immediate direction of the Secretary of War.

For more detailed information of the scope and activities of the War Department consult the index references to the Presidents' Messages and Encyclopedic articles under the following headings:

Arms and Ammunition.	Civil War.
Army.	Coast Artillery.
Arsenals.	Fortifications.
Artillery.	Indian Wars.
Board of Ordnance and Fortification.	Military Academy.
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War Finance Corporation.—This body was originally organized by act of April 5, 1918, to give financial aid to industries vital in prosecuting the World War and to banks aiding them. Its war-time advances under this head exceeded $300,000,000. It also stabilized the market for Government bonds by buying them for later retirement by the Treasury, to the extent of a par value of $1,889,000,000. In the spring of 1919, it financed the railroads, then under federal control, in the absence of an appropriation for that purpose.

On March 3, 1919, the Corporation was empowered to make advances up to $1,000,000,000 to American exporters and banks giving credit to foreign buyers. Its activities under this heading were discontinued in May, 1920, at the request of the Secretary of the Treasury, but were resumed in the following January by act of Congress. In the first period its export loans amounted to about $45,000,000 and in the second, to almost $40,000,000.

By the Agricultural Credits Act of August, 1921, the Corporation was authorized to make loans for agricultural purposes to banking and financial institutions, including live-stock loan companies, and to cooperative marketing associations. Full and adequate security must be obtained for each loan by endorsement, guaranty, pledge or otherwise. The aggregate advances unpaid at any one time may not exceed $1,000,000,000 and may be made for periods not above a year, although they may be extended for terms not exceeding three years.

By the 1918 act, the capital stock was fixed at $500,000,000, all to be held by the Government and it had all been subscribed by December, 1919. The earnings are used in connection with the Corporation's activities. It is authorized to issue bonds up to three times its paid-in capital, maturing in from six months to five years and having a

first and paramount floating charge upon all the assets. The latter may not be mortgaged nor pledged.

From August 24, 1921, to November 30, 1923, the Corporation approved 8,154 applications to the total of $467,507,673. The amount actually advanced was $287,739,668, of which $211,344,580 was repaid, leaving a balance outstanding on the latter date of $76,395,088. About 60% of the advances were to banks, 27% to livestock loan companies and 13% to cooperative marketing bodies. The main classifications were:—

	Approved	*Advanced*
General	$159,252,006	$151,761,577
Livestock	99,470,216	86,584,506
Cotton	86,847,627	16,311,237
Sugar beets	11,458,000	11,458,000
Tobacco	56,500,000	11,227,419

Capital Issues Committee.—This body, of seven members, was organized in May, 1918, to investigate whether it was to the public interest that private securities aboye the amount of $100,000 issued after April 5, 1918, should be sold or offered for sale. Until its suspension of activities at the end of 1918, the Committee passed upon 3,309 applications involving new securities aggregating almost $4,000,000,000. The Committee disapproved issues amounting to almost one billion dollars.

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War of 1812.—This war grew out of the British orders in council made to destroy the commerce of France and of nations trading with France, the arbitrary impressment of American seamen, and the exercise of the right of search. These orders in council and the Berlin and Milan decrees of Napoleon subjected to capture vessels trading with England and France.

In the early part of this century European nations did not admit the right of expatriation. Great Britain held that "once an Englishman always an Englishman," and maintained the rights of search and impressment. Many of our vessels were stopped on the high seas and searched; seamen claimed to be British subjects were taken from them and forced to serve in the British navy or imprisoned for refusing to serve. Several of our men-of-war were fired upon and compelled to give up seamen in their crews. The arrogance of Great Britain was further shown by her interference with our commerce under her paper blockades. She interfered with rights which our government claimed for our vessels as neutral ships. (See Embargo Act.) The Henry affair (see Henry Documents) also increased the bitter feeling of our people. For several years previous to the war, England's action had seemed intolerable.

Congress passed acts known as the Embargo Act, the Nonintercourse Act, and the Nonimportation Act in an effort to check British aggressions on the commerce of the United States. The Federalists were opposed to war; the Republicans favored it. Madison, the Republican President, was personally not disposed to warlike measures, and it was asserted that he "could not be kicked into a war." Finally, however, the pressure from public and party became too strong for him. The Congress which assembled in December, 1811, was heartily disposed to resort to arms. It passed acts to increase the army, and appropriated large sums for the army and navy. Finally, on June 18, 1812, the President declared war against Great Britain. The war at first was waged along the Canadian frontier. The Americans suffered some serious reverses the first year in the Northwest. Detroit was surrendered by Hull, and Fort Dearborn, on Lake Michigan, the present site of the City of Chicago, was captured by the British. Detroit was recovered by Perry's splendid victory on Lake Erie in 1813. The military and naval forces of Great Britain were greatly superior to those of the United States. Nevertheless some notable victories were won by the Americans as the war progressed.

The Navy especially distinguished itself in a remarkable series of engagements with the enemy's ships. In 1814 the British attacked and captured Washington City and burned the public buildings. The most famous victory won by the Americans in the war was that of Gen. Jackson over the British commanded by Sir Edward M. Pakenham, Jan. 8, 1815, at New Orleans. This battle was fought fifteen days after peace had been declared, but before the news had reached New Orleans. Dec. 24, 1814, by the treaty of Ghent (q. v.), peace was restored. By this treaty several questions pending between the two countries were settled, but the three principal ones, out of which the war grew, were not mentioned. The total number of enlistments in the regular service was 38,187, and in the militia 471,000. The total cost of the War of 1812 was $107,159,003. The cost of the Revolutionary War was $135,193,703; of the Mexican War, $66,000,000.

War Minerals Relief Commissioner.—This official of the Department of the Interior assists the Secretary in adjusting claims, under the act of March 2, 1919, as amended on November 23, 1921, for losses incurred in producing or preparing to produce manganese, chrome, pyrites, or tungsten during the World War.

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War Risk Insurance.—In addition to compensation to soldiers and sailors, and to their families, in case of injury or death while in service in the World War, members of the military and naval forces of the United States had the privilege of taking out Government Insurance. (For the Compensation arrangements, see Soldiers and Sailors Compensation; see also Bureau of War Risk Insurance.)

During the War, a person in the military or naval service of the United States could purchase insurance against death and total permanent disability up to $10,000, for annual premiums averaging about $8.00 per $1,000. This insurance continues in force for five years after the official proclamation of the end of the War by the President of the United States, and the premiums increase slightly every year.

But at any time during those five years, the insured person may convert this insurance into a permanent Government policy, which protects him for the remainder of his life. If the insured person does not make that change during the five-year period, his protection lapses at the end of the five years after the proclamation of peace. The insured person must continue to pay the premiums on this five-year insurance until he converts it.

In the converted insurance, the premiums are fixed and do not change as the insured grows older. Furthermore, after the payment of one year's premium in the converted insurance, the policy has a surrender and loan value, should the insured person be compelled to give it up or make a loan on it. The loan may be made up to 94% of the cash surrender value.

The permanent life insurance may be taken in six forms—ordinary life; 20-payment life; 30-payment life; 20-year endowment; 30-year endowment; endowment maturing at the age of 62. These policies follow the ordinary life insurance procedure with respect to premiums, etc.

There are provisions also for extended insurance and pure endowment, and in case of total and permanent disability the insured receives $5.75 monthly for each $1,000 of insurance as long as he lives. In case of the death of such a disabled person before 240 such monthly instalments have been paid, the remainder of these 240 instalments will be paid the beneficiary.

At death, the war term insurance is payable to the beneficiary in 240 monthly in-

stalments. In case the beneficiary dies before the last of these payments has been paid, they become payable to the next beneficiary, or if all the possible beneficiaries in case of death without a will have been exhausted, the balance of the monthly payments reverts to the estate of the last permitted beneficiary in such case.

Instead of the 240 monthly payments, the insured may make provision that the insurance may be paid to his beneficiaries in one lump sum; or in a certain number of instalments; or in instalments through the entire life of the beneficiary.

In contrast with non-Government insurance, no medical examination is necessary. The insurance is free from taxation and from restrictions as to travel and occupation.

Any one or more of the following persons may be named as the beneficiaries of the insured: Parent, grand-parent, step-parent, parent through adoption; wife or husband; child, grand-child, step-child, adopted child; brother, sister, half-brother, half-sister, step-brother, step-sister, brother or sister through adoption; uncle, aunt, nephew, niece; brother-inlaw, sister-in-law; a person who has stood in the relation of parent to the insured for one year or more before the insured's entrance into service, and the children of such a person; parent, grand-parent, step-parent through the adoption of the insured's wife or husband.

The beneficiary may be changed at any time and any number of times. Also, the division of the insurance among the beneficiaries may be as desired.

There is a period of 31 days' grace after the premium becomes due, in which it may be paid. If not paid within that time, the policy lapses, and its protection ceases. However, there are liberal provisions for reinstatement of the policy after it has thus become void, as well as for its increase or decrease.

The amount of the premiums and further information are obtainable through the Bureau of War Risk Insurance, Washington, D. C.; through the American Legion or similar organizations of veterans; or through the Red Cross or any other welfare agency cooperating with the Bureau of War Risk Insurance.

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War Savings Stamps.—Certificates issued by the United States Treasury for purchase by those unable to buy Liberty Bonds (q. v.). The money derived from their sale was used to help finance the war activities of the United States. The War Savings Stamps of the first issue were dated January 2, 1918, and were purchasable during that month at $4.12. The selling price was one cent higher for each month after January, 1918, in which the war savings stamp was sold. The stamps were issued to mature on January 1, 1923, at which time the Government was to pay $5.00 for each stamp. The interest paid by the Government accordingly represented 4%, compounded quarterly.

No person might hold more than $1,000 worth of the stamps of any one issue. Stamps might be redeemed before maturity, the owner receiving the purchase and interest thereon at a rate of about 3%. The stamps might be registered against loss at any post-office, without charge. For methods by which war savings stamps might be purchased in instalments of twenty-five cents each, see Thrift Stamps. There were later issues of War Savings Stamps, under terms similar to those of the first issue.

To meet the demand for War Savings Stamps of higher denominations, the Treasury issued certificates, known as Treasury Savings Certificates, of denominations of $100 and $1,000. The purchase prices, redemption value and final redemption value of these followed the same ratios as the War Savings Stamps.

From December, 1917, to January, 1919, the War Savings Stamps, Thrift Stamps and Treasury Savings Certificates sold amounted to $971,913,873. From January, 1919, to November, 1919, the amount sold was $143,162,566, making a total of $1,115,076,439. During this period, the redemptions amounted to $204,391,451.

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War, Secretary of.—An act of the Continental Congress of Feb. 7, 1781, created the office of Secretary of War to take the place of the Board of War. Benjamin Lincoln was the first secretary, serving from 1781 to 1785, when he was succeeded by Henry Knox. Under Knox the present War Department was established. (See also War, Department of.)

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Ware vs. Hylton.—A Supreme Court case denying the right of any State or citizen to repudiate debts contracted with British subjects before the Revolutionary War. In 1796 Ware, a citizen of Great Britain, administrator of William Jones, surviving partner of Farrell & Jones, brought suit against Hylton, of Virginia, for the recovery of a debt. Hylton refused payment on the ground that the Virginia legislature of 1777 had passed an act to sequester British property and enable debtors of British subjects to pay such debts to the State loan office. The act was signed by Governor Jefferson. Hylton claimed to have complied with this statute. The United States circuit court for Virginia rendered a decree in favor of the defendant. The United States Supreme Court, however, reversed this decision on the ground that the legislature had not the power to extinguish the debt, when payment of such debts had been stipulated in the treaty of 1783. The justices rendered separate opinions to this effect. At the close of the Revolution and for a number of years afterwards there was a great deal of feeling aroused in Virginia and other States over efforts to collect British debts which had been contracted in colonial times.

Warehouse Act.—The central purpose of the United States Warehouse Act, which became a law on August 11, 1916, is to establish and make generally current a form of warehouse receipt for cotton, grain, wool, tobacco and flaxseed, which will make these receipts easily and widely negotiable as delivery orders or as collateral for loans and therefore of definite assistance in financing crops. This purpose the act aims to attain by licensing and bonding warehouses under conditions which will insure the integrity of their receipts and make these receipts reliable evidence of the condition, quality, quantity and ownership of the products named which may be stored with them.

The Secretary of Agriculture is given general authority to investigate the storage, warehousing, classification, weighing and certifying of cotton, wool, grains, tobacco and flaxseed, and to classify warehouses for which licenses are applied for or issued.

He may issue to warehousemen licenses for the conduct of warehouses in which such products may be stored for interstate or foreign commerce, and also of warehouses located in places under the exclusive jurisdiction of the United States in which such products may be stored. Persons who are not warehousemen may also be licensed, subject to the same requirements as licensed warehousemen, to accept such products for storage in warehouses owned, operated or leased by any State. Licenses may be issued for periods not exceeding one year and are renewable upon a showing satisfactory to the Secretary of Agriculture. A fee not exceeding $2 may be charged for each license or renewal, and, in addition, a reasonable fee for each examination or inspection of a warehouse made upon application of the warehouseman. It is not, however, compulsory that any warehouseman be licensed by the Secretary of Agriculture.

Every applicant for a license as a warehouseman must agree to comply with the act and the rules and regulations prescribed under it. He must give a bond, with other than personal surety, to secure the performance of his obligations as a warehouseman under the laws of the place in which the warehouse is conducted, under his contracts with his depositors and under the United States Warehouse Act. The right is given to any person injured through its breach to sue in his own name on the bond for any damages sustained by him. When such bond has been given the warehouse may be designated as bonded under the United States Warehouse Act.

The Secretary of Agriculture is authorized to inspect warehouses licensed, or for which licenses are applied; to determine whether they are suitable for the proper storage of agricultural products; to prescribe the duties of licensed warehousemen with respect to their care of, and responsibility for, agricultural products; and to examine agricultural products stored in licensed warehouses. Deposits of agricultural products in such warehouses are made subject to the act and the rules and regulations under it.

Licensed warehousemen are not permitted to discriminate between persons desiring to store agricultural products in their warehouses. All agricultural products, except fungible products (such as grain and the like), of the same kind and grade, for which separate receipts are issued, must be kept that they may be separately identified and redelivered to the depositor. Warehousemen may mix grain and other fungible products, ordinarily mixed in storage, when they are of the same kind and grade and are delivered from the same mass, but may not mix such products when they are of different grades.

Original receipts must be issued for all agricultural products stored in licensed warehouses, but only when such products are actually stored at the time of the issuance of the receipts. Additional or further receipts for the same products may only be issued in place of lost or destroyed receipts, and then only under specified conditions.

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Wars of the United States.—The principal wars in which the United States has been engaged are the Revolutionary war, the war with France, war with the Barbary States (Algeria, Tunis and Tripoli), the War of 1812, the Mexican war, the Civil War, the Spanish-American war, the Indian wars, and the war with Germany. The most important conflicts with Indian tribes are described under Indian Wars. The near approach to war with France at the close of the Eighteenth Century is chronicled in the article entitled X, Y, Z Mission, and some of the minor domestic insurrections are treated under the headings: Aroostook War, Bear Flag War, Whisky Insurrection, Buckshot War, etc. The duration of the several wars and the troops engaged are shown in the table on the following page.

Minor expeditions and engagements other than those in the preceding table in which United States have been engaged are as follows:

1782-1787—Wyoming Valley (Pa.) Revolt.
1786-1787—Shay's Rebellion (Mass.).
1799 —Fries Rebellion (Pa.).
1806 —Burr Conspiracy.
1806 —Sabine Expedition (La.).
1807 —Chesapeake Bay Naval Affair.
1808 —Lake Champlain Embargo Troubles.
1811-1813—Second War, Northwestern Indians.
1812 —Seminole War (Florida).
1813 —Peoria Indian War (Illinois).
1819 —Yellowstone Expedition.
1823 —Blackfeet and Arickaree Indian Wars.
1832-1833—Nullification, South Carolina.
1834 —Pawnee Expedition.
1837 —Osage Indian Troubles.
1838 —Heatherly Indian War.
1838 —Mormon Disturbances.
1846-1847—Doniphan Expedition (Mexico).
1846-1848—New Mexican Expedition.
1850 —Pitt River Expedition (Cal.).
1855 —Snake Indians Expedition.
1855-1856—Sioux Expedition (Nebraska).
1855 —Yakima Expedition (Oregon).
1855-1856—Cheyenne and Arapahoe Troubles.
1856-1858—Kansas Border Troubles.
1857 —Gila Expedition (New Mexico).
1857 —Sioux Indian Troubles (Minn., Ia.).
1857 —Mountain Meadow Massacre (Utah).
1857-1858—Utah Expedition.
1858 —Expedition vs. Northern Indians.
1858 —Puget Sound Expedition.
1858 —Spokane, Coeur d'Alene and Paloos Indian Troubles.
1858 —Navajo Expedition (New Mexico).
1858-1859—Wichita Expedition (Ind. Ter.).
1859 —Colorado River Expedition.

MILITARY AND NAVAL FORCES EMPLOYED BY THE UNITED STATES IN THE SEVERAL WARS SINCE AND INCLUDING THE WAR OF THE REVOLUTION:
[Reported by the Commissioner of Pensions]

War	Dates		Troops Engaged				
	From—	To—	Regulars	Militia and Volunteers	Navy	Total	Individuals (estimated)
Revolution, war of the	April 19, 1775	April 11, 1783	130,711	58,750	15,000	.....	.....
Estimated additional	.....	.....	.....	105,830	.....	309,791	184,038
Northwestern Indian war with the Miamis, Wyandots, Delawares, Potawatomies, Shawnees, Chippewas, and Ottawas. General Harmer	Sept. 19, 1790	.....	320	1,133	.....	1,453	
General St. Clair	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8,983 2,300	5,627
General Wayne	.....	Aug. 3, 1795	2,843	2,387	.....	5,230	
France, war with	July 9, 1798	Sept. 30, 1800	.....	.....	4,593	4,593	3,216
Tripoli, Africa, war with	June 10, 1801	June 4, 1805	.....	.....	3,330	3,330	2,331
Northwestern Indian war, General Harrison	Sept. 11, 1811	Oct. —, 1813	250	660	.....	910	676
Great Britain, war with, 1812	June 18, 1812	Feb. 17, 1815	85,000	471,622	20,000	576,622	286,730
Creek Indian war, Alabama	July 27, 1813	Aug. 9, 1814	600	13,181	.....	13,781	9,048
Seminole or Florida and Georgia Indian war	Nov. 20, 1817	Oct. 31, 1818	1,000	5,911	.....	6,911	4,643
Winnebago expedition, Wisconsin, also called La Fever Indian war (no fighting)	June —, 1827	Sept. —, 1827	900	515	.....	1,416	1,330
Sac and Fox Indian war in Illinois	1831	1831	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Black Hawk Indian war	April 26, 1832	Sept. 21, 1832	1,339	5,126	.....	6,465	5,900
Cherckee disturbance and removal	1833	1839	.....	9,494	.....	9,494	5,547
Seminole or Florida war	Dec. 23, 1835	Aug. 14, 1842	11,169	28,953	.....	41,122	22,795
Sabine Indian disturbances, Southwestern frontier, La., Ark., and Tex. (no fighting)	April —, 1836	June —, 1837	1,323	3,106	.....	4,429	3,365
Creek Indian disturbance in Alabama	May 5, 1836	Sept. 30, 1837	935	12,483	.....	13,418	10,204
New York, Aroostook, and Canada (Patriot war) frontier disturbances	1838	1839	.....	1,500	.....	1,500	1,050
Florida war with the Seminole Indians	1842	Dec. 31, 1858	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Mexico, war with	April 24, 1846	May 30, 1848	30,954	73,776	7,500	112,230	78,718
Cayuse Indian, Oregon, Oregon volunteers	1848	1848	(1)	1,116	.....	1,116	1,005
Texas and New Mexico Indian war	1849	1856	5,050	1,415	.....	6,465	4,243
Apache, Navaho, and Utah war	1849	1855	1,500	1,061	.....	2,561	1,785
California Indian disturbance, Yuma expedition	Dec. —, 1851	April —, 1852	265	.....	.....	265	.....
Utah Indian disturbance	1851	1853	10	530	.....	540	540
Oregon and Washington Indian war, Rogue River, Yakima, Klikitat, Klamath, and Salmon River	1851	Dec. 31, 1856	850	6,379	.....	7,229	5,145
Comanche Indian war	1854	1854	.....	503	.....	503	425
Seminole or Florida Indian war	Dec. 20, 1855	May 8, 1858	.....	2,687	.....	2,687	1,715
Rebellion, war of the (actual hostilities, however, commenced upon the firing on Fort Sumter, April 12, 1861, and ceased by the surrender of the Confederate forces under Gen. Kirby Smith, May 26, 1865)	April 15, 1861	Aug. 20, 1866	126,587	2,545,754	105,963	2,778,304	3,212,363
Spanish-American war (actual hostilities ceased Aug. 13, 1898)	April 21, 1898	April 11, 1899	57,329	223,235	[2] 31,959	[2] 312,523	312,000
Philippine Islands, insurrection in	Feb. 4, 1899	July 4, 1902	76,416	50,052	[2] 13,570	[2] 140,038	139,438
Expedition for the relief of United States legation at Peking, China	July 6, 1900	May 27, 1901	5,000	(3)	[2] 1,913	[2] 6,913	6,713
Occupation of Vera Cruz, Mexico	April 21, 1914	Nov. 23, 1914	6,500	(3)	3,780	10,280	.....
War with Germany and Austria-Hungary	April 6, 1917	[7]Nov. 11, 1918	[5] 527,000	[4] 461,048 [5] 1,993,000 [6] 3,665,000	497,000	4,162,000	.....

[1] No. Regulars. [2] Officers in U. S. Marine Corps included, but not officers in U. S. Navy proper. [3] No Volunteers. [4] National Guard.
[5] American Expeditionary Forces. [6] Total. [7] Armistice.

1859 —Pecos Expedition (Texas).
1859 —Antelope Hills Expedition (Tex.).
1859 —Bear River Expedition (Utah).
1859 —San Juan Trouble (Wash. Ter.).
1859 —John Brown Raid (Virginia).
1859-1860—Cortina Troubles (Mex. Border).
1860 —Pah-Ute Expedition (Cal.).
1860 —Kiowa and Comanche Exepdition (Ind. Ter.).
1860 —Carson Valley Expedition (Utah).
1860-1861—Navajo Expedition (New Mexico).
1861 —Apache Indian War (Ariz., N. M.).
1862 —Indian Troubles, (New Ulm, Minn.).
1862-1867—Sioux Indian War (Minn., Dakota).
1863-1869—War vs. Cheyenne, Arapahoe, Kiowa, Comanche Indians in Kansas, Neb., Col., and Ind. Ter.
1865-1868—Indian War, Ore., Id., Cal.
1865-1866—Fenian Raids, Canada Border.
1867-1881—Mexican Border Indian Wars.
1868-1869—Canadian River Expedition (N. M.).
1871 —Yellowstone Expedition.
1871 —Fenian Troubles, Dakota Border.
1872 —Yellowstone Expedition, Dakota.
1872-1873—Modoc Campaign.
1873 —Yellowstone Campaign, Dakota.
1874-1875—Indian Wars, Ind. Ter.
1874 —Sioux Expedition, Wyo., Neb.
1874 —Black Hills Expedition, Dak.
1875 —Campaign vs. Nevada Indians.
1876 —Sioux Indian War.
1876 —Powder River Expedition (Wyo.).
1876-1877—Big Horn, Yellowstone Expeditions.
1876-1879—Sioux and Cheyenne War.
1877 —Nez Percés Campaign.
1878 —Ute Campaign.
1879 —Snake Indian Troubles (Id.).
1890-1891—Sioux Indian War.
1891-1893—Tin Horn War, Mexican Border.
1895 —Bannock Indian Troubles.
1898 —Chippewa Indian Troubles.
1912-1913—Nicaraguan Expedition.
1913-1914—Haitian and Santo Domingo Expeditions.
1914 —Occupation of Vera Cruz, Mexico.
1916 —Punitive Expedition, Mexico.
1916 —Military Occupation of Haiti and Santo Domingo.

Casualties.—The recorded casualties in the forces of the United States in all its military and naval enterprises, from the beginning of the War of Independence to the signing of the armistice with Germany, totalled about 1,500,000. Of this number about 700,000 were killed or died of wounds, disease or other causes. The figures for the War of Independence, however, are purely conjectural, as no records of any kind concerning casualties are available. The above total includes the Confederate losses in the Civil War. In the Union Army alone they were distributed as follows:

Deaths	*Officers*	*Men*	*Total*
Killed in Action	4,142	62,916	67,058
Died of Wounds	2,223	40,789	43,012
Died of Disease	2,795	221,791	224,586
Miscellaneous	424	24,358	24,782
Total Deaths	9,584	349,944	359,528
Wounded			275,175

The Confederate losses in the Civil War are estimated at 95,000 dead from action and 60,000 dead of disease, with some 175,000 wounded and missing, etc.

Casualties in the War of 1812 were as follows:

	Officers	*Men*	*Total*
Killed in action alone	642	4,220	4,862
Wounded			4,000

Deaths in the Mexican War were 19,349, with a total casualty list of 43,300.

In the war with Spain, 265 men were killed, of whom 21 were officers; 1,596 were wounded, of whom 116 were officers; and 3,729 died of disease.

Losses in the World War will be found under that head.

Wars of United States. (See Algerine War; Indian Wars; Mexican War; Revolutionary War; Spanish-American War; Tripolitan War; Civil War; War of 1812; Mexico; World War.)

Wasco Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Washington, George.—1789-1797.

(FIRST TERM, 1789-1793).

First Administration—Federal.

Vice-President—John Adams.

Secretary of State—
Thomas Jefferson, from March 21, 1790.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Alexander Hamilton, from Sept. 11, 1789.

Secretary of War—
Henry Knox, from Sept. 12, 1789.

Attorney-General—
Edmund Randolph, from Sept. 26, 1789.

Postmaster-General—
Samuel Osgood, from Sept. 26, 1789.
Timothy Pickering, from Aug. 12, 1791.

The first session of the First Congress under the Constitution met in New York, April 6, 1789. Speaker of the House, F. A. Muhlenberg, of Pennsylvania.

The electoral vote was immediately counted and George Washington was found to be the unanimous choice for President. He took the oath of office April 30, and the organization of the United States government under the Constitution was begun. The first tariff bill was passed July 4. By the end of September the departments of State, War and Navy, Treasury, Post-Office and Attorney-General had been organized and the Supreme Court established.

It was by perfectly natural and logical steps that Washington passed from the military leadership of the people in their struggle for independence, through the Presidency of the National Convention at Philadelphia, where months of the year 1787 were spent in framing a Constitution, to the position of first President of the

United States. Speaking of Washington's eminent fitness for the office, Bancroft, in his "History of the Constitution," says: "But for him the country could not have achieved its independence; but for him it could not have formed its Union; and now but for him it could not set the Government in successful motion." The election should have been held in November, 1788; but it did not take place until the first Wednesday in January, 1789. The Constitution required that to become operative it should be ratified by nine of the thirteen states. It was not until June 21, 1788, that New Hampshire, the requisite ninth state, gave its approval; Vermont followed on the 26th of June, and New York on July 26. It was Sept. 13, 1788, before Congress passed the resolution declaring the Constitution ratified, and ordered the appointment of the electors. The interval between this date and that set for the election allowed no time for the participation of the people in the election. The electors were appointed by the legislatures of all states except that of New York, where a bitter struggle over the Constitution between the House and the Senate prevented the necessary compliance with the order, and those of North Carolina and Rhode Island, whose legislatures had not yet ratified the Constitution. There was no nomination or preparation of platform, yet when on April 6, 1789, the votes of the electors were counted in the presence of the two houses, it was found that Washington had received every vote of the ten states that had participated in the election, and that John Adams had received 34. The third highest vote was that of John Jay, who received nine, the votes for the latter two being for the Vice-Presidency.

After submitting twelve constitutional amendments to the states (ten of which were ratified, taking effect Dec. 15, 1791), Congress adjourned, and President Washington paid a visit to the northern and eastern states.

The second session of the First Congress met in New York, Jan. 4, 1790, and Washington delivered his First Annual Address (page 57). At this session Secretary Hamilton's scheme for funding the National Debt was adopted, providing (1) fund and pay the foreign debt of the Confederation ($12,000,000); (2) fund and pay the domestic debt ($40,000,000); (3) assume and pay the unpaid war debt ($21,500,000) of the states. This session also passed acts authorizing the census, the patent office and the acquisition of the District of Columbia as a permanent seat of government. Meanwhile the last of the thirteen original states had ratified the Constitution, and after amending the tariff law by increasing duties, the second session adjourned Aug. 12, 1790.

The third session of the First Congress, which met in Philadelphia, Dec. 6, 1790, passed the act incorporating the Bank of the United States, and adjourned March 3, 1791. This Congress in two years established the government on a permanent basis and provided the means to maintain it.

England further recognized the young republic by sending a minister to the capital.

The Second Congress opened at Philadelphia Oct. 24, 1791, with Jonathan Trumbull, of Connecticut, Speaker of the House. The Mint was established and an apportionment act was passed. (See Apportionment.) At the second session the President's salary was fixed at $25,000, and the electoral vote was counted, showing Washington to have received 132 (all) and John Adams 77 and George Clinton 50 as second choice, or Vice-President, in the second Presidential election.

(SECOND TERM, 1793-1797).

Second Administration—Federal.

Vice-President—John Adams.

Secretary of State—
Thomas Jefferson (continued).
Edmund Randolph, from Jan. 2, 1794.
Timothy Pickering, from Dec. 10, 1795.

Secretary of the Treasury—
Alexander Hamilton (continued).
Oliver Wolcott, from Feb. 2, 1795.

Secretary of War—
Henry Knox (continued).
Timothy Pickering, from Jan. 2, 1795.
James McHenry, from Jan. 27, 1796.

Attorney-General—
Edmund Randolph (continued).
William Bradford, from Jan. 8, 1794.
Charles Lee, from Dec. 10, 1795.

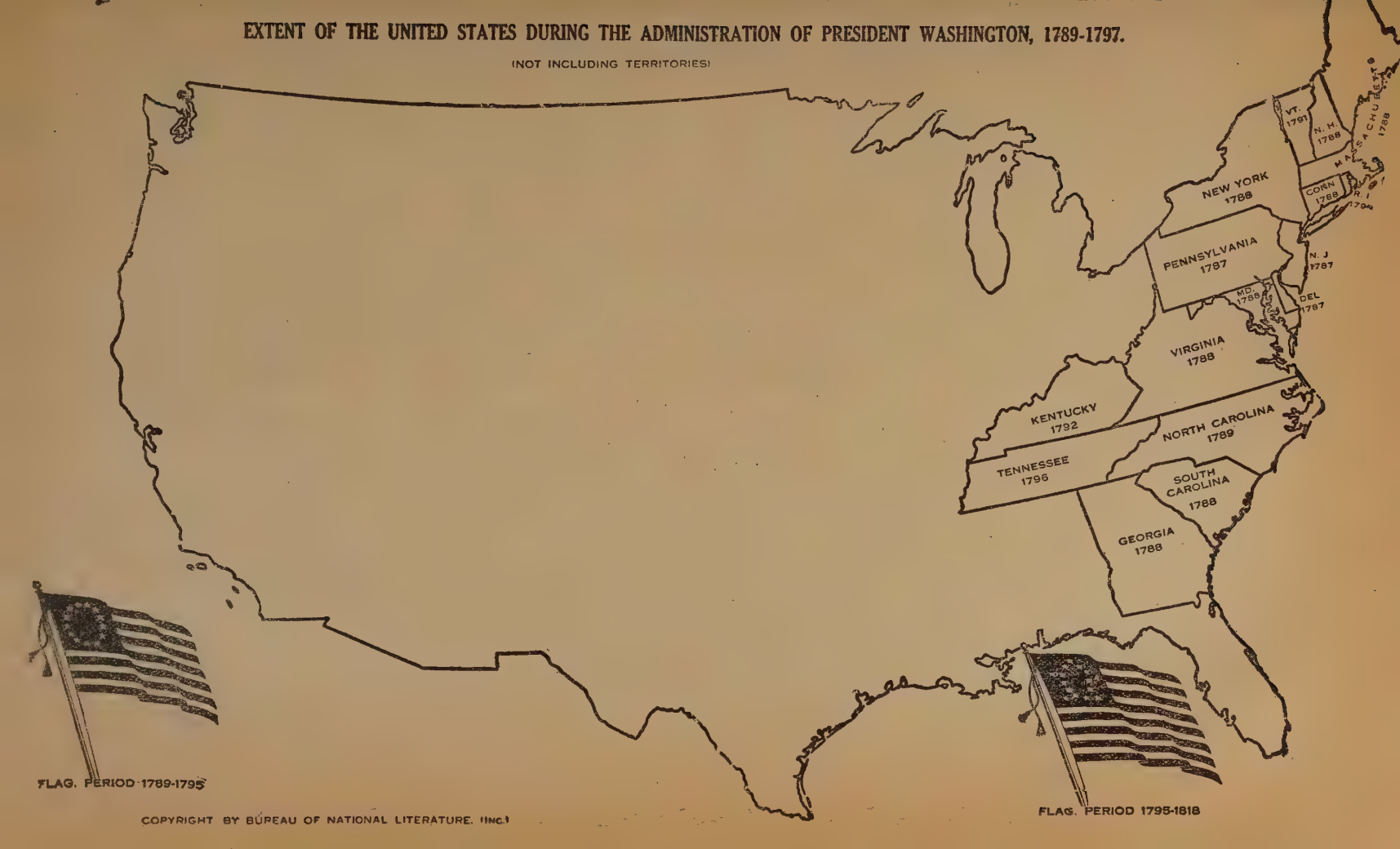
Postmaster-General—
Timothy Pickering (continued).
Joseph Habersham, from Feb. 25, 1795.

Party Affiliation.—At no time did Washington make an avowal of party. He entered upon the duties of office with a profound veneration for the Constitution, a determination to adhere to its every provision, and with a fixed purpose of promoting the unity of the nation. Before his election he said in a letter: "I have ever been a friend to adequate powers in Congress, without which we shall never establish a national character. . . . We are either a united people under one head and for federal purposes, or we are thirteen independent sovereignties, eternally counteracting each other." When he was consulted about the choice of a Vice-President, he expressed no preference save that he hoped it would be "a true Federalist." Even at the end of his eight years as President, after the installation of the machinery of the Government, the formulation of the policies of the country, and the application of the provisions of the Constitution to the practical duties of the administration had erected the party of which he was the head, hereafter to be known as Federalists, and that of his opponents, known for a time as Anti-Federalists—even then in his memorable Farewell Address (see page 205) he denounced party affiliation and cautioned his countrymen against its, to him, baneful effects. While he, therefore, must be regarded as the founder of a party, he, nevertheless, says: "The alternate domination of one faction over another, sharpened by the spirit of revenge natural to party dissension, which in different ages and countries has perpetrated the most horrid enormities, is itself a frightful despotism." . . . "It opens the door to foreign influence and corruption, which find a facilitated access to the Government itself through the channels of party passion."

The war between England and France had made itself felt in America through vexatious interference by both belligerents with the commerce of the United States. The French Government directed the seizure of all vessels carrying supplies to an enemy's port and Great Britain ordered her war ships to stop all vessels laden with French supplies and to turn them into British ports. War sentiment ran high in America and Washington was severely criticised for his proclamation of neutrality. These aggressions on the seas were the beginnings of a series of provocations which finally led to the second war with

EXTENT OF THE UNITED STATES DURING THE ADMINISTRATION OF PRESIDENT WASHINGTON, 1789-1797.

(NOT INCLUDING TERRITORIES)



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Great Britain in 1812. During the summer of 1793 the cornerstone of the Capitol was laid. Hamilton was the recognized leader of the Federalist party, and the followers of Jefferson began to assume the name of Republicans in opposition.

The Third Congress opened in Philadelphia Dec. 2, 1793, with F. A. Muhlenberg as Speaker of the House. Thomas Jefferson resigned from the State Department owing to his opposition to the administration, and dissensions among the Federalists themselves resulted in that party's overthrow. The Eleventh Amendment to the Constitution, securing states against suits in the United States Courts, was declared in force Jan. 8, 1798. Six ships of war were authorized—three of 44 guns and three of 38 guns. Of these the *Constitution* (44 guns), *United States* (44 guns), and the *Constellation* (38 guns) were completed. In retaliation for the English navigation acts an embargo was laid on all shipping for sixty days, and an act was passed forbidding any American vessel to supply slaves to any other nation. On account of the popular sympathy with France in her war with England it was deemed necessary to pass a neutrality law in order to avoid war with England, and John Jay was sent as envoy with a treaty. Indians in the Ohio territory, which had been giving considerable trouble, were defeated by Gen. Anthony Wayne. Stringent naturalization laws were passed at this time. Hamilton resigned his portfolio as Secretary of the Treasury in January, 1795. The Third Congress adjourned March 3, and the following summer Washington called the Senate in extra session and the Jay Treaty with England was ratified in spite of popular remonstrances against it. Treaties were also signed with the Ohio Indians, with Spain and Algiers.

The Fourth Congress met in Philadelphia Dec. 7, 1795, with Jonathan Dayton as Speaker of the House. The Jay Treaty was proclaimed March 1, 1796, and the House demanded the papers in relation thereto, and Washington refused. About this time Jefferson wrote the famous Mazzei letter (*q. v.*), which later severed the friendly relations between himself and Washington. The closing days of this session were enlivened by Fisher Ames' speech in the House on the Jay Treaty.

Political Complexion of Congress.—In the First Congress, the Senate was composed of twenty-six members, all of whom were Federalists; the House, of sixty-five members, was composed of fifty-three Federalists and twelve Democrats. In the Second Congress, the Senate was composed of seventeen Federalists and thirteen Democrats; and the House, of sixty-nine members, was made up of fifty-five Federalists and fourteen Democrats. In the second term of Washington's administration, the Third Congress was composed of a Senate of thirty-one members, of whom eighteen were Federalists and thirteen Democrats; the House, of 105 members, was made up of fifty-one Federalists and fifty-four Democrats. The Fourth Congress consisted of a Senate of thirty-two members, of whom nineteen were Federalists and thirteen Democrats; and a House of 105 members, composed of forty-six Federalists and fifty-nine Democrats.

At the third presidential election the Federals voted for John Adams and Thomas Pinckney for President and Vice-President, respectively, while the Republicans voted for Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr. When the votes were counted one of the great faults in the method of electing the President and Vice-President became apparent. Of the 138 votes cast for President, Adams received 71, and Jefferson, 68, and, under the Constitution, Jefferson, though a candidate for President on the opposition ticket became Vice-President. This resulted in the Twelfth Amendment to the Constitution.

Constitution.—The failure of the confederation to secure for his country that unity of government which he most desired, caused Washington great anxiety; and Shays's rebellion added greatly to his disquiet. He said in a letter to Madison, in November, 1786: "It was but the other day that we were shedding our blood to obtain the constitutions under which we now live—constitutions of our own choice and making—and now we are unsheathing the sword to overturn them." He was persuaded by his friends to head the delegation from Virginia to the convention at Philadelphia in May, 1787, and there was unanimously elected president of the convention that passed the Constitution, on Sept. 17, 1787. He immediately announced the fact to Congress by letter, in which he said: "In all our deliberations on this subject we kept steadily in our view that which appears to us the greatest interest of every true American—the consolidation of our Union—in which is involved our prosperity, felicity, safety, and, perhaps, our national existence." His firm adherence to the Constitution and his influence in interpreting it were remarked by his contemporaries. In his appointments to the several offices he acted as he himself said: "With the best intentions and fullest determination to nominate to office those persons only who, upon every consideration, were the most deserving, and who would probably execute their several functions to the interest and credit of the American Union, if such characters could be found by my exploring every avenue of information respecting their merit and pretensions that it was in my power to obtain." His regard for the Constitution seems to be epitomized in his statement in his Farewell Address (page 209): "The basis of our political system is the right of the people to make and to alter their constitutions of government. But the Constitution which at any time exists till changed by an explicit and authentic act of the whole people is sacredly obligatory on all."

Finances.—When Washington took office the finances of the country were in a deplorable state. He appointed Alexander Hamilton, of New York, Secretary of the Treasury. A loan of 3,000,000 florins (about $1,200,000) was negotiated from Holland in 1790 (see page 73), after which came Hamilton's plan for providing revenues. The first step toward the revenue was taken in the tariff bill of July 4, 1789, the preamble of which reads: "Whereas, it is necessary for the support of government, for the discharge of the debts of the United States, and the encouragement and protection of manufacturers, that duties be laid on goods, wares, and merchandise imported. Be it enacted," etc. Hamilton's plans for financing the nation and of restoring public credit involved the funding system, of which Hamilton was the originator in America, and the establishment of the Bank of the United States, the subscriptions of which were made in a single day (see page 96). Three other loans from Holland were made and are referred to by Washington with much satisfaction in his Fourth Annual Address (see page 120).

The establishment of public credit was very dear to Washington. In his Second Annual Address (page 75) he expresses satisfaction at the sufficiency of the revenue provisions and adds the hope "that it will be the favorite policy with you, not merely to secure a payment of the interest of the debt funded, but as far and as fast as the growing resources of the country will permit to exonerate it of the principal itself." In his Fifth Annual Address (page 134) he says: "No pecuniary consideration is more urgent than the regular redemption and discharge of the public debt. On none can delay be more injurious or an economy of time more valuable." In his Sixth Annual Address (page 159) he again refers to this subject: "Indeed, whatsoever is unfinished in our system of public credit cannot be benefited by procrastination; and as far as may be practicable we ought to place that credit on grounds which cannot be disturbed, and to prevent that progressive accumulation of debt which must ultimately endanger all governments." His last official word on this subject is given in his Seventh Annual Address (page 177): "Congress have demonstrated their sense to be, and it were superfluous to repeat mine, that whatsoever will tend to accelerate the honorable extinction of our public debt accords as much with the true interest of our country as with the general sense of our constituents."

The attention of Congress was repeatedly called to the necessity of producing uniformity in the coins, weights, and measures of the country, to overcome the confusion resulting from the several standards in use. By the power vested in him, Washington reduced the weight of the copper cent to one pennyweight and sixteen grains, and that of the half-cent proportionately.

Public Debt.—The public debt of the United States during the years of Washington's administration stood as follows: Jan. 1, 1791, $75,463,476.52; 1792, $77,227,924.66; 1793, $80,352,634.04; 1794, $78,427,404.77; 1795, $80,747,587.39; 1796, $83,762,172.07; 1797, $82,064,479.33.

Tariff.—The tariff act of July 4, 1789, imposed duties varying from five per cent. to ten per cent. upon iron, steel, wool, carpets, and glass; and duties of from five to twenty cents per gallon on certain liquors. An act, passed on Aug. 10, 1790, "making further provision for the payment of the debts of the United States," increased the duties upon some of the dutiable imports; and both increased and added to the duties imposed on liquors. The first case of indirect taxation in the country, other than duties on imports, was the act of March 3, 1791, "repealing after the last day of June next the duties heretofore laid upon distilled spirits imported from abroad, and laying others in their stead; and also upon spirits distilled within the United States, and for appropriating the same." The duty varied from nine to twenty-five cents a gallon according to strength; with a yearly duty of sixty cents per gallon of capacity on all stills employed. Duties on nearly all dutiable goods were slightly increased by the act of May 2, 1792, "for raising a further sum of money for the protection of the frontier, and for other purposes therein mentioned." The act of June 5, 1794, "laying certain duties upon snuff and refined sugar; also upon carriages; and retail dealers of wines, etc., were required to pay five dollars a year for license." The duty on snuff made in the country was laid at eight cents a pound; and refined sugar, two cents a pound. The act of June 7, 1794, laid additional duties on goods imported and imposed a duty upon auction sales. On March 3, 1797, an act was signed imposing stamp duties on some kinds of certificates, bills of exchange, letters patent, insurance policies, promissory notes, etc.

Opposition to the payment of excise taxes by certain distillers of western Pennsylvania necessitated sending troops to the scene of disorder, and was made the subject of three proclamations by Washington. (See Whisky Insurrection, and proclamations, pp. 116, 150 and 153.)

Commerce.—The regulation of commerce in the young republic was a task of extreme difficulty, but Washington addressed himself to the development of trade and industry with such ardor that in his Seventh Annual Address (page 176) he was able to say: "Every part of the Union displays indications of rapid and various improvement; and with burdens so light as to be scarcely perceived, with resources fully adequate to our present exigencies, with governments founded upon the general principles of rational liberty, and with mild and wholesome laws, is it too much to say that our country exhibits a spectacle of national happiness never surpassed, if ever equalled?" In Hamilton's plan for raising revenue there was included a tax on spirits. This was opposed as being a tax on a necessity, but especially because suits arising out of its imposition were triable only in Pennsylvania, thus involving great trouble and expense. The protest against the tax is known as the Whisky Rebellion. Washington bore the defiance against that law with admirable patience and issued no fewer than three placating proclamations on the subject before resorting to force. An army of 15,000 men was called out, but order was restored without their aid.

In the Second Annual Message (page 75) a warning is sounded for the need of better protection of American commerce by building a merchant marine, that the country be not dependent upon foreign bottoms for carrying its produce to other countries. Especial attention is called to the Mediterranean trade which was then interfered with by African pirates.

Slavery.—Washington inherited a great many slaves, and used them in his successful operations as a planter. He was, while President, the richest man in the United States. The slavery question assumed no political status in his time; but in 1786, in a letter to Mr. Morris, he said: "There is no man living who wishes more sincerely than I do to see a plan adopted for the abolition of slavery." In proof of the sincerity of this statement, all of his slaves were emancipated by his will.

Foreign Policy.—In his First Annual Message Washington (page 64) asked for provision to be made by Congress to enable him to conduct intercourse with foreign nations in a manner most conducive to public good. He adopted a firm policy of neutrality, and greatly embittered the Anti-Federalists by his refusal to aid the French revolutionists in their war against Great Britain; but consummated with the latter country the famous Jay Treaty. This spirit he embodied in his counsels that "nothing is more essential than that permanent, inveterate antipathies should be excluded and that in place of them just and amicable feelings toward all should be cultivated." His every act was regulated by the principle "that the great rule of conduct for us in regard to foreign nations is to have in extending our commer-

cial relations with them as little political connection as possible. Why by interweaving our destiny with that of any part of Europe entangle our peace and prosperity in the toils of European ambition, rivalship, interest, humor, or caprice?" So determined was the opposition against this policy that his famous proclamation of neutrality of April, 1793 (page 149), was denounced as "a royal edict and a daring assumption of power." Still Washington maintained this attitude even to the length of insisting upon the recall of M. Genet from America while using this country as a base and a means of making war upon Great Britain in that year. The seizure of American vessels by British cruisers fomented this opposition and Washington's act in closing the Jay Treaty exposed him to the severest censure.

Army.—Washington in his First Annual Address (page 57) urged attention to Army organization with the statement: "To be prepared for war is one of the most effectual means of preserving peace." He advocated the arming and disciplining of the people, the manufacture of military supplies, and the establisnment of troops. In a special message (page 52) he had already advised that the experience and training of the "well-instructed officers and soldiers of the late Army be utilized in the development of an efficient militia." This experience he speaks of as a "resource which is daily diminishing by death and other causes. To suffer this peculiar advantage to pass away unimproved would be to neglect an opportunity which will never again occur, unless, unfortunately, we should again be involved in a long and arduous war." In his Eighth Annual Address (page 194) he urges the institution of a military academy, and adds: "However pacific the general policy of a nation may be, it ought never to be without an adequate stock of military knowledge for emergencies. The art of war is at once comprehensive and complicated, it demands much previous study, and the possession of it in its most improved and perfect state is always of great moment to the security of a nation."

Education.—In his First Annual Address (page 58) Washington urges upon Congress the necessity of making provision for the promotion of science and literature. "Knowledge," he says, "is in every country the surest basis of public happiness." He suggests efficient patronage either by aiding seminaries already established or by the institution of a national university. In his Eighth Annual Address (page 194) he says: "True it is that our country, much to its honor, contains many seminaries of learning highly respectable and useful; but the funds upon which they rest are too narrow to command the ablest professors in the different departments of liberal knowledge for the institution contemplated, though they would be excellent auxiliaries." He lays particular stress upon the "education of youth in the science of government."

Veto Messages.—In the eight years of his administration Washington issued only two veto messages. The first on April 5, 1792 (page 116), refused sanction to an act regulating the apportionment of Representatives in the several states because it was contrary to the provisions of the Constitution. The second veto messa~e was the last message sent by Washington to Congress. It refused sanction to an act amending the military establishment because of its unfairness and injustice to the bodies of troops which it might affect (page 203).

Indian Affairs.—Washington's remarkable patience and good judgment were fully displayed in his treatment of the Indians in the uprisings that occurred among the Creeks, Wabash, Five Nations, Senecas, and Six Nations. In a special message upon treaties with the Indians (page 59) he maintains that a "due regard should be extended to these Indians whose happiness in the course of events so materially depends upon the national justice and humanity of the United States." Again (page 61), he declares that it is "important that all treaties and compacts formed by the United States with other nations, whether civilized or not, should be made with caution and executed with fidelity."

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Washington.—One of the Pacific coast states—nickname, "Chinook State." It extends from lat. 45° 40′ to 49° north, and from long. 117° to 124° 44′ west. It is bounded on the north by the Strait of San Juan de Fuca and British Columbia, on the east by Idaho, on the south by Oregon (partly separated by the Columbia River), and on the west by the Pacific Ocean. Area, 69,127 square miles. The Cascade Range traverses the State from north to south, west of the center. There are extensive forests, particularly in the western part, and the eastern portion produces large quantities of wheat. Gold and silver are also found in paying quantities. Salmon fishing and shipbuilding are important industries.

The country was visited as early as 1592. The mouth of the Columbia River was explored in 1792 by Captain Gray, and further explorations were conducted by Lewis and Clark in 1805. John Jacob Astor founded a trading post at the mouth of the Columbia River in 1811. The State was formed from part of the Oregon region, which was claimed by both England and America for many years. It was organized as a Territory by an act of Congress passed March 2, 1853, and admitted to the Union Nov. 11, 1889 (5460).

The last federal census gave the number of farms in the state as 66,288. In the preceding census, the figure was 56,192, with an average of 208½ acres to the farm and with 54% of the farm land classified as improved.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Wheat.....	2,329,000	37,982,000	$51,276,000
Hay.....	844,000	1,659,000*	30,360,000
Oats.....	323,000	15,052,000	10,837,000
Potatoes.....	56,000	8,680,000	8,246,000
Barley.....	110,000	3,883,000	3,883,000
Corn.....	78,000	2,808,000	3,510,000

*Tons.

Fruit-growing is prosecuted on a most extensive scale. In a recent year, 13,420,000 bushels of apples were produced, 423,000 bushels of peaches, 2,246,000 bushels of pears. Extensive systems of irrigation make possible much farming in the arid region east of the Cascade Mountains (see Irrigation). There are almost 10,000,000 acres of timber lands. (For the National Forests, see Forests, National.)

Most recent figures for the farm animals showed 303,000 horses, 20,000 mules, 228,000 milch cows, 307,000 other cattle, 780,000 sheep, 317,000 swine. As will be seen, sheep-raising is a most important activity; the last annual wool clip was estimated at more than five and a half million pounds.

The coal mines are productive, a recent annual coal output being more than 3,000,000 tons, which was below the normal. Gold, silver, copper, quarry products, cement, lead and zinc also are produced.

The fisheries, especially the salmon, have an annual output whose value runs into the millions, and there are more than 10,000,000 acres in the state oyster bed reserves.

In 1920, the population was 1,356,621. In the preceding census year it was 1,141,990. Of the latter, there were 256,241 foreign-born, including 39,482 Canadians, 29,388 Germans, 32,200 Swedes, 28,368 Norwegians, 19,430 English, 10,180 Irish, 10,961 Russians, 12,177 Japanese, 13,121 Italians, 12,745 Austrians. In that year, 53% of the population was urban. There are a number of Indian Reservations (see Indians).

Most recent educational statistics showed 363,812 children between the ages of 5 and 18, of whom 262,829 were enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 194,855. There were 1,849 male and 8,012 female teachers in the public schools. There were 293 public high schools with 803 male and 1,172 female teachers and with 15,171 male and 21,699 female students.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Washington having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 3,830. The amount of capital invested was $277,717,000, giving occupation to 78,387 persons, using material valued at $136,609,000, and turning out finished goods worth $245,327,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $63,207,000.

(See also "Fifty-four Forty or Fight"; Northwestern Boundary; Oregon.)

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Possessory claims in, convention with Great Britain regarding, 3380.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamations against, 4896, 5073, 5932.
Washington, The, seizure of, by British authorities, referred to, 4114.

Washington City.—The capital of the United States. It is situated in the District of Columbia, on the Potomac River, at the head of navigation, in latitude 38° 53′ N. and longitude 77° 1′ W. The site

for the capital was chosen in 1790 and the seat of government was established at Washington in 1800. Washington is one of the best planned cities in the world; in addition to the usual rectangular arrangements of streets it has a number of fine wide avenues radiating in all directions from both the Capitol and the White House. At their intersections are circles laid out as small parks and most are lined with pleasant shade trees. It contains the principal public buildings in which the business of the Government is transacted.

Besides the Capitol (*q. v.*) the city contains the official residence of the President, buildings devoted to the various Departments of Government, the Congressional Library, the Smithsonian Institution, National Museum, Naval Observatory, Corcoran Art Gallery, National Soldiers' Home, Washington Monument, and many other objects of national interest. The White House, or Presidential residence, was first occupied by John Adams in 1800. The public buildings were burned by the British in 1814, and more imposing ones erected subsequently. In 1920, the population was 437,571, as compared with 331,069 in 1910. Of the latter figure, 101,339 were negroes. (See District of Columbia and Capital of United States.)

Washington City (see also District of Columbia):
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International law, adoption of uniform code of, recommended by, 5513.
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Public health, recommendations of, for protection of, 5513.
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Steamship service, establishment of rapid, recommended by, 5491, 5511.

Weights and measures, report of, on, 5513.
International Marine Conference at, discussed, 5180, 5370, 5468, 5493, 5498, 5543.
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Opinion of Judge Brewer in Great Falls land case, referred to, 3072.
Plan to take, from Great Falls of Potomac, approved, 2750.
Woman labor in, 6983.

Washington City Canal, improvement of, referred to, 3579.

Washington City (D. C.), Capture of.—After the flight of the Americans from the field of Bladensburg Aug. 24, 1814, the British army advanced to the plain between the present Congressional Cemetery and the Capitol. Cockburn and Ross, with 200 men, rode into the city in the evening to destroy the public buildings. The unfinished Capitol, containing the Library of Congress, was fired. The President's house, the Treasury building, the arsenal, and barracks for 3,000 men were next burned. In a few hours nothing but the blackened walls remained of the public buildings, the Patent Office alone having been spared. Only such private property as was owned or occupied by persons offensive to the British was destroyed. The President and his chief advisers fled to different points in Virginia and Maryland.

Mrs. Madison, the wife of the President, when advised of the defeat at Bladensburg, set t away the silver plate and other valuables from the Presidential mansion and at great personal risk saved from destruction the full-length portrait of Gen. Washington by Gilbert Stuart, which now adorns the Blue Room of the White House. With her sister and brother-in-law she was then conveyed to a place of safety beyond the Potomac. Commodore Tingey, in command of the navy-yard, burned the property under his control to prevent its falling into the hands of the British. The bridge over the Potomac was also destroyed. The total value of property destroyed by British and Americans in Washington was estimated at

$2,000,000. On the night of the 25th Ross and Cockburn withdrew from Washington.

Washington Headquarters Association.—The purpose of this Association is to preserve the old mansion on 160th Street, near Amsterdam Avenue, New York City, which was at one time, in the War of the Revolution, the headquarters of Washington. The property is owned by the city and is under the care and direction of the Knickerbocker, Mary Washington, Colonial and Manhattan Chapters of the Daughters of the American Revolution. It is open daily to the public.

Washington Monument.—An obelisk-shaped tower of white marble erected at Washington, D. C., in honor of George Washington. The cornerstone was laid July 4, 1848, but soon the work languished and then stopped entirely. Work was resumed in 1876, and the monument was finally completed Dec. 6, 1884. It is 555 feet high and fifty-five feet square at its base. The interior walls are built of granite and contain many memorial stones from foreign nations. The entire cost of the monument was $1,187,710.

See photograph of, and appreciation, frontispiece, Vol. XVIII.

Washington Monument:
- Construction of, discussed and recommendations regarding, 4430, 4532, 4579.
- Dedication of, Government employees to participate in, 4879.

Washington Post, dispatches to, quoted, 6832, 6833, 6834.

Washington, Treaty of.—Many treaties have been negotiated at Washington, but the one usually referred to as the treaty of Washington was negotiated between the United States and Great Britain at that city in 1871. After thirty-four meetings commissioners of the United States and England concluded a treaty between the two countries to settle pending questions. It was ratified June 17, 1871, and proclaimed to be in force July 4.

To adjust the Alabama claims it was agreed to submit them to a tribunal of arbitration, to meet at Geneva, Switzerland, and to consist of members appointed by each of the parties and by three neutral nations. Concerning the difficulties with regard to the fishing privileges of the United States vessels on the coast of British America, the treaty adjusted the differences on the basis of the reciprocity treaty of 1854, giving to persons of each nation the right of fishing on the coasts of the other. There was a mutual concession of privileges, such as that of transportation from one place to another in one country across the territory of the other without the payment of duties. Lake Michigan, the lower course of the St. Lawrence, and certain rivers in Alaska were opened to the people of both nations. It was also agreed to submit the disputed boundary line between the British possessions and the State of Washington to the arbitration of the German emperor, who, on Oct. 21, 1872, rendered a decision awarding the island of San Juan and the group of which it forms a part to the United States. (See also Alabama Claims; Geneva Tribunal.)

Washington, Treaties of. (See also Alabama Claims; Ashburton Treaty):
- Of July 4, 1850, referred to, 2760.
- Of May 8, 1871—
  - Powers to be invited to accede to rules of neutrality in, 4462.
  - Proclamations regarding, 4179, 4227.
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Washington Turnpike Road Co., act authorizing subscription of stock in, vetoed, 1056.

Washington's Farewell Address to be read to Army, orders regarding, 3306.

Washita River, exploration of, 387.

Wasp, The.—An American warship of eighteen guns, built at Washington in 1806. Oct. 13, 1812, the *Wasp* left the Delaware for the West Indies, under Capt. Jacob Jones, with 137 men. Five days later she fell in with six merchantmen under convoy of the British brig *Frolic*, eighteen guns and 110 men. The *Wasp* attacked, and in less than an hour the *Frolic* struck her colors after a loss of 90 men. The fight was in a heavy sea. Within two hours the *Wasp* and its prize were captured by the British frigate *Poictiers*, seventy-four guns, and the Americans were sent to Bermuda as prisoners. In 1814 the United States built a naval vessel at Newburyport and christened it the *Wasp*. It was a ship-rigged sloop of war and carried twenty-two guns and 160 men. Leaving Portsmouth May 1, 1814, under Capt. Johnson Blakely, she ran into the English Channel to look for British merchantmen. June 28 she encountered the British sloop *Reindeer*, eighteen guns and 118 men. In less than half an hour of fierce fighting the *Reindeer* struck her colors, having sustained a loss of 25 killed and 42 wounded. The American loss was 27 in all. Sept. 1, after a fight of about two hours, the *Wasp* captured the British brig *Avon*, eighteen guns. Oct. 9, in lat. 18° 35′ north, long. 30° 10′ west, she spoke and boarded the Swedish brig *Adams* and took off Lieut. McKnight and a master's mate of the United States ship *Essex*, on their way from Brazil to England. The *Wasp* was never heard from again.

Wasp, The:
- Engagement of, with the *Frolic*, 506.
- Mentioned, 6318.
- Refused permission to enter ports of Paraguay by Brazilian blockade commander, 3883.

"Watchful Waiting."—A term used by President Wilson with reference to our attitude in the Mexican question in his administration, 7908.

Water Power and Water Supply:
- Forest reserves conserve, 6657.
- Full use of, by Government, necessary, 8405.
- Government control of, discussed, 6659.
- Monopoly of, danger of, 7154.
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Waterways Service, Inland and Coastwise. (See War Department.)

Wautauga Association.—June 2, 1769, a company of North Carolina hunters formed an organization to settle the territory to the west of the Cumberland Mountains, which had been opened by the treaty of Fort Stanwix in the previous year. Their settlements were on the Wautauga, one of the tributaries of the Tennessee River, within the limits of what is now the State of Tennessee. The settlers framed a code of laws, which was signed by each of them, and the body politic thus formed was called the Wautauga Association. The tyranny of Governor Tryon, of North Carolina, caused many of the independent-spirited settlers of that Colony to cast their lot with the Wautauga Association. In 1784, at a convention held in Jonesboro, a separate state government was organized under the name of Franklin. (See also Franklin.)

Waxhaw (S. C.) Massacre.—After the capture of Charlestown, Sir Henry Clinton sent a detachment of 300 men under Col. Tarleton to disperse Col. Buford's command of 380 men, who, hearing of the fall of Charleston, had retired to a point near the North Carolina line. May 29, 1780, Tarleton, having overtaken Buford at the Waxhaw River, made a furious charge, while the Americans were awaiting flags of conference, believing hostilities suspended. Many of the Americans threw down their arms and begged for quarter; 113 were killed on the spot, 150 so badly wounded that it was impossible to move them, and only 53 were taken prisoners. Col. Buford and about 100 infantry and a few horses escaped. The British lost but 5 killed and 15 wounded.

Ways and Means Committee, tariff report of, discussed, 8917.
Wea Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)
Wealth:
Accumulation of, incidental benefit to all, 6646.
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Malefactors of, difficulty of convicting, 7085, 7091.
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Weather Bureau.—Since 1870 the Federal Government has maintained a service having for its object the forecasting of weather conditions throughout the United States. Although originally designed for the benefit of navigation alone, an ever-broadening recognition of the practical utility of such a service has necessitated its continued extension in the interest of both agriculture and commerce. During the first twenty years of its development the work was conducted by the Signal Corps of the Army, under the direction and control of the War Department, but the demand for a strictly scientific bureau, unhampered by regulations of a military character, resulted in a reorganization of the service in 1891, and the establishment of the present Weather Bureau as a branch of the Department of Agriculture.

In the act providing for this re-organization, approved Oct. 1, 1890, the functions of the Bureau are thus summarized: "The Chief of the Weather Bureau, under the direction of the Secretary of Agriculture, shall have charge of forecasting the weather; the issue of storm warnings; the display of weather and flood signals for the benefit of agriculture, commerce, and navigation; the gaging and reporting of rivers; the maintenance and operation of seacoast telegraph lines, and the collection and transmission of marine intelligence for the benefit of commerce and navigation; the reporting of temperature and rainfall conditions for the cotton interests; the display of frost, cold-wave, and other signals; the distribution of meteorological information in the interest of agriculture and commerce, and the taking of such meteorological observations as may be necessary to establish and record the climatic conditions of the United States, or are essential for the proper execution of the foregoing duties." The Bureau also makes investigations in aerology in aid of aviation, in seismology and in volcanology. The Chief of the Bureau is appointed by the President, by and with the consent of the Senate, and his annual salary is $5,000.

Observations and Forecasts.—To the general public the Weather Bureau is probably best known through the medium of its daily forecasts and weather maps. These forecasts are based upon simultaneous observations of local weather conditions taken daily at 8 a. m. and 8 p. m. seventy-fifth meridian time, at about 200 regular observing stations scattered throughout the United States and the West Indies, and upon similar reports received daily from various points in other parts of the Northern Hemisphere. Each of the Weather Bureau stations is operated by one or more trained observers, and is equipped with mercurial barometers, thermometers, wind vanes, rain and snow gauges, and anemometers, and many of them with sunshine recorders, barographs, thermographs, and other devices

which make a continuous automatic record of the local weather conditions and changes. The results of the twice-daily observations are immediately telegraphed to the central office at Washington, D. C., where they are charted for study and interpretation by experts trained to forecast the weather conditions that may be expected to prevail during the following thirty-six to forty-eight hours.

A complete telegraphic report includes the following data: Temperature, pressure (reduced to sea level), precipitation, direction of wind, state of weather, current wind velocity, maximum or minimum temperature since last observation, and kind and amount of clouds, with the direction of their movement. From these data the forecaster, by comparison with preceding reports, is able to trace the paths of storm areas from the time of their appearance to the moment of observation, and approximately determine and forecast their subsequent courses and the occurrence of other weather conditions.

Storm warnings are displayed at nearly 300 points along the Atlantic, Pacific, and Gulf coasts and the shores of the Great Lakes, including every port and harbor of any considerable importance, and so nearly perfect has this service become that scarcely a storm of marked danger to maritime interests has occurred for years for which ample warnings have not been issued from twelve to twenty-four hours in advance. The reports from the West Indies are especially valuable in this connection, as they enable the Bureau to forecast with great accuracy the approach of those destructive hurricanes which, during the period from July to October, are liable to sweep the Gulf and Atlantic Coasts. Warnings of cold waves are almost equally valuable and are issued from twenty-four to thirty-six hours in advance. The warnings of frosts and freezing temperatures are also of immense value to agriculture in general, and in particular to fruit, sugar, tobacco, and market-gardening interests. The states in the extreme South are especially dependent upon this service. Dwellers in the valleys of rivers subject to floods are aided by flood forecasts and instances are known where the Bureau's forecast of a flood gave a week in which to remove livestock and other movable goods from the threatened region.

There are about 800 whole time employees of the Bureau, located at some 200 stations. Special reports are received also from several hundred special observers and there are also more than 4,000 local cooperative observers.

The Weather Bureau's forecasts of heavy storms, cold waves, severe frosts and heat waves are almost always accurate; the least successful forecasts are those of rain.

In addition to Washington, there are five central forecast centres—Chicago, New Orleans, San Francisco, Denver and Portland (Oregon). Each of these issues independent forecasts.

The Bureau issues a number of publications of general and of scientific interest pertaining to its activities.

Weather Bureau:
Discussed, 5979, 6171, 6347.
Establishment of, in Department of Agriculture, recommended, 5487.

Weather Flags.—There are five forms of flags designated by the Weather Bureau (q. v.) to communicate its weather forecasts:

Square White Flag—Fair weather. *Square blue flag*—Rain or snow. *Square white and blue flag*—Local rain or snow. *Triangular black flag*—Placed above any of the foregoing, this temperature flag indicates warmer weather; when placed below, colder weather; when not displayed, no change in temperature is forecasted. *White flag with black square in center*—Cold wave.

Whistle Signals.—A warning blast of about fifteen seconds' duration is first blown, to attract attention. After this warning, blasts of about five seconds' duration are blown first to indicate the weather, and blasts of about two seconds' duration follow to indicate the temperature, as follows: *One long*—fair weather; *two long*—rain or snow; *three long*—local rain or snow; one *short*—lower temperature; *two short*—higher temperature; *three short*—cold wave.

Small craft, storm and hurricane warnings.—Red triangular pennant—moderately strong winds. *Red flag with black centre*—violent storm. White pennant above this flag indicates that the storm will come from the northwest; red pennant above, from the northeast; white pennant below, from the southwest; red pennant below, from the southeast. *Two red flags with black centres*—Hurricane. At night a red lantern indicates easterly winds and a white below it, westerly.

Signals for Great Lakes only.—As above, except that at night *two red lanterns* indicate a violent storm from the northeast; *one red lantern*—a violent storm from the southeast; *a white lantern below a red*, a violent storm from the southwest; *a white lantern above a red*, a violent storm from the northwest; *a white lantern between two red lanterns*, a hurricane.
(See plate under Flags.)

Webb-Kenyon Law. (See Prohibition, National.)

Webster-Ashburton Treaty. (See Great Britain, Treaties with; and facsimiles, opposite 1987 and 1988.)

Webster-Hayne Debate.—A debate in the Senate in 1830 between Daniel Webster and Robert Y. Hayne on Constitutional interpretation. (See Nullification and illustration opposite 1115.)

Weehawken, The, engagement of, with the *Fingal*, referred to, 3392.

Weeks Law. (See Forest Reserves and Forests, National.)

Weighers and Gaugers, compensation of, referred to, 2723.

Weights and Measures:
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International movement for reform of system of, referred to, 3592.
Obligatory use of metric system of, referred to, 4408.
Referred to, 166.
Report of International American Conference on, referred to, 5513.
Set of, for each State, 1477.
Uniformity of, necessity for, 58, 60, 75, 100, 561, 879.

Weldon Railroad (Va.), Seizure and Destruction of.—June 21, 1864, during Grant's

operations against Petersburg and Richmond, an attempt was made to capture the Petersburg and Weldon Railroad, an important supply line for the Confederate army. The Second and Sixth Corps, under Generals Birney and Wright, cut the telegraph wires three miles south of Petersburg, but were repulsed with a loss of seven guns and many prisoners. Another and successful effort was made on Aug. 18, 1864. Lee had drawn heavily from his forces in Petersburg to resist a threatened attack on the north side of Richmond. The Fifth Army Corps, under Gen. Warren, moved from its position at the extreme left of Grant's army and struck the railroad four miles below Petersburg. Mahone's division of Lee's army tried to force Warren back, but he held his position, with a loss, after three days' fighting, of 4,543 men. By the 24th seven miles of railroad were destroyed. Aug. 25 the Second Army Corps and Gregg's cavalry, while at Reams Station destroying the railroad, were assailed. The fighting was desperate and a part of the Union line gave way after losing 5 guns and 2,400 men, three-fourths of whom were missing.

Welland Canal, controversy with Canada respecting tolls upon, discussed, 5211, 5213, 5675, 5678, 5749.

Retaliatory measures proclaimed by President Benj. Harrison, 5725.

Referred to, 5749.

Revoked by proclamation, 5812.

Settlement of, referred to, 5869.

West India Company.—In 1621 the States-General of the United Netherlands chartered the Dutch West India Company. Among other important grants it received from the Government the exclusive right of trading with a large part of the coasts of America and Africa, planting colonies building forts, employing soldiers and fleets, making treaties, and attacking the colonies and commerce of Spain and Portugal. This company planted the colony of New Netherlands in the United States, as well as the Dutch settlements in Brazil, Guiana, the West Indies, and on the Gold Coast of Africa. In 1674 the company relinquished New Netherlands to the English. Its powerful fleets took many rich prizes on the coasts of Spanish and Portuguese America. In 1624 the projector of the Dutch West India Company obtained a charter from Gustavus Adolphus, of Sweden, granting special trading privileges in America. Under its auspices settlements were made along the Delaware River.

West Indies.—The area of the West Indies is about 92,000 square miles. The archipelago, however, is much scattered, extending from north of Florida to the coasts of South America, from 10° to 28° N. latitude and from 58° to beyond 85° W. longitude. There are three independent republics, Cuba, with the Isle of Pines; Haiti and Santo Domingo. The United States possessions are Porto Rico and the Virgin Islands.

British possessions cover about 12,630 square miles, including the Bahamas; Jamaica, with the Turks and Caicos Islands; the Windward Islands, including Grenada; St. Lucia; St. Vincent and Grenadines; Trinidad and Tobago; the Leeward Islands; St. Kitts (St. Christopher); Nevis, Anguilla, Dominica, Montserrat.

French possessions, with an area of more than 1,000 square miles and a population of more than 400,000, comprise Guadeloupe and dependencies and Martinique. France and the Netherlands share possession of St. Martin. Other Dutch possessions comprise Curaçoa, Aruba, Bonaire, St. Eustache, Saba. Several small islands, finally, belong to Venezuela.

For detailed information, consult the articles on the more important of the islands listed above; also Atlantic Islands.

West Indies (See also Cuba; Porto Rico; Isle of Pines; Haiti; Santo Domingo; Bahama Islands; Virgin Islands; Grenada; Trinidad; Tobago; Guadeloupe; Martinique):

Cession of islands in, to United States, treaty regarding, 3778, 3779.

Discussed, 3796, 3886.

Commerce of United States, destruction of, by pirates in, discussed, 765.

Commercial relations with, 818.

Armed vessels stationed for protection of, by, 1476.

Naval force of United States in, 650, 875, 2677.

Piracy in, 758, 765, 984, 3777.

Value of, as naval outposts, discussed, 3777. (See also St. John Island; St. Thomas Island.)

Vessels from Montserrat Island, duties on, suspended by proclamation, 4871.

West Point, N. Y.:

Military Acadamy at. (See Military Academy.)

Military Department of, discontinued, 4713.

West Virginia.—One of the central group of states. Nickname, "The Pan Handle State"; motto, "Montani semper liberi" ("Mountaineers are always freemen"). It extends from lat. 37° 12′ to 40° 38′ north, and from long. 77° 40′ to 82° 35′ west, an area of 24,170 square miles. West Virginia is bounded on the northwest by Ohio (separated by the Ohio River), on the north by Maryland and Pennsylvania (separated from the former by the Potomac), on the east and south by Virginia, and on the west by Kentucky (separated by the Big Sandy River). The state is hilly or mountainous and contains abundance of timber and coal, being, in fact, one of the leading states in the production of the latter. Of the manufacturing interests the iron and steel industry, confined almost entirely to Wheeling, is the most important.

West Virginia was originally a part of Virginia. When that state adopted the ordinance of secession, April 17, 1861, many of the people of the western and northwestern parts of the state claimed that they were not to be bound by that action. A convention was called in 1861, which resolved not to recognize the State officers who were in opposition to the National Government. This convention elected Francis H. Pierpoint governor of Virginia and called a legislature to meet at Wheeling. It also voted to erect a new state, called Kanawha, and the legislature which was called by the convention voted to recognize the new state. It was admitted to the Union as the State of West Virginia June 19, 1863 (page 3368).

The 1920 federal census gave the population as 1,463,701. Of these, 61,906 were foreign-born, including 14,147 Italians, and 86,345 were negroes. About one-fourth of the population was urban.

The most recent educational statistics put the number of children between 5 and 18 at 433,832, with a school enrollment of 346,256 and an average daily attendance of 256,479. There were 3,225 male and 7,996 female teachers. There were 164 public high schools, with 286 male and 465 female teachers and 6,857 male and 9,507 female students.

The 1920 census showed 87,289 farms in the state, a decrease of 10% from 1910. The average acreage was 110, with 60% of the farm land improved and an average value per farm of $5,687, of which $4,706 was represented by land and buildings. The average value of farm land was $32.11 an acre. Seventy-three per cent of the farms were reported free from mortgage, as compared with 87% in 1910, although in the former year 13% of the farms were not reported on this topic.

Recent figures for the annual agricultural product included:—

Corn, 20,128,000 bush.; Wheat, 3,215,000 bush.; Hay, 870,000 short tons; Irish Potatoes, 6,650,000 bush.; Tobacco, 6,000,000 pounds; Oats, 4,620,000 bush.

West Virginia's deposits of coal, petroleum and natural gas have placed the value of its total annual mineral output close to that of Pennsylvania, the leading state. In 1918, the coal production reached 80,300,000 long tons, although it has since fallen to a norm of some 72,000,000. Recent petroleum figures show annual output of some 8,000,000 barrels and more than $50,000,000 worth of natural gas. The coal fields cover almost 20,000 square miles and some 50,000 men are normally employed in the mines.

The last federal census of manufactures gave the following summary of the manufacturing industries of the state:—Number of establishments, 2,785; Persons engaged, 93,688 (Wage-earners, 83,036); Capital, $339,189,678; Salaries, annual, $17,686,073; Wages, annual, $101,840,420; Cost of Materials, annual, $270,940,596; Value of Products, annual, $471,970,877.

Of the wage-earners, 10% were female. There were 8 establishments employing over 1,000 wage-earners each and 21, from 500 to 1,000. There were 94 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each. The leading industries were as follows:—

Industry	*Wage-Earners*	*Products*
Cars, Shop Construction	11,609	$28,248,000
Glass	11,668	42,730,000
Iron and Steel Works	11,630	85,036,000
Leather	1,520	23,827,000
Lumber Products	13,665	46,314,000

West Virginia (see also Clarksburg):
Admission of, into Union, proclamation of, 3368.
Facsimile of, 3257.
Domestic violence by miners in, protection against, 8988.
Unlawful combinations in, discussed and proclamation regarding, 4399, 4424.

Western Expansion. (See Expansion; also illustrations opposite 843, 1083, 1777.)

Western European Division, State Department.—This division was organized in 1909 by Secretary of State Knox. It has charge of other than administrative matters in the British Empire, Austria, Belgium, Czecho-Slovakia, Denmark, France and Morocco, Germany, Hungary, Italy, Liberia, Luxemburg, Netherlands, Norway, Portugal, Spain, Sweden and Switzerland. The Division is under the immediate supervision of the Undersecretary of State.

Western Reserve.—The charters of most of the original Colonies granted territory extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. After the Revolution the unsettled western portio s were ceded to the General Government. When Connecticut made her cession the state reserved a tract of land between the forty-first parallel of latitude and Lake Erie as a foundation for her school fund. It extended 120 miles westward from the Pennsylvania boundary line, and contained 3,666,291 acres, afterwards included in Ohio. An act of Congress in 1800 authorized the President to deed to Connecticut the title to this Western Reserve, to quiet titles of settlers, on condition that the state surrender all claims to its jurisdiction. On the admission of Ohio as a state, Connecticut lost all interest in the territory. The tract was settled largely by Connecticut peopl-.

Western Reserve, emigrating to. (See illustration opposite 1083.)
Western Territory, instructions to governor of, regarding employment of militia against Indians, 6306.
Westward Ho!, illustration opposite 1777.
Whale Fisheries, papers for vessels engaged in, referred to, 1774.
Wheat:
Control discussed, 8767.
Director. (See United States Wheat Director.)
Imports and exports of, discussed, 8918.
Prices of —
Discussed, 8580.
Fixed, 8346, 8457, 8577.
Reduction in, referred to, 8940.
Use of, economy in, necessity and regulations for, 8432.
Value of, discussed, 9025.

Whig.—A name taken by the political party in the American Colonies which favored the Revolution, as opposed to the Tories, who advocated adherence to the mother country. The name was first used in Great Britain to designate those Scotch Covenanters whose rebellion in 1699 led to the fixing the name upon any opponents of the court. The term as generally used in America, however, refers to the political party in the United States which began to develop toward the end of John Quincy Adams's administration, favoring a national bank, a protective tariff, a system of internal improvements, and in general holding to a latitudinarian construction of the Constitution. They were at first called National Republicans, and those who opposed them were known as Democratic Republicans. After the defeat of Adams, in 1828, Henry Clay became the leader of the National Republicans.

The party took the name of Whig in 1834, and in 1836, failing to unite on any

candidate of their own for the Presidency, Martin Van Buren was elected by the opposition. In 1840 the Whigs elected William Henry Harrison. After the death of Harrison they quarreled with Vice-President Tyler, who had succeeded Harrison as President and had vetoed the fiscal measures passed by the Whig Congress. In 1844 they nominated Henry Clay for the Presidency, but he was defeated by James K. Polk. The annexation of Texas, the Mexican War, the Wilmot Proviso, and other phases of the slavery question caused serious dissensions in the Whig party, but they preserved their power for another term by nominating a military candidate in the person of Zachary Taylor. He was elected, but the disintegration of the Whig party had begun.

Many of the northern Whigs became Free Soilers, and by 1856 Republicans, while many temporarily joined the American or Know-Nothing party. Large numbers of the southern Whigs became Democrats. The factions of the old party united and nominated Winfield Scott for President in 1852, but he was defeated by Franklin Pierce. A small number of Whigs formed the Constitutional Union party and nominated Bell and Everett in 1860. Besides those already mentioned, the chief leaders of the party in the north were were Webster, Winthrop, Choate, Seward, Greeley, and Weed; in the south, Mangum, Badger, Bell, Berrien, Forsyth, Stephens, Toombs, Prentiss, and Crittenden, and in the west, Giddings, Ewing and Corwin.

Whisky. (See Liquors—Malt, etc.)

Whisky Insurrection.—A revolt against the enforcement of a Federal excise law by the people of four counties of western Pennsylvania.

The first bill for an excise law was beaten in Congress June 21, 1790. The project was revived the following year, and the first excise law was passed March 3, 1791. The Senators from Pennsylvania were instructed by their legislature to oppose the law, "established on principles subversive of peace, liberty, and the rights of citizens." In Pennsylvania the law was violently opposed by one Bradford and his followers and condemned by more peaceable and reflecting citizens, following the lead of Albert Gallatin, afterwards Secretary of the Treasury, minister to France, envoy extraordinary to England, etc., and William Findley and John Smiley, members of Congress. Numerous meetings were held to protest against this law, which bore with particular force upon the settlers of western Pennsylvania because of their isolated position, distance from the seaboard, and the scarcity of money in that region. In response to repeated protests Congress on May 8, 1792, passed an act reducing the duties on whisky, but, on account of the threatening attitude of some of the settlers, empowering the President to use militia in suppressing disturbances within a state, the agents of the Government sent to collect the excise having been maltreated and driven from the country and the marshals refused office room and assistance in serving writs, President Washington, by a proclamation of Sept. 15, 1792 (116), called upon the citizens to abandon their unlawful proceedings. Instead of complying, resistance to the service of writs continued and the officers were tarred and feathered. Aug. 1, 1794, a mass meeting of 7,000 armed insurgents was held on Braddock's Field, a county judge presiding, with Albert Gallatin as secretary and Bradford as the leading spirit. An emergency had now arisen. Governor Mifflin, of Pennsylvania, having declined to take the initiative, a certificate of the existence of an insurrection was obtained from a Federal judge, and on Aug. 7, 1794, President Washington again called upon the insurgents to disperse and retire peaceably to their homes on or before Sept. 1, 1794 (150). This warning was unheeded and was followed by a third proclamation on Sept. 25, 1794 (153). A requisition for 15,000 militia was issued to the governors of Pennsylvania, Virginia, Maryland, and New Jersey. A Federal commission of three and a State commission of two preceded the troops with offers of amnesty on full submission. Bradford urged armed resistance, Gallatin counseled submission. Washington accompanied the troops, which were in command of Governor Lee, of Virginia, as far as Carlisle. Alexander Hamilton, then Secretary of the Treasury, accompanied the expedition to the scene of disorder. The troops arrived in the rebellious district early in November. After giving the people time to obey the President's proclamation, Lee's force arrested many of those who failed to accept the proffered amnesty. Bradford and the more violent leaders escaped. Those captured were tried, convicted, and later pardoned by the President. The first show of Federal force had suppressed the insurrection. (See illustration opposite 198.)

Whisky Insurrection (see also Pennsylvania, insurrections in):
Discussed, 154, 160, 162.
Pardon granted insurgents, 173.
Referred to, 176.
Proclamations against, 116, 150, 153.

Whisky Ring.—A conspiracy of distillers and United States officials formed in St. Louis, Mo., in 1872 to defraud the Government of internal-revenue taxes. By 1874 the ring had attained national proportions, with branches in Milwaukee, Chicago, Peoria, St. Louis, Cincinnati, New Orleans, San Francisco, and Washington. Distillers who refused to enter the combination were trapped into technical violations of the revenue laws, and when made liable to seizure they were given their choice between ruin and surrender to the ring. The combination became so powerful that when Secretary Bristow ordered a transfer of supervisors, which would have thrown the ring into confusion, their agents at Washington procured a countermand of the order from President Grant. After diligent effort evidence was obtained against the distillers and revenue agents. Upon this evidence the Government seized $3,500,000 worth of property and procured indictments against 238 persons. It was shown that the Treasury had been defrauded of $1,650,000 between July 1, 1874, and May 1, 1875. When the papers were laid before President Grant he indorsed them with orders to "let no guilty man escape." The most important convictions were those of John A. Joyce, special revenue agent; John McDonald, supervisor, and William O. Avery, chief clerk in the Treasury Department.

White House, The.—The site for the erection of the White House, or the "President's Palace," as it was termed on some of the earlier maps, was selected by President Washington and General L'Enfant when they laid out the city of Washington in 1792. The corner stone was placed in that year.

The plans were procured by competition, which gave the award to James Hoban, a distinguished young architect from Dublin, afterward identified for many years with

the architectural work of the capital city. By the architects of today his design is considered to surpass anything of a similar style since constructed in this country. The White House was so called after the home of Martha Washington in Virginia, the name being particularly appropriate, because of the fact that the free-stone of the edifice is painted white.

According to the original plan, the building was 160 feet long. It is built in the English Renaissance style. The North and South porches, constructed from designs made by Latrobe in 1803, were added twenty-five years after the first occupancy of the house; and in Jefferson's time and under his direction, terraces were built extending 150 feet east and west of the mansion. The West Terrace, enclosed in glass and otherwise disguised, became in time the Conservatory so dear to the heart of the Washington sight-seer. The East Terrace was removed about the time of the Civil War, but, happily, both of these were restored and beautified during the general reconstruction of the house in 1902.

The White House, when President Adams came to take possession of it in 1800, was neither finished nor furnished, and its surroundings were rough and unattractive, little or no effort having been made to reclaim the adjacent country from muddy and ragged woodland. From time to time Congress made small appropriations for the adornment of the Executive Mansion, and this money was spent more or less wisely by the several administrations in their efforts to make the official residence comfortable. An appropriation of fifty thousand dollars was made to President Madison after the fire of 1814, during the occupation of Washington by the British, for the purpose of refurnishing; but despite the expenditure of more than two million dollars upon the furnishing and decorating of the building during the first three-quarters of a century of its existence, it contained but few articles of value at the time of the remodelling under President Roosevelt. President Roosevelt also restored the official title "White House" to the edifice, which had been called for several previous administrations merely the "Executive Mansion."

It was originally intended that the public offices should be separate from the President's home; and previously to 1814, the Executive Departments occupied small detached buildings in the White House grounds. But of necessity the President's privacy was invaded by the business of his office, until finally, during the Civil War, President Lincoln set aside the second story of the East Wing for official business purposes. This invasion limited the accommodations for comfortable living and introduced a degree of publicity into the family life of the Chief Executive which was far from agreeable. But these and many other discomforts were at last removed in 1902-3 by the construction of the new office building and by the remodelling of the entire old building. There is now little business of an official nature conducted in the house proper, and the East Wing has been reclaimed for domestic purposes. With the exception of the outside walls, scarcely any part of the building has been left unchanged. The old flooring, long in a dangerous condition, has been replaced by new, supported upon steel beams. The latest improvements in heating, lighting, and plumbing have supplanted the old-fashioned arrangements tolerated by many administrations. In this process, it is to be regretted that many nooks and crannies of historic interest have been obliterated, but it is comforting to know that the alterations will preserve in good condition and for a much longer period the main structure and the chief beauties of the old house.

The East Room.—In viewing this magnificent apartment it is difficult to realize that it was at one time used by Mrs. John Adams as a drying-room for the family linen. The East Room was not finished until 1836, and a bare, bleak place it must have been in those early days! In former times state banquets were held there, but in more recent years it has been used chiefly for public receptions. During the administration of President Arthur this room was redecorated and refurnished, and afterward no changes of importance were made until 1902, when, with the rest of the building, it underwent almost complete transformation. Before this period the walls were hung with historical portraits, among them the Gilbert Stuart portrait of Washington, saved from the fire of 1814 by Mrs. Madison; but these were removed, as were also the pillars and beams of the old room, to give place to the present beautiful scheme of decoration. The walls and ceilings are now of white; the spaces over the doors and windows contain low-relief panels, each illustrating one of the fables of Æsop. The ceiling is most elaborate, but of delicate design; from each of its three panels hang the splendid cut-glass chandeliers, which have taken the place of the former larger, but less artistic ones. Four beautiful mantels of colored marbles are features of the recent remodelling. The draperies are of rich yellow silk.

The Blue Room.—It is in this famous apartment that the President receives his guests upon state occasions. The room is considered the handsomest in the house in point of decoration, and also in its beautiful proportions. The floor is a fine, highly polished parquetry, and the walls are covered with a heavy steel-blue silk, with yellow embroideries at the ceiling and wainscot. In the pattern of this embroidery and in the decoration of the ceiling and of the window hangings, the star is used with graceful effect. Each of the three windows is surmounted by a golden eagle. A feature of the room is the fine marble mantel with its supports representing sheaves of arrows tipped with gold bronze. When receiving in the Blue Room, the presidential party stands in front of the windows, but formerly it occupied the north end of the room. A heavy rope of silk encloses a passageway for the procession of guests, who must pass from the Red Room into the presence of the host, and thence into the Green Room. This change is one of the many that were brought about by the re-arrangement of the entire premises. During the administration of John Adams, the Blue Room was used as a sort of vestibule, its convenient location making it available for this purpose.

The Red Room.—In early times this was the anteroom to the Library and the Cabinet Room. It adjoins the State Dining Room, and by recent changes has been turned into a smoking room, except when it is required for service on receiving days. It is then used as formerly, in conjunction with the series of state parlors. Its walls are covered with dark red velvet and are hung with historical portraits. Its marble mantel is one of those which formerly adorned the State Dining Room,—the other being placed in the Green Room.

The Green Room.—In previous days the Green Room was the family dining-room. The present Private Dining Room was then

used for state dinners. As in the Blue Room, the walls of the Green Room are hung with velvet; here, however, the color is an exquisite silvery green. Some of the original paintings which are reproduced in the White House Gallery of Portraits of the Presidents also adorn the walls of this room.

State and Private Dining Rooms.—The State Dining Room was enlarged in 1902 by the addition of a corridor from which the private stairway led. This necessitated the removal of that portion of the stairs. The room now measures forty by fifty feet and will accommodate as many as one hundred guests at table. The walls are of panelled oak, and the window draperies of heavy green velvet. Flemish tapestries of the sixteenth century are a feature of the room, which is further decorated by trophies of the chase in American hunting-grounds arranged around the beautifully carved cornice. The furniture is of red mahogany; it includes two tables,—the larger crescent in shape, and the smaller a rounded oblong.

An interesting feature of the furnishings of the State Dining Room is the complete service of china and cut glass, manufactured from special designs made exclusively for the White House and selected by Mrs. Roosevelt from a number submitted to her for approval. The design is simple but rich in effect, and the china is of the purest texture, the whole having been very costly. The glass, which includes many pieces, is of the best American cut.

The Private Dining Room has been remodelled in a style essentially colonial, with an attractive color scheme of ivory white and red. The ceiling is domed and the window hangings are of red velvet. The furniture in this apartment harmonizes with the general plan of decoration, it also being distinctly colonial in design.

The Library.—The room, which is oval in shape, is situated on the second story of the Executive Mansion and was once used as the President's office, but is now converted into a private sitting room. It was during President Fillmore's administration that the Library was first planned, an appropriation being made for that purpose. The low bookcases lining the walls contain over seven thousand volumes, principally literature of a historical and classical character, and chiefly of Mrs. Fillmore's own selection. She greatly deplored the lack of books in the White House and urged the need of a more extensive Library. However, it did not progress as it should have done, and is not catalogued.

The Executive Office.—From the time of President Lincoln's administration, the business of the White House began to encroach seriously upon the living quarters. The discomfort and inconvenience resulting from this combination of public and private life under one roof—and that a roof of very limited dimensions—had long been realized. Plans to relieve the situation were occasionally brought forward, but nothing was accomplished until 1902, when the reconstruction of the entire establishment took place. It was then that the one-storied and basement building was erected at the end of the West Terrace for the accommodation of the Executive Offices. The architects have placed the structure most effectively in its relation to its surroundings. It contains a Reception Room, the President's suite of rooms, the offices of the President's Secretary and Assistant Secretary, telegraph and telephone rooms and several other offices. The building is comparatively small and will probably give place to a larger one in the course of time. (See illustrations opposite pages 166, 256, 811, 900, 1211, 1649, 1809, 6046.)

White House:
Completion and furnishing of, 595.
Improvement of, 808.
Restoration of, 6729, 6739.

White Leagues referred to, 4251. (See also Klu-Klux-Klan.)

White Plains (N. Y.), Battle of.—After the battle of Harlem Heights, in which Washington was enabled to maintain his ground in the face of the British attack, Gen. Howe's war ships advanced up the East River and landed troops at Frogs Point (now Throggs Neck). His purpose was to gain a position in Washington's rear and thus cut him off from communication with his army outside of New York. About 4,000 British were sent to dislodge some 1,400 Americans who were intrenched on Chatterton Hill. After a short and sharp skirmish the Americans fell back in good order to the main body of the army, having lost but little more than half as many as their opponents. The American loss is variously stated at from 125 to 200, while the lowest official estimate of the British loss places it at 231. The following night Washington retired to a much stronger position about five miles north and Howe withdrew to Dobbs Ferry.

White Slavery.—A term applied to the enticing and incarceration of girls for immoral purposes. Exposures in Great Britain, France and the United States led to an international conference in Paris in 1902, which resulted in a treaty, afterwards ratified by nearly all the civilized governments. In March, 1910, Congress adopted what was known as the Bennett Law, making the importation of women for immoral purposes a penal offense, and, in June, 1910, Congress adopted what was known as the Mann Law, making interstate transportation of women for immoral purposes a penal offense. The constitutionality of the Mann Law was vigorously attacked, but was sustained by the Court.

White Slave Trade, suppression of, 7438.

Whitehall, N. Y., proclamation granting privileges of other ports to, 2540.

Whitman National Forest enlarged, 8219.

Wichita Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Wife-Beaters, corporal punishment suggested for, 6905.

Wilderness (Va.), Battle of.—The rank of lieutenant-general was revived on March 2, 1864, and on the 9th of that month it was conferred upon Gen. Grant, who was given the command, under the President, of all the armies of the United States. The plan of campaign agreed upon between Grant and Sherman was to make a simultaneous advance against Lee's army in Virginia and that of Johnston in Georgia. Meade was left in control of the army of the Potomac and Sheridan placed in command of the cavalry in Virginia. Gen. B. F. Butler was made commander of the Army of the James, consisting of 38,648 men and 90 guns. May 4, 1864, Grant crossed the Rapidan with the Army of the Potomac, aggregating on May 1, according to the report of the Secretary of War, 120,380 in men and 316 guns. The Ninth Corps, 20,780

in number, was subsequently added. Lee lay on the south bank of the Rapidan with 63,984 men. The Confederate position was in the midst of a wilderness of scraggy oak, sassafras, hazel, and pine. It is a region of worn-out tobacco fields, and lies directly west of the battlefield of Chancellorsville. It was not Grant's intention to fight Lee there, but the Confederate attack early on the 5th compelled it. Lee gained ground in the two days' fighting. The battle was a bloody bush fight. More than 200,000 men fought in a vast jungle. Grant's loss amounted to over 20,000, of whom 5,000 were made prisoners. The Confederate loss was about 10,000. Grant now resolved to turn Lee's left flank and put his army between the latter and Richmond. On the night of the 7th the Federal army took up the march toward Spottsylvania Court-House. On the morning of the 8th of May the men of the opposing forces arrived almost at the same moment at the Court-House. Then occurred the great battle of Spottsylvania (q. v.). (See illustration opposite 3353.)

"Wild Cat."—The currency issued by a "Wild Cat Bank." (See "Wild Cat Banking.") During Jackson's administration and the period following, up to the institution of the National Bank System by Congress, state banks and private banks issued paper money with but little security back of them—practically mere promises to pay. This lack of soundness and stability in the banking methods of the time worked great injury to the commercial interests in the United States, and greatly retarded progress. The approbrious name "Wild Cat Banking" was applied by those seeking to reform the banking method.

Wildfire, The, capture of, by the *Mohawk,* 3124.

Wilkes's Exploring Expedition, expenditures of publication of, referred to, 3068.

Willamette Valley, etc., Wagon Road Co., lands granted to Oregon for, referred to, 4665.

William I., Emperor of Germany, death of, referred to, 5367.

William, The, captured with African negroes on board, 3126.

William and Francis, The, satisfaction to be allowed by Great Britain for detention of, 2111.

Williamsburg (Va.), Battle of.—As soon as it was discovered that the Confederates had withdrawn from Yorktown (May 5, 1862), a column was sent in pursuit. It came up with the retreating rear guard at Williamsburg. The Confederates had been reenforced from Johnston's army at Richmond. Longstreet's division, having passed beyond the town, retraced its steps to resist the attack. Hooker, of Heintzelman's division, and Smith, of Keyes's, bore the brunt of the assault, fighting from morning till late in the afternoon, vainly calling for reenforcements. The arrival of Kearny's division about 4 P. M. caused the Confederates to retire toward Richmond. The Federal loss was 2,228 men, of whom 456 were killed. The Confederate loss was 1,560, of whom 288 were killed.

Williamson's Farm (S. C.), Battle of.—One of the minor skirmishes of the Revolutionary War in the South and the first disaster to the British arms after the capture of Charleston, July 12, 1780, Capt Houk, with 115 British and Tories, was sent from the garrison at Rocky Mount to collect militia and drive back the Americans. Thomas Sumter, with 75 men, surprised and captured them. Capt. Houk was killed in the fight.

Wilmington, The, attempts of, to silence batteries at Cardenas, Cuba, 6302, 6316.

Wilmot Proviso.—President Polk, in a special message Aug. 8, 1846 (2309), made a request of Congress for money to adjust the boundary between Mexico and the United States by the purchase of certain Mexican territory outside of Texas. In accordance with this request a bill was introduced into the House appropriating $2,000,000 for the purpose. David Wilmot, a Democrat from Pennsylvania, offered an amendment which provided "that neither slavery nor involuntary servitude shall ever exist in any part of said territory, except for crime, whereof the party shall first be duly convicted." This was the Wilmot Proviso. The bill as amended passed the House, but failed in the Senate. Early the next year another bill passed the House, appropriating $3,000,000 for the same purpose, with the Wilmot proviso, but the amendment was omitted in the Senate.

Wilson, Woodrow.—1913-1921.

Thirty-second Administration—Democratic.

Vice-President—Thomas R. Marshall.

Secretary of State—
William Jennings Bryan.
Robert Lansing.

Secretary of the Treasury—
William Gibbs McAdoo.

Secretary of War—
Lindley M. Garrison.
Newton D. Baker.

Attorney-General—
James Clark McReynolds.
T. W. Gregory.

Postmaster-General—
Albert Sidney Burleson.

Secretary of the Navy—
Josephus Daniels.

Secretary of Interior—
Franklin Knight Lane.

Secretary of Agriculture—
David Franklin Houston.

Secretary of Commerce—
William C. Redfield.

Secretary of Labor—
William Bauchop Wilson.

The Democratic National Convention met in Baltimore, Md., June 25, 1912, and on July 6, on the forty-sixth ballot, chose Woodrow Wilson, Governor of New Jersey, as the nominee of the party. Other prominent candidates before the convention were Champ Clark, of Missouri; Judson Harmon, of Ohio, and Oscar W. Underwood, of Alabama.

Platform.—The convention reaffirmed its devotion to the principles of Democratic government formulated by Thomas Jefferson; declared that the high Republican tariff was the principal cause of the unequal distribution of wealth, and favored immediate downward revision of the

rates. President Taft was denounced for his veto of the Farmers' Free List bill, and the Republican party was charged with having been faithless to its pledges of 1908. The people were appealed to for support in a demand for a tariff for revenue only. Other planks declared a private monopoly indefensible and intolerable; favored enforcement of the criminal as well as civil law against trusts and their officials; prevention of holding companies, of interlocking directors, stock-watering, and discrimination in prices; legislation to restore to the Sherman Antitrust law the strength of which it was deprived by interpretation; the unhampered exercise by the states of their reserved rights; favored an income tax and the popular election of Senators; publicity of campaign contributions; presidential primaries and a single term for the President; supervision of railroad, express, telegraph and telephone companies; opposed the establishment of a central bank, and favored the revision of the banking laws; favored rural credits, and national aid to state and local roads; equal justice to capital and labor; conservation of national resources; exemption from tolls of American ships on the Panama Canal; fostering the growth of our merchant marine; independence for the Philippines; establishment of a parcel post and extension of rural free delivery.

Opposition.—Months before the end of President Taft's administration, ex-President Roosevelt had become dissatisfied with the principles and practices of his successor, and finally broke publicly with him and campaigned for the Republican nomination. Although generally endorsed in those states in which Presidential primaries were held, Roosevelt failed to receive the nomination of the Republican Party, which renominated President Taft for a second term. Roosevelt declared that he had been deprived of the nomination by the denial of credentials to properly-selected Roosevelt delegates and, withdrawing from the Republican Party, organized the Progressive Party to contest the election. His running mate was Governor Hiram Johnson, of California, and his platform was an advanced one, declaring for equal suffrage, labor and welfare legislation, forms of social insurance, direct primaries and direct legislation, popular election of Senators, the regulation, rather than the prohibition, of trusts. The Socialist Party nominated Eugene V. Debs and the Prohibitionists, Eugene W. Chafin.

Vote.—The popular vote showed Wilson 6,293,019; Roosevelt, 4,119,507; Taft, 3,484,956; Debs, 901,873, and Chafin, 207,928. Wilson's popular plurality over Roosevelt was 2,173,512 and over Taft, 2,808,063; but the combined Roosevelt and Taft vote was 1,311,44 higher than the Wilson vote. The electoral vote was as follows: Wilson, 435; Roosevelt 88; Taft 8.

Party Problem.—The immediate task confronting Mr. Wilson was the consolidation of the Democratic Party into an effective organism. The commitment of the Party in 1896 and 1900 to the leadership of William Jennings Bryan and his free silver platform had alienated many of its ablest members, and the attack made on Mr. Clark by the Wilson forces under the leadership of Mr. Bryan at the Baltimore convention had embittered to no slight extent the powerful Clark faction. Moreover, the party had so long been out of power that practical men of affairs able to handle concrete problems were no longer as prominent in it as they had been.

Mr. Wilson's Cabinet reflected this problem By the appointment of Mr. Bryan as Secretary of State, the cooperation of the "Peerless Leader" and his followers was assured; and even in later days when the two separated in a difference of opinion regarding foreign policy, their personal ties and political allegiance remained unbroken. The claims of the South were recognized by the appointment of a number of Southern leaders, and in the appointment of Mr. William B. Wilson as Secretary of Labor a strong bid was made for the continued support of organized labor. For the practical problems of the Commerce, Interior and Treasury Departments, President Wilson selected men with first-hand experience in administration.

Tariff.—April 8, 1913, Wilson convened Congress in extra session for the purpose of revising the tariff law in accordance with the "duty laid upon the party at the recent elections" (page 7871). The Sixty-third Congress consisted of 96 Senators, of whom 52 were Democrats; and 435 Representatives, of whom 290 were Democrats. The tariff bill introduced by Mr. Underwood, of Alabama, embodied the essential ideas of the Democratic platform—that duties should be imposed primarily to produce revenue for the government without thought of protection, and that such duties should be established by legislation that would not injure or destroy legitimate industry. One hundred items were added to the free list, including acids, salt, bread, meat, flour and meal, potatoes, paper, manufactures of leather, lumber and iron and certain machinery. Duties were imposed on seventy articles previously free. As a whole, the rates of the Underwood Tariff were about one-fourth lower than those of the tariff of 1909.

Federal Reserve Banking Act.—The banking act passed early in the administration provided for a decentralized banking system, with twelve reserve banks, of which all national and many state banks were members. The federal reserve system was governed by a central board in Washington, and all of its members were government officials with no connection with private banking interests. State banks were still not allowed to issue currency, but the system provided for a greater elasticity in our currency system by providing for issue and withdrawal of paper money through the federal reserve banks.

Farm Loan Act.—Another notable legislative achievement of the first Wilson administration provided for lending money at low interest to farmers on farm mortgages, pending the sale of their crops.

Anti-Trust Legislation.—True to his campaign promises, President Wilson effected legislation making more stringent and more detailed the provisions of the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. The Clayton Act also declared that Labor was not to be regarded as a commodity and placed restrictions upon injunctions in labor disputes, achievements later to be weakened by court interpretation. The Federal Trade Commission was established, not only to investigate the practices of business enterprises, but also to lodge complaints and make charges.

Other Legislation.—A federal statute forbidding the employment of children under fourteen in factories and workshops was passed, only to be declared unconstitutional several years later. The Seamen's Act imposed upon shipowners many welfare requirements making for improved hours, wages and conditions of employment for seamen. After the outbreak of the war in Europe, the Bureau of War Risk Insurance was established to assist the American mer-

chant marine. The popular election of United States Senators dates from this administration, and President Wilson's anger at the bar to armed neutrality legislation for American merchant vessels made possible by filibustering tactics in the Senate during the last days of the administration was responsible for the adoption of procedure in the United States Senate allowing closure to be applied to debates under certain conditions. A bill applying a literacy test to immigrants was passed over the President's veto. The parcel post system was broadened and a notable reform was the extension of the civil service requirements to the first, second and third class postmasters. Largely because of the threat of a strike of the four brotherhoods of railway employees, President Wilson induced Congress to pass the Adamson Law, providing that eight hours was to be considered the normal day's work upon railroads.

By the authority of the Sixteenth Amendment, income taxes were levied upon individuals and corporations.

With the outbreak of war in Europe, a period of industrial depression set in, due largely to the disturbance of international trade and banking; but as the Entente began to turn more and more to the United States for supplies of all kinds, and as neutral nations began to turn to the United States for goods no longer purchasable from the belligerent nations, a period of well-nigh unsurpassed prosperity set in. Immigration practically ceased and there was a shortage of labor, with the returns to both capital and labor largely increasing. However, this increase was parallelled by a rapid increase in the cost of living, which continued until after the end of the war.

Mexico.—The problem of conditions in Mexico was one of the most difficult with which the administration had to deal and the Wilson policy of "watchful waiting" caused much adverse criticism. After the overthrow of Porfirio Diaz in 1911, Mexico slipped into a state of civil commotion in which the lives and property rights of United States citizens were increasingly endangered. Finally, in 1913, Francisco Madero, a leader of liberal and democratic tendencies, who had been installed as President, was murdered with the connivance of Victoriano Huerta, who had led a successful revolt against his rule. Because of the murder and the unconstitutional usurpation of power by Huerta, President Wilson refused to acknowledge him as the President of Mexico, but supported Venustiano Carranza and Pancho Villa in their revolts against the Huerta government.

Deprived of the support of the United States, Huerta finally fell before the attacks of Villa, Carranza, Zapata and other revolutionists and resigned in 1914. Carranza was elected President and finally obtained the recognition of the United States, although Villa soon revolted against the Carranza government.

However, just before the end of Huerta's rule, some American sailors were arrested at Tampico, and, although the Mexican Government soon ordered their release, it refused to salute the United States flag as atonement. At this juncture, President Wilson authorized the port of Vera Cruz to be occupied by United States forces, in order to prevent a consignment of arms for Huerta from being landed there. The occupation was accomplished only after a struggle, in which some United States sailors lost their lives, and open war between the two countries seemed imminent. It was averted by the good offices of Argentina, Brazil and Chile, who acted as mediators and arbitrators, and by the fact that soon after the occupation of Vera Cruz, Huerta abdicated.

In the spring of 1916, border raids by Mexican bandits culminated in a raid by Villa on the town of Columbus, New Mexico. A punitive expedition under General Pershing was at once dispatched into Mexico and penetrated Mexican territory to a considerable depth, although without capturing Villa. The expedition was dispatched against the will of the Carranza government, and there was one serious clash between United States and Carranzista forces; but the United States forces were withdrawn nearer the Rio Grande before open war resulted, and finally were altogether withdrawn from Mexico in January, 1917.

Other Foreign Relations.—The first Wilson administration saw a liberal measure of self-government granted to Porto Rico and the Philippines, with ultimate independence definitely promised the latter. The Danish West Indies were purchased from Denmark, further to safeguard the Panama Canal, and were re-christened the Virgin Islands of the United States. At the request of President Wilson, the bill exempting United States coastwise shipping from Panama Canal tolls was repealed, there being strong support for the contention of Great Britain that such exemption was in violation of the treaty between the two countries bearing upon the subject. The difficulties with Japan due to discriminatory legislation in California against Japanese citizens in that state became acute. Disorders in Haiti and Santo Domingo led to the military occupation and administration of those countries, a course of action roundly denounced in Central and South America, not only because it was alleged to represent a policy of aggressive imperialism, but also because of alleged irregularities and misconduct on the part of the forces of occupation.

European War.—Neutrality.—When the greatest of all wars broke out in Europe in 1914, America firmly resolved to try to stay neutral. Our traditional policy of isolation, in spite of the implications of the Monroe Doctrine, kept us free from passions in favor of either group of belligerents. True, the invasion of Belgium in violation of treaty rights caused strong feeling against Germany, which was increased when the reports of the atrocities committed in the invaded country were substantiated, but on the other hand we had more immigrants from Germany in our population than from any other country; our second largest immigrant group was the Irish, most of whom were anti-British; and the large Jewish group was by no means alone in the United States in its hatred of everything which was signified by the kingdom of the Tsar.

Before long, however, in spite of our desire to remain neutral in thought as well as in deed, and in spite of our feeling that the holocaust was due to secret diplomacy, political rivalries, imperialist and economic ambitions which seemed queerly alien to America, we became definitely involved in the problems of the war. In accordance with the rights of international law, we began to sell great quantities of military supplies to the Entente Allies, the Central Powers being unable to avail themselves of similar privileges because of England's control of the seas. Our policy was regarded by Germany as unneutral, and soon we saw our ships sunk in Germany's submarine warfare and the lives of our citizens endangered and on occasion lost. Moreover,

the consciousness that the greatest military power in the world regarded us as her enemy made us wonder what would be the result to us in our comparatively unprepared state if that power should emerge victorious in the conflict.

President Wilson objected firmly to the violation of the rights of the United States by Germany. He objected similarly to the blockade imposed by the Entente, its listing of food as contraband, its search of mail, its misuse of neutral flags, its blacklisting of American firms for trading with Germany. But these practices involved no loss of American lives and the protests against them were not so strong as those invoked when the German submarine campaign came to a head with the sinking of the "Lusitania," on May 7, 1915, with the loss of more than one hundred United States citizens. Germany finally was led to modify her submarine campaign so as not to sink liners without warning and without provisions for the safety of non-combatants. The crisis resulted in the resignation of Secretary of State Bryan, who wanted the dispute arbitrated. The dilatory nature of the German assurances incensed this country, and when on January 31, 1917, the German government, without warning, announced the resumption of its unrestricted submarine warfare, there were only a few pacifists, Socialists and German sympathizers in the United States not to support President Wilson in ending diplomatic relations with Germany, three days later.

European War.—Mediation.—In the very first days of the War, President Wilson made a purely conventional offer of mediation, without effect. In December, 1916, several days after Germany herself had suggested a peace conference, he definitely asked that the belligerents state their peace terms, saying that the professed aims of both camps were largely identical. The Central Powers replied to the President's offer with a vague suggestion that a peace conference be held, and the Entente replied by making certain stringent conditions necessarily precedent to a peace discussion. On January 22, 1917, in an address to the Senate, President Wilson declared that unless the war ended in a "peace without victory," its settlements would be but transitory; that to prevent a similar war, the nations of the earth would have to unite into an association rather than divide along the lines of a Balance of Power; that all nationalities must have freedom or self-determination; that the seas must be free and armaments reduced: that the war was the last in which the United States could hope to remain neutral and that therefore she was vitally interested in the terms of its settlement and in the formation of such a league of nations.

SECOND TERM

Thirty-third administration—Democratic.

Vice President—Thomas R. Marshall.

Secretary of State—
Robert Lansing.
Bainbridge Colby.

Secretary of the Treasury—
William Gibbs McAdoo.
Carter Glass.
David Franklin Houston.

Secretary of War—
Newton Diehl Baker.

Attorney-General—
Thomas W. Gregory.
A. Mitchell Palmer.

Postmaster-General—
Albert Sidney Burleson.

Secretary of the Navy—
Josephus Daniels.

Secretary of Interior—
Franklin Knight Lane.
John Barton Payne.

Secretary of Agriculture—
David Franklin Houston.
Edwin T. Meredith.

Secretary of Commerce—
William C. Redfield.
Joshua W. Alexander.

Secretary of Labor—
William Bauchop Wilson.

Platform—On June 15, 1916, Woodrow Wilson was re-nominated by acclamation for the Presidency by the Democratic convention in St. Louis. With little contest Thomas R. Marshall was re-nominated for vice-president. Mr. Bryan played little or no part in the proceedings. The platform praised the achievements of Mr. Wilson's first administration, strongly commending the handling of foreign disputes both with Germany and with Mexico. It re-affirmed the traditional Democratic tariff policy; and in addition, proposed a government-owned and -operated merchant marine. Preparedness, conservation, the Monroe Doctrine, a federal child labor law, ultimate independence for the Philippines, and a Federal Trade Commission were endorsed. Woman Suffrage was also endorsed, but by state action.

Opposition—Mr. Roosevelt exerted every energy to capture the Republican nomination; but the memory of his disruption of the Republican Party by the organization of the Progressive Party four years previously was too fresh in the leaders' minds to allow him success. As soon as the Republican convention met in Chicago on June 7, it was evident that there was a strong drift to Charles Evans Hughes, formerly governor of New York, and at that time on the Supreme Bench of the United States—in spite of the American tradition that Supreme Court justices should play no part in politics, and in spite of the fact that Mr. Hughes had recognized that tradition by refusing to stir a finger for nomination, or even to be quoted in connection with it. The first ballot gave Mr. Hughes 253½ votes, Mr. Weeks, 105, Mr. Root, 103, Mr. Cummins, 85, Mr. Roosevelt, 65, and Mr. La Follette, 25. Mr. Hughes was nominated on the third ballot.

The Progressive Party held its convention in Chicago at the same time, and nominated Mr. Roosevelt for the Presidency. Mr. Roosevelt, however, declined the honor, and advised that the convention endorse the nomination of Mr. Hughes; and that action saw the end of the Progressive Party as an important factor in American politics. The Prohibitionists nominated J. Frank Hanly; the Socialists, Arthur Benson.

The campaign was fought almost entirely on the question of the foreign policy of the preceding administration, Mr. Hughes, Mr. Roosevelt and the other Republican leaders assailing it as weak, un-American, and more likely to plunge the country into war than would a more vigorous assertion of American rights. The enactment of the eight-hour law for railroad employees was also denounced by Mr. Hughes as a surrender to the labor un-

ions; and as a result he made himself popular among business men, whereas most of the labor vote seemed to be cast for Mr. Wilson.

Re-election.—The first reports of the election indicated that the Republicans had won a sweeping victory, and that the next President of the United States would be Mr. Charles Evans Hughes. Even on the second day after the voters had gone to the polls, it seemed that Mr. Wilson had been defeated, although it was then evident that the result would be close. It was not until a week had elapsed that Mr. Wilson's re-election, by the narrow margin of 23 electoral votes, was conceded. The East went almost solidly for Mr. Hughes; and it was the West, with the scattered agricultural districts, which turned the tide in Mr. Wilson's favor. There was every evidence that the women voters of the West materially helped Mr. Wilson to his victory. The deciding state was California, where Mr. Wilson's majority was less than 4,000 in a vote of 925,000. The total Wilson popular vote was 9,129,606, as compared with 8,538,221 for Hughes. The Wilson electoral vote was 277 and the Hughes, 254. The Prohibition vote, 220,506, represented a slight increase over that of 1912, but the Socialist vote, 585,113, was only about 65% of the 1912 Socialist vote. The Democratic majority in the Senate was reduced and the membership of the House of Representatives was almost equally divided politically.

Mr. Wilson made no change in his Cabinet from the first administration. His attention was occupied entirely by the crisis with Germany, and his policy remained uninterrupted, as indicated by his brief. Second Inaugural Address (page 8221).

War with Germany and Austria-Hungary.—Despite the severance of diplomatic relations on February 3, 1917, the German Government made good its threat to use its submarines without restrictions, and on April 3, 1917, President Wilson asked a joint session of Congress, meeting in special session, for a declaration of war against Germany. After rehearsing the crimes of Germany against the United States, he defined the struggle as not merely one of self-defense, but also as one of democracy against autocracy. On April 6, a state of war with Germany was proclaimed. War with Austria-Hungary was proclaimed in the following December.

The military and naval achievements of the United States are outlined in the article on World War. The Navy at once cooperated with the navy of Great Britain in attacking submarines, laying mines, escorting transports; but due to the length of training required, the need for shipping, the great volume of requisite supplies, as well as to the need for a large preponderance in strength on the side of the Allies if Germany was finally to be defeated decisively, it was not until the spring of 1918 that United States troops began to arrive in France in great numbers. Almost at once the policy of military conscription was put into effect in order to marshal the military strength of the country.

War Agencies.—Revolutionary readjustments were necessary to mobilize the non-military strength of the country, and in most fields of production and distribution of war supplies, private enterprise gave way to Government control. Shipping control and routing was given to the Shipping Board, with the Emergency Fleet Corporation in direct charge of building new bottoms to transport American forces and their supplies. A Committee on Public Information was created. The railroads and some coastwise steamship lines were taken over by the Government, and were administered by the Railroad Administration. The problem of food conservation, production and allocation fell to the Food Administration, and the Fuel Administration functioned similarly for coal and other fuels. Wheat and coal prices were fixed by the Government.

The express companies were taken over by the Government and placed under the American Railway Express Company, administered by the Director General of Railroads. The telephone, telegraph and cable systems were also taken over by the Government and administered through the Postmaster General. The War Finance Corporation attended to the financing of private firms in essential fields in need of such assistance and the War Labor Board endeavored to smooth the differences between Capital and Labor which might lead to strikes and lockouts.

The industrial mobilization of the country's resources was at first placed under the advisory commission of the Council of National Defence, but ultimately was placed in the hands of the War Industries Board. Exports were controlled through an Exports Council and finally through the War Trade Board, The Food Control Act provided for a check upon profiteering in essentials generally as well as for the control of all agencies concerned with food. The Espionage Act and the Sedition Act gave authority for the suppression of periodicals and newspapers, and for the imprisonment of individuals, attempting to thwart the country's war program, even by means of criticizing adversely the form of government and the constitution. The Sabotage Act was aimed at the stoppage of the nation's industries by sabotage or conspiracy.

The production of war material proper, such as machine guns and ammunition, was supervised by the War Department itself. Separate agencies, however, were created for the production of aircraft. Control over commerce which might accrue, even indirectly, to the benefit of the enemy was empowered by the Trading with the Enemy Act, and property in the United States owned by enemy aliens was taken over by the Government and administered or sold by the Alien Property Custodian.

The financing of the war was made possible chiefly by five great popular war loans and also by great increases in taxes, especially those upon individual and corporate incomes. For the dead and wounded, a system of automatic compensation was established to replace the pension grants utilized after former wars, and government insurance up to $10,000 was also opened at cost to those in the military and naval services. The welfare of the soldiers and sailors was attended to by the Red Cross, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Men's Hebrew Association, the Knights of Columbus, the Salvation Army and other agencies, for the support of which the American people contributed generously.

There were many other agencies created to care for the special problems of the war, such as those concerned with the availability of adequate housing for war workers, especially those in the shipyards; the enlistment, distribution and stabilization of labor, especially unskilled labor; the rationing of sugar, etc.

Domestic Legislation.—The most striking legislative enactments of the second Wilson administration were the amendments to the constitution providing for the prohibition of the sale and manufacture of alcoholic beverages and for the extension of the suffrage to women. The latter amendment was achieved largely through the insistence of President Wilson. A bill providing for the budget system was vetoed by the President. With the end of the hostilities of the War, the Government quickly abandoned its interference with production and distribution, and most of the control of the war agencies over private business came to an end. The railroads were returned to their owners with the Government guarantee of profits continuing six months after their return, and with an increase in passenger and freight rates granted by the Interstate Commerce Commission. The size of the war debt which had been accumulated permitted but a slight reduction in taxation. Foreign-born non-citizens who believed in and preached, or who belonged to organizations believing in or preaching, the use of force in changing the form of government were deported. During the hostilities of the war, the country continued to enjoy unsurpassed prosperity, but soon after the armistice, a period of sharp depression set in and remained until the end of the administration. Unemployment was extremely wide-spread and distress was acute. Wages generally increased until this period of depression set in, and it was not until the closing months of the administration that prices and the cost of living stopped increasing.

Political Developments.—In the Congressional elections of 1918, President Wilson aroused much hostility by asking for the defeat of the Republican Party, because on the whole it had been opposed to the administration during the war, although unquestionably patriotic in the prosecution of the struggle. The voters returned the Republican Party to power in Congress, with a Republican majority of two in the Senate and of almost fifty in the House of Representatives. The administration had become unpopular. The combination of a Republican Congress and a Democratic President served to make the administration barren of notable legislation and administrative achievements after the end of the hostilities of the World War. In the Northwest, a radical agrarian political organization, the Non-Partisan League, became powerful. The Socialist Party became strong in the elections of 1917, but suffered a decline in strength in the elections of 1918, largely because of its anti-war attitude and program. The Party was later split by the secession of those elements endorsing unqualifiedly the program of Bolshevism or Communism.

Foreign Affairs.—Aside from the problems of the war and of the resulting peace, the foreign policy of the administration was notable chiefly for its recognition of the special interests of Japan in China, as expressed in the so-called Lansing-Ishii Agreement; a vigorous ultimatum to Mexico, threatening war unless an American consular agent named Jenkins, who had been arrested, was released; the continuation of the armed occupation of Haiti and Santo Domingo; and the continuation of armed intervention in, hostility to, blockade and nonrecognition of the Bolshevist government of Soviet Russia.

The President at the Peace Conference in Paris.—In December, 1918, the President of the United States of America set sail for Europe to participate in the formulation of the peace terms which were to end the greatest of all wars. He returned to this country toward the end of February in the following year, sailing again for France, however, in the first week of March. He finally returned from his labors in July, 1918, having been the first President to set foot upon European soil during his incumbency of office.

Germany and her associates in the war had surrendered on the basis of the principles enunciated by President Wilson in his addresses on the war, and similarly those principles had been accepted by the associates of the United States as the platform upon which the peace must be built. In particular, the "Fourteen Points" enunciated by President Wilson in his address to Congress on January 8, 1918, became a rallying ground for the peace discussions. And President Wilson went to Europe in the hope and with the intention of effecting his program in spite of the forces opposed to it.

It cannot be said that, on the whole, he succeeded. Although received in Europe with an enthusiasm which showed him entrenched firmly in the hearts of the European masses as no other statesman of his time, the hatreds of war and the limitations of national self-seeking were obstacles which the President on many occasions could not surmount. The cornerstone of his policy, a League of Nations, was achieved, but with many limitations which served to make it of narrower scope than had been hoped. For instance, there were no effective provisions for a reduction of armaments or for the abolition of conscription; decisions of international disputes could be reached only by unanimous vote of the nine great Powers represented on the council of the League; Great Britain retained control of the seas; there was no provision for an international police force nor for an international Supreme Court, etc. Furthermore, in the treaty proper there were awards, such as those of the Shantung peninsula in China, the northeast Adriatic sea-coast, and the Austrian Tyrol, which manifestly violated the principle of nationality. All that was claimed for the treaty was that it was the best obtainable under adverse circumstances, and that it would prove the foundation for better things.

The Defeat of the Peace Treaty.—When the Treaty of Versailles was submitted to the Senate for ratification in the early summer of 1919, strong opposition to it arose. This was due only partly to personal and political opposition to the President, as many Republicans were in favor of the treaty, especially if certain reservations were added. The opposition centred rather around the covenant of the League of Nations, especially around Article X, through fear that it compromised the independent nationalism of the United States and involved it in European entanglements in which it was not concerned. The Republican majority in the Senate added many reservations to the treaty, reservations which President Wilson refused to accept, on the ground that they constituted an effective nullification of the treaty and a repudiation of the purposes for which the United States had entered the War, and fought it through.

In addition, there were twelve Senators, eleven, Republicans, the so-called Irreconcilables, opposed to the treaty even as modified by the reservations. They effectively aroused the country to a similar opposition. Although they voted for the reservations which had been added to the treaty, they voted against it when the vote on the rati-

fication was finally taken. The Democratic supporters of the administration in the Senate similarly voted against it, and this combined opposition was sufficient to prevent the treaty from obtaining the two-thirds vote necessary for ratification. However, a resolution declaring a state of peace similarly failed to receive the two-thirds vote necessary to pass it over the President's veto.

President Wilson suffered an almost fatal attack of paralysis while defending the treaty in a coast-to-coast trip, and the closing months of his administration passed with the head of the nation in a state of physical invalidism.

The extent of continental United States was the same as under the administration of President Taft. (See Map under Taft, William H.)

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Wilson's Creek (Mo.), Battle of.—During the summer of 1861 Confederate troops in large numbers were sent into Missouri from Arkansas, Louisiana, and Texas. General Lyon was stationed at Springfield with 5,500 Federal troops. The Confederates, 20,000 strong, advanced in two columns under McCulloch and Price. During the night of August 9, 1861, Sigel was sent with 1,500 men to attack the Confederate rear nine miles distant, at Wilson's Creek, while Lyon attacked the front. Both attacks were repulsed. Sigel lost 5 of his 6 guns and more than half of his men. Lyon was killed while leading a charge. The Federal loss was 1,246 in killed, wounded and missing. The Confederate loss was about the same.

Winchester (Va.), Battles at.— Winchester and its vicinity were the scene of several engagements during the War between the States. Winchester is in the Shenandoah Valley, on the line of the opposing armies as they marched and countermarched through the valley. An engagement occurred at Kernstown, near Winchester, March 23, 1862, between detachments of Federals under the command of Shields and Kimball and Confederate detachments under Jackson. In killed, wounded, and missing the Federals lost 590 and the Confederates 718. Jackson retreated to his main force.

In May, 1862, the Federals under Banks were posted at Harrisonburg, in the valley. Banks was about to be attacked by the Confederates under Jackson, when he retired down the valley to the heights of Winchester, where on May 24 he gave battle Being assailed on both flanks, he retreated rapidly on the 25th to the north bank of the Potomac, making the distance, about 50 miles, in forty-eight hours. He was pursued by Jackson to a point near Harper's Ferry. Again, on June 15, 1863 the Federals under Milroy were encamped near Winchester, numbering about 7,000, which force was deemed sufficient to hold the place against all the Confederates believed to be in the valley; but on that day Milroy found himself almost surrounded by the combined corps of Longstreet and Ewell. An artillery fight was maintained all day and at night the divided and scattered troops of Milroy retreated to the Potomac River, having lost 4,000 men, 28 guns, about 300 horses, and a large number of wagons. The Confederate loss was insignificant.

A small force of Federals under Averell was attacked by the Confederates under Early near Winchester on July 12, 1864. The Confederates defeated the Federals, who lost 3 guns and about 400 men. Early then marched on Chambersburg, Pa.

In August, 1864, Sheridan took command of the Federal army in the Valley, known as the Army of the Shenandoah. The Confederates under Early were encamped on the west bank of Opequan Creek, covering Winchester. They were attacked on September 19 by Sheridan. The battle began about 10 A. M., and was maintained until nearly 3 P. M., when the Confederates retreated to and beyond Winchester. Sheridan took 2,500 prisoners and found 2,000 wounded in the hospitals at Winchester. The Confederate loss was 653 killed, 3,719 wounded, and 618

missing—a total of 4,990. This is also called the battle of Opequan.

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Wireless Telegraph.—Heinrich Hertz, of Karlsruhe, Germany, in 1888 demonstrated the existence of electric waves and devised means for producing and receiving them. Edouard Branly, of Paris, France, in 1900 brought out a sensitive detector for manifesting the presence of electric waves, to which he gave the name radio-conductor. This was improved and called a coherer by Oliver Lodge of Birmingham, England, and later perfected and used as a wireless telegraph receptor by William Marconi, of England, who patented it. The first receptor for receiving and indicating electric waves was designed by Alexander Popoff, of St. Petersburg, Russia, in 1895. Lodge later designed a syntonic system for sending and receiving, which could be tuned to the same period of oscillation by means of inductive coils and condensers. The principal systems in practical use are the Marconi, the Lodge-Muirhead, the Fessenden, the De Forest, the Telefunken, the Popp-Branly and the Paulson.

The government station at Arlington, Va., has developed a high power transmission range of 3,500 miles, conducting experiments in conjunction with the Eiffel Tower in Paris. Other high power stations are at Belmar, N. J., owned by the Marconi Company, and at Sayville, L. I., owned by the Telefunken Company, operating direct with Nauen, Germany.

Wireless Telegraph:
Lands in Alaska set aside for naval radio stations, 8215.
Neutrality of stations ordered enforced, 7962.
Ocean-going vessels ordered to be fitted with, 7958.
Station established in Canal Zone, 7960.
Stations taken for use of government, 8006, 8241.

Wisconsin.—One of the western group of states; nickname, "The Badger State"; motto, "Forward." It lies in the northern part of the country, between lat. 42° 27′ and 47° north and long. 86° 53′ and 92° 54′ west, not including islands in Lake Superior and Michigan. It is bounded on the north by Lake Superior and the upper peninsula of Michigan, on the northeast and east by the upper peninsula of Michigan and Lake Michigan, on the south by Illinois, and on the west by Iowa and Minnesota (separated mostly by the Mississippi and St. Croix Rivers). The area is 56,066 square miles. Wisconsin is hilly in the north and southwest, but elsewhere is generally level. It has important agricultural, mining, and lumbering interests and extensive manufactures of flour, machinery, and beer.

Wisconsin was visited as early as 1634 by Nicollet, La Salle, and French fur traders, who established a settlement at Green Bay in 1639. It was included in the Northwest Territory till 1800, when it became a part of the Indian Territory. In 1809 it was included in Illinois Territory, and in 1818 in Michigan Territory, and in 1836 it was organized as Wisconsin Territory, and included, besides its present area, the territory now embraced in the states of Iowa and Minnesota and part of the Dakotas. It was admitted to the Union May 29, 1848.

The 1910 population was 2,343,860. The 1920 census put it at 2,632,067. In 1910, the foreign-born population was 513,000, of whom 233,000 were German. In that year, 43 per cent of the population was urban.

Latest figures show a school population of 801,456, with 3,897 schools, an enrollment of 458,102, an average daily attendance of 371,494, and a teaching staff of 16,288.

Statistics of agriculture collected for the 1910 federal census placed the number of farms in the state at 177,127, comprising 21,060,466 acres, valued, with stock and improvements, at $1,413,043,000. The average value of land per acre was $43.30. The 1920 census gave the number of farms as 189,196.

The latest figures show the production and value of the principal crops as follows:

Crop	*Bushels*	*Value*
Corn	69,538,000	$90,399,000
Hay	3,537,000*a*	76,399,000
Oats	110,162,000	73,809,000
Potatoes	33,040,000	26,432,000
Barley	25,383,000	23,352,000
Wheat	9,837,000	20,166,000
Rye	7,674,000	11,511,000
Tobacco	65,170,000*b*	19,551,000

a—tons; *b*—pounds.

There is also extensive cultivation of fruits. The last annual wool clip amounted to 2,635,000 pounds. Latest figures show 694,000 horses in the state; 1,800,000 milch cows; 1,435,000 other cattle; 716,000 sheep; and 2,181,000 swine.

The chief mineral output is zinc, followed by iron ore, pig iron and stone.

The number of manufacturing establishments in Wisconsin having an annual output valued at $500 or more at the beginning of 1915 was 9,104. The amount of capital invested was $754,287,000, giving employment to 230,273 persons, using material valued at $417,415,000, and turning out finished goods worth $695,172,000. Salaries and wages paid amounted to $149,762,000.

Wisconsin:
Act for continuing certain works in, reasons for applying pocket veto to, 2460.
Boundary line with Michigan, referred to, 1846.
Constitution adopted by, transmitted, 2359, 2427.
Volunteers from, thanks of President tendered, 3442.

Wisconsin River, act regarding improvement of, vetoed, 4236.

Witnesses:
Fees of, referred to, 4730, 4770, 4836.
Protection of, from injury, recommended, 5477.

Woman Suffrage.—The first American woman to demand the ballot, so far

known, was Mistress Margaret Brent, of Maryland, in 1647. She was heir of Lord Calvert, the brother of Lord Baltimore, and executor of the estates of both in the colony, and, as representation in the Legislature was based on property, she demanded "place and voyce"—two votes—in that body. Her petition was hotly debated for several hours and finally denied.

The colonial records of Massachusetts show that women voted under the Old Province Charter from 1691 to 1780 for all elective officers. When a constitution was adopted they were excluded from a vote for Governor and Legislature but retained it for other officials. In March, 1776, Mrs. Abigail Adams wrote to her husband, John Adams, in the Continental Congress asking him to remember the ladies in the new code of laws, and in 1778, Mrs. Corbin, sister of Richard Henry Lee, of Virginia, presented her own petition for the right to vote. The Continental Congress left the suffrage to be dealt with by the states in their constitutions and New Jersey was the only one which conferred it on women, its constitution giving the franchise to "all inhabitants worth $250, etc." In 1790 a revision of the election law used the words "he or she," thus emphasizing the inclusion of women in the electorate, but in 1807 the Legislature passed an arbitrary act limiting the suffrage to "white male citizens." This was declared to be a usurpation of authority, on the ground that the constitution could be changed only by action of the voters.

In 1826 Frances Wright, a young Scotch woman of beauty, education and wealth, came to the United States and in a series of lectures was the first to bring the question of woman suffrage thus before the public, where it met with almost universal derision. In 1836 Ernestine L. Rose, daughter of a Rabbi in Poland, made a lecture tour of America advocating the full enfranchisement of women and was the first to urge them to secure the repeal of laws which affected their interests. In the winter of 1836-7 she circulated a petition in Albany, N. Y., for a law that would enable a married woman to hold property and could get only five signatures, including men and women, but she carried these to the Legislature and addressed that body in behalf of such a law. She kept up this work steadily and by 1840 she had associated with her Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Paulina Wright Davis and Lucretia Mott. They continued their petitions and addresses to the Legislature until 1848, when the law extended property rights to married women, and thereafter they devoted themselves to working for the suffrage.

Margaret Fuller, one of a coterie of thinkers in Boston, in her writings and semi-public addresses in 1840 demanded political rights for women. In 1847 Lucy Stone, just graduated from Oberlin College, began speaking on woman's rights. Soon afterwards Lucretia Mott published a "Discourse on Woman," in answer to a lecture which Richard H. Dana was giving in many cities ridiculing the idea of political equality for women.

The first woman suffrage convention in the United States was held in the Wesleyan Chapel, at Seneca Falls, N. Y., on the 19th and 20th of July, 1848. It demanded for women equal rights with men. James Mott presided and addresses were made by Lucretia Mott and her sister, Martha C. Wright, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Mary Ann McClintock, Frederick Douglass and several men prominent in the locality. A declaration and resolutions were discussed, the latter adopted and the former signed by one hundred men and women, some of whom withdrew their names when "the storm of ridicule began to break." This declaration stated the whole case for woman as comprehensively as it ever has been stated since; the resolutions comprised practically every demand that ever afterward was made for women, and, taken together, they formed a remarkable document.

In 1852 a bona fide woman's rights convention, with delegates present from eight states and Canada, was held in Syracuse. It brought to the front the wonderful galaxy of women whose names were henceforth connected with this movement, and here began its fifty-four years' leadership by Miss Anthony.

April 19 and 20, 1850, a woman's rights convention was held in the Second Baptist Church of Salem, Ohio. Emily Robinson, J. Elizabeth Jones and Josephine S. Griffing were three of the leading spirits. The "Memorial to the Constitutional Convention" and the "Address to the Women of Ohio" have not been surpassed in eloquence and force in the years that have since elapsed. It is said that nearly 8,000 signatures to the memorial were secured. In 1852 the first State Suffrage Association was formed. Woman's rights conventions were held annually in Ohio thereafter until the approach of the civil war.

In May, 1850, a few women decided to call a convention to discuss exclusively the rights of women, and the time and place were fixed for Oct. 23 and 24 in Worcester, Mass., and from the holding of this convention the woman's rights movement may be said to have assumed a national aspect. Nine states were represented by speakers and among these were Garrison, Phillips, Pillsbury, Foster, Burleigh, Douglass, Channing, Mrs. Mott, Mrs. Rose, Abby Kelly, Lucy Stone, Antoinette Brown and Dr. Harriot K. Hunt, and letters were read from Emerson, Alcott, Whittier, Gerrit Smith, Joshua R. Giddings, Mrs. Swisshelm, Elizur Wright, Mrs. Stanton and others. Mrs. Davis presided A national committee was formed, under whose management conventions were held annually in various cities, while the question was always thereafter a leading one in Massachusetts. An account of this Massachusetts convention in the *Westminster Review*, London, by Mrs. John Stuart Mill, marked the beginning of the movement for woman suffrage in Great Britain.

In 1850 the constitution of Indiana was revised and the laws for women were liberalized beyond any then existing. A woman's rights convention took place in Dublin, Ind., in October, 1851. Therefore these meetings became annual.

In June, 1852, the first woman's rights convention of Pennsylvania was held in West Chester, and was largely under the auspices of the Friends, or Quakers, among them James and Lucretia Mott.

From 1852 woman's rights conventions were held in many parts of the country. Woman suffrage was slowly gaining ground, when the breaking out of the civil war banished all other questions from the public thought. When the war was ended and the women again took up their cause they met the vast complication of the rights of the emancipated negroes, and were compelled even by those who had been their strongest supporters to yield their claims to those of negro men.

The civil, legal and political results of the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the

national constitution tended still further to obscure and hinder the efforts to obtain the franchise for women. An Equal Rights Association had been formed to promote the interests of both negroes and white women, but in 1869 the latter were forced to recognize the necessity for a separate organization and a National Woman Suffrage Association was formed whose sole object was to secure an amendment to the national constitution which should enfranchise women. Mrs. Stanton was made president. As there was some division of sentiment at this time, a call was issued by Lucy Stone, Julia Ward Howe and others for a convention to meet in Cleveland, Ohio, the following November, and here the American Woman Suffrage Association was formed, with Henry Ward Beecher, president. It worked principally to obtain the suffrage through amendments to state constitutions. Both societies held national conventions every year thereafter. In 1890 the two bodies united under the name National American Woman Suffrage Association, and since then both methods of work have been followed. Mrs. Stanton was elected president of the new organization; Miss Anthony, vice-president-at-large; Lucy Stone, chairman Executive Committee. In 1892 Mrs. Stanton resigned her office because of advancing age; Miss Anthony was elected president and the Rev. Anna Howard Shaw, vice-president. Miss Anthony resigned the presidency in 1900 and Mrs. Carrie Chapman Catt was elected to it. In 1904 she was succeeded by Miss Shaw. National headquarters were opened in 1895.

Full suffrage to women was voted by states as follows:

Wyoming	1869	Oregon	1912
Colorado	1893	Alaska	1913
Utah	1896	Montana	1914
Idaho	1896	Nevada	1914
Washington	1910	New York	1917
California	1911	Michigan	1918
Kansas	1912	Oklahoma	1918
Arizona	1912	South Dakota	1918

The right to vote in all but state elections—that is, Presidential and Municipal Suffrage—was granted by states as follows:

Illinois	1913	Nebraska	1917
North Dakota	1917	Tennessee	1919

The right to vote in Presidential elections was granted as follows:

Rhode Island	1917	Missouri	1919
Indiana	1919	Wisconsin	1919
Iowa	1919	Ohio	1919
Maine	1919	Vermont	1919
Minnesota	1919	Kentucky	1920

In the following states, women were given the right to vote in primary elections, which in the South are practically equivalent to the elections themselves:

Arkansas	1917	Texas	1918

Women were granted the right to vote only in municipal elections by Vermont in 1917.

In 1915, equal suffrage was defeated by referendum in New York, New Jersey, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania; in 1916, in South Dakota, West Virginia, Iowa; in 1917, in Maine and Ohio.

The right to vote on school or tax questions was granted to women by states as follows: Kentucky (1838); Minnesota (1875); New Hampshire (1878); Massachusetts (1879); Mississippi (1880); New Jersey (1887); Connecticut (1893); Iowa (1894); Ohio (1894); Delaware (1898); Louisiana (1898); Wisconsin (1900); New Mexico (1910).

By 1920, almost 17,000,000 women voters were qualified to vote for the President of the United States.

The full right of suffrage was granted by foreign nations as follows:

New Zealand	1893	Latvia	1918
Australia	1902	Czecho-Slovakia	1918
Finland	1906	Hungary	1918
Norway	1907	Poland	1918
Iceland	1915	Sweden	1919
Denmark	1915	Germany	1919
Russia	1917	Holland	1919
Ukraine	1917	Italy	1919
Great Britain[1]	1918	Servia	1919
Austria	1918	Luxemburg	1919
Canada	1918	Belgium[2]	1919
Esthonia	1918	Lithuania	1920

[1] With certain exceptions, for women over 30. [2] For widows who have not re-married and for mothers of killed soldiers and civilians.

On many occasions after the Civil War, a national amendment to the Constitution for equal suffrage was presented to Congress, coming to a vote for the first time in the Senate on January 25, 1887. The vote was 16 ayes (all Republicans) and 34 nays (11 Republicans and 23 Democrats). By March, 1914, the movement had progressed to a point where the Senate vote was 35 ayes (20 Republicans, 1 Progressive and 14 Democrats) and 34 nays (12 Republicans and 22 Democrats). The first vote in the House of Representatives, in 1915, showed 174 ayes (88 Republicans and Progressives and 86 Democrats) and 204 nays (33 Republicans and 171 Democrats). In the Presidential campaign of 1916, both parties declared for equal suffrage by state action, but the Republican candidate, Charles E. Hughes, personally advocated the adoption of the Federal Amendment.

The effect of the World War (page 8601) and the urgings of President Wilson (pages 8375, 8600, 8639, 8719), as well as the success of the equal suffrage movement in the various states mentioned above, served still further to stimulate opinion favorable to the suffrage movement, the chief opposition coming from the South, where there was fear that a national amendment would give the vote to negro women. On January 10, 1918, the national (Susan B. Anthony) amendment was carried in the House of Representatives by a vote of 274 ayes (165 Republicans, 104 Democrats, 5 scattered) and 136 nays (33 Republicans, 1 Progressive, 102 Democrats). But the bill was prevented from coming to a vote in the Senate until October 1, 1918, when it was lost by a vote of 62 ayes (32 Republicans, 30 Democrats) and 34 nays (12 Republicans and 22 Democrats), a two-thirds vote being necessary. The Senate again killed the amendment on February 10, 1919, by a margin of one vote.

Finally, on May 21, 1919, the federal amendment was passed in the House of Representatives by a vote of 304 ayes (200 Republicans, 102 Democrats, 2 scattered) and 89 nays (19 Republicans and 70 Democrats). The Republicans polled 84 per cent of their membership for the amendment and the Democrats, 54 per cent of their membership. On June 3, 1919, the amendment was passed also by the Senate by a vote of 56 to 25. Counting the pairs, the record in the Senate was 40 Republican and 26 Democratic ayes and 9 Republican and 21 Democratic nays. The amendment thereupon was submitted to the state legislatures for ratification. The

last (36th) state whose ratification was necessary for the adoption of the amendment ratified on August 18, 1920, whereupon the Woman Suffrage Amendment to the national Constitution was declared to be in effect. (See page 8870.) The amendment was in force at the Presidential elections of 1920.

With respect to ratification by the various states, the following defeated ratification: Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi, South Carolina, Virginia, Maryland, Delaware, Louisiana, North Carolina, all south of Mason's and Dixon's line. The following states did not take action on the ratification of the amendment: Connecticut, Florida, Vermont.

Woman Suffrage:
Adoption of, urged, 8375, 8600, 8639, 8719.
Amendment to Constitution, proclamation of, ratification of, 8870.
Growth of movement for, 8163, 8599.
World War and, discussed, 8601.

Woman's Movement. (See Feminism.)

Women:
Citizenship functions exercised by, 8927.
Employment of, discussed, 6983, 7090.
Included in provisions against alien enemies, 8491.
Jury service of, in Alaska, provision for, opposed, 9356.
Minimum wage for, under federal jurisdiction urged, 9350. (See also Minimum Wage.)
New status of, 9293.
Service of, in World War, discussed by President—
Harding, 9293.
Wilson, 8601, 8639.

Women in Industry.—From prehistoric down to modern times, a considerable share of the labor of the world has been done by women; but until the nineteenth century, practically all of that labor was done inside the home. With the invention of modern machinery, however, at the end of the eighteenth century, and the consequent coming of the Industrial Revolution in the United States in the years surrounding 1825, women became an important industrial factor in the general industrial work of the land. The invention of machinery in the first place made inevitable the production outside the home of most of the commodities which woman had been producing inside the home, and thus released her for outside work; and in the second place, the division of labor attendant upon machine operation brought into existence a number of industrial activities which required neither great skill nor physical power and persistence.

The cotton industry in the United States was the first which women entered to a large extent, although of recent years the proportion of women in that industry has decreased. In 1831, 68% of the cotton operatives were females; in 1860, 62%; in 1880, 57%; in 1910, 44%; in 1920, 42%. In all textile industries, women formed in 1850 50% of the operatives; in 1860, 53%; in 1905, 44%; in 1920, 49%. At the present time, women form more than half the wage-earners in the following industries:—Bookbinding, 50½%; Boxes, 54%; Canning and preserving, 55%; Clothing, men's, 53%; Clothing, women's, 66%; Confectionery and ice cream, 53%; Corsets, 81½%; Furnishings, men's, 81%; Knit goods, 67%; Millinery and lace goods, 74%; Shirts, 81%; Silk goods, 57%; Tobacco, cigars and cigarettes, 58%.

The Census of 1920.—Of 40,449,346 women above the age of 10, 8,549,511, or 21%, were gainfully employed. This was 16½% of the total number of females in the country. The percentages of women above the age of ten gainfully employed at previous censuses was—1880, 14¾%; 1890, 17½%; 1900, 18¾%; 1910, 23½%. The number of men gainfully employed in 1920 was 33,064,737, or 78% of males above the age of 10.

The number and percentages of women in the separate classifications were:—

Agriculture, etc.	1,084,128	10%
Manufacturing, mechanical	1,930,341	15%
Transportation	213,054	7%
Trade	667,792	16%
Professional service	1,016,498	47%
Domestic, personal service	2,186,924	64%
Clerical occupations	1,426,116	46%

For the separate occupations in which women work in large numbers, consult the article, Occupations in United States.

The largest proportions of females over the age of ten gainfully employed are in—District of Columbia, 45½%; South Carolina, 33%; Rhode Island, 33%; Massachusetts, 32%. The smallest proportions are in—West Virginia, 11%; Idaho, 12%; North and South Dakota and Oklahoma, each 13%. On the whole, greater percentages of women are employed in the East than in other sections of the country.

In cities with over 100,000 inhabitants, the proportions of females gainfully employed are largest in—Washington, 45½%; New Bedford, Fall River, each 42%; Lowell, 39%; Atlanta, 37%; Richmond, 35%. The smallest proportions are in—Youngstown, 18½%; Salt Lake City, 21½%; Akron, Oakland and Kansas City, Kans., 23%; Camden, Dayton, Detroit, Scranton and Toledo, 24%.

The 21% of females over the age of ten gainfully employed was thus distributed—Native whites, native parentage, 17%; native whites, foreign or mixed parentage, 25%; foreign-born white, 18%; negro, 39%; others, 14%.

By ages, the number of females gainfully employed, together with the ratio of that number to the entire number of females of those ages, is as follows:—

Age, Inclusive	*Number*	*Percentage*
10 to 13 years	119,804	2.8%
14 and 15 years	226,806	11.6%
16 and 17 years	609,192	31.6%
18 and 19 years	802,235	42.3%
20 to 24 years	1,809,075	38.1%
25 to 44 years	3,417,373	22.4%
45 to 64 years	1,352,479	17.1%
65 years and over	196,900	8.0%
Age unknown	15,647	28.8%

In 1910, the percentage 10 to 13 years of age was 8% and 14 and 15 years, 19.8%.

Of the total number of females fifteen years and over employed, 14% in 1890 were married; 15½% in 1900; 24¾% in 1910 and 23% in 1920.

The following states forbid night work for women in certain or most occupations, the hours from 10 to 6 being usually specified:—California (manufacturing); Connecticut; Delaware; Indiana (manufactur-

ing); Kansas; Massachusetts (manufacturing); Nebraska; New Jersey; New York; Oregon; Pennsylvania (manufacturing); Porto Rico; South Carolina (mercantile establishments; Wisconsin (manufacturing and laundries). In Kansas, Oregon and Wisconsin the prohibition derives from an order of the state industrial commission.

For the states which set a minimum wage for women, see Minimum Wage.

The following table shows the number of hours' work per day and per week permitted for women in most industrial and mercantile work in the several states. About one-third of the states below permit overtime work under abnormal conditions, but the recent tendency is toward the abolition of this restriction. In many cases, canning is excepted.

States	*Hours per Day*	*Week*
California*, District of Columbia*, Porto Rico, Utah	8	48
Colorado, Kansas[1], Montana, Washington, New Mexico[4]	8	..
North Dakota*	8½	48
Massachusetts*, Oregon	9	48
Ohio, Wisconsin	9	50
Arkansas*, Maine, Missouri, Nebraska, New York*, Oklahoma, Texas	9	54
Arizona, Nevada	8	56
Wyoming	8½	52-56
Minnesota	9½	54
Michigan, Pennsylvania*, Rhode Island, New Hampshire[2], New Jersey, South Dakota[3]	10	54
Delaware*, Connecticut	10	55
Idaho	9	..
Vermont	10½	56
Tennessee	10½	57
Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi	10	60
Illinois, Virginia	10	..
South Carolina	10-12	55-60
North Carolina	11	60

*Only six days per week permitted. [1]Seven hours' overtime permitted in emergency. [2]10¼ hours daily permitted. [3]Except telephone and telegraph operators. [4]Mercantile and clerical work excepted.

The following states forbid women's work in mines: Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Missouri, New York, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Utah, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming.

The following states forbid the industrial employment of women for a certain period before and after child-birth: Connecticut, Massachusetts, Missouri, New York, Vermont.

These states by 1923 had no restrictions upon the hours of women's labor—Alabama, Florida, Iowa, Indiana, West Virginia.

Women, Labor of:

Discussed, 7090.

Investigation of, by Department of Commerce and Labor, 6984, 7035.

In Washington, 6983.

Women's Bureau.—This bureau of the Labor Department was established by act of June 5, 1920, developing from the Women in Industry Service, organized in July, 1918, to safeguard the employment of women during War emergency. The Women's Bureau investigates and reports upon all matters connected with the employment of women and formulates standards and policies thereupon.

Wood Pulp should be relieved of tariff duty, 7099, 7346.

Wool and Wool Manufactures.—The following table shows the price of wool in the United States in January of recent years. The figures represent cents per pound. The first column refers to farm price of unwashed wool; the second, to fine clothing (Ohio, Pennsylvania and West Virginia), unwashed, on the Boston market; the third, to territory, fine staple, scoured.

1910	24.5	28	74
1914	15.7	21	52
1916	23.3	28	74
1918	58.1	65	180
1919	55.2	57	160
1920	53.3	70	200
1921	19.6	31	84
1922	18.0	34	97
1923	35.3	50	125

The leading states in the production of wool in a recent year were:—

State	*Pounds Produced*	*Weight Each Fleece*
Wyoming	22,500,000	8.0
Texas	19,300,000	7.2
Utah	15,984,000	7.4
Montana	15,416,000	8.0
Idaho	15,000,000	7.8
Ohio	13,596,000	7.4
California	13,455,000	6.9
Oregon	12,992,000	7.5
New Mexico	9,600,000	6.0
Michigan	7,868,000	7.3
Colorado	6,976,000	6.5
Nevada	6,580,000	6.5
Arizona	6,000,000	6.5

Between five and six million—Iowa and Missouri; between four and five, Washington and South Dakota; between three and four, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois; between two and three, New York, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Kentucky.

The total production was 219,095,000 pounds, each fleece averaging 7.1. The above figures exclude pulled wool.

In the same year, the world production was estimated at 2,270,737,000 pounds, of which Canada contributed 19,125,000; Argentina, 231,483,000; Brazil, 27,000,000; Chile, 31,500,000; Peru, 15,000,000; Uruguay, 80,000,000; France, 38,200,000; Germany, 51,809,000; Italy, 50,000,000; Spain, 165,000,000; United Kingdom, 103,217,000; Algeria, 35,155,000; British South Africa, 187,000,000; Australia and Tasmania, 618,475,000; New Zealand, 175,000,000.

The following table shows the production, imports and consumption of wool in the United States, *in thousands of pounds.*

Year[1]	*Production*	*Imports*	*Consumption*[2]
1840	35,802	9,899	45,615
1850	52,517	18,695	71,176
1860	60,265	26,283	85,335
1870[3]	142,889	53,138	194,601
1880[3]	186,275	68,930	250,214
1890[3]	280,700	93,195	369,486
1900[3]	284,914	165,882	443,809
1910[3]	305,129	193,203	494,461
1914	290,192	247,649	536,301
1917	281,892	372,372	650,285
1919	298,258	422,415	719,522
1921	273,064	318,236	580,128
1922[4]	264,560	320,666	534,389
1923[4]	266,110	(preliminary estimate)	

[1]Fiscal. [2]Deducting exports. [3]Average for decade ending. [4]Calendar.

	Total	Establishments Engaged Chiefly in Manufacturing— Woolen Goods	Worsted Goods	Carpets and Rugs	Felt Goods	Wool-felt Hats
No. Establishments.	1,016	560	292	75	49	40
Persons Engaged...	208,225	67,020	109,372	24,251	5,934	1,648
Capital.....	$989,746,958	$273,973,670	$557,721,078	$119,196,461	$35,024,373	$3,831,376
Salaries and Wages.	236,773,202	79,736,922	119,353,515	28,965,905	6,970,832	1,746,028
Cost of Materials...	759,193,319	217,965,333	447,629,350	67,118,039	22,780,775	3,699,822
Value of Products..	1,234,657,092	364,896,590	700,537,482	123,253,828	39,229,540	6,739,652

In a recent fiscal year, imports of wool into the United States by chief countries were as follows:—

Unmanufactured.	*Pounds*	*Value*
Carpet wool	171,879,192	$34,945,909
United Kingdom.	60,859,099	13,109,701
China	65,139,698	12,859,130
Clothing wool	43,703,289	14,555,027
United Kingdom.	15,407,663	6,132,808
Combing wool	298,496,152	108,117,277
Australia	69,406,989	33,440,173
United Kingdom.	58,657,619	21,739,523
Argentina	77,256,141	19,829,589
Uruguay	42,040,631	15,354,628
British S. Africa	16,187,811	6,434,118
New Zealand	13,666,196	3,935,449
Hair of Angora goat, alpaca, etc.	11,394,024	4,476,684
Total	525,472,657	162,094,897
Rags, noils, waste, reworked wools .	53,504,461	17,801,870
Advanced wool and hair, including tops	7,310,720	4,776,021
Manufactured.		
Yarns	5,654,339	7,189,318
Fabrics & cloths ..	10,032,608	18,953,339
	Sq. Yards	
Carpets, carpeting .	2,355,799	12,027,676
Persia	585,853	3,603,088
China	499,696	2,833,546
United Kingdom..	495,062	1,890,002
Turkey	322,706	1,607,591
Wearing apparel		9,282,150
Hosiery, dz. prs. .	340,786	2,264,619
Total		$50,034,575

Total, wool & manufactures of $234,707,360

The industry of wool manufacturing was surveyed in the last federal census of manufactures and a report thereon, taken as of 1919, published in 1923. The statistics below are taken from that report, which covers the five branches of woolen goods; worsted goods; carpets and rugs, other than rag; felt goods; and wool-felt hats. The leading states in the industry were:—

States	*Value of Products*	*Wage-earners*
Massachusetts	$356,506,000	58,084
Pennsylvania	217,598,000	30,936
Rhode Island	175,312,000	24,393
New Jersey	102,302,000	14,782
New York	100,402,000	18,800

Of the total number of wage-earners, 43% were female. There were 33 establishments with over 1,000 wage-earners each and 34 with between 500 and 1,000. There were 315 with annual products valued at more than $1,000,000 each.

In the preceding five-year period, the entire industry increased 4% in number of establishments, 2% in number of persons engaged (½ of 1% in wage-earners), 19% in primary horsepower, 99% in capital, 161% in salaries, 113% in wages, 155% in cost of materials and 166% in value of products.

Of the total number of wage-earners, 21% were weavers and 10% were spinners.

The following table shows the products of the industry by main classifications:—

Woven goods, personal wear..	$710,466,849
Other woven goods	31,338,008
Carpets and rugs	110,151,089
Felt goods	37,843,349
Wool-felt hats	5,409,505
Yarns	237,971,867
Waste and noils	25,040,863
All other products	57,659,551
Contract work	18,776,011

Wool and Woolen Goods, tariff on, discussed by President—
Grant, 4248.
Jackson, 1247.
Taft, 7402, 7618, 7623, 7677, 7680, 7745.
Wilson, 8918.

Worcester vs. Georgia.—An important Supreme Court case involving the right of individual States to make laws at variance with treaties made by the Government of the United States. Samuel A. Worcester was a missionary among the Cherokees. In 1831 he was arrested by officers of the State of Georgia, tried, and sentenced to four years' imprisonment for living among the Indians in violation of an act of the State legislature which forbade any white person to reside among the Indians without a license from the governor of the State or some one authorized to issue it. Worcester pleaded authorization by the President and by the Cherokees, also the unconstitutionality of the act itself. By a writ of error the case was brought before the United States Supreme Court. That tribunal reversed the decision of the State court and rendered judgment in favor of Worcester on the ground that the Georgia act, being repugnant to the Constitution, to the treaties made by the United States with the Cherokees, and to the laws of Congress in execution thereof, was unconstitutional and void. It was held that the treaties and laws of the United States contemplate the Indian territory as completely separated from that of the States, and provide that all intercourse with the Indians shall be carried on by the Government of the Union.

Workers' International Industrial Union. (See Industrial Workers of the World.)
Workmen's Compensation (See also Employers' Liability):
Act, urged, 7810.
Conference, appropriation for, 7542.
World Court, establishment of, long the hope of America, 8285. (See also Court of International Justice.)
World's Columbian Commission:
Reports of, deposited in State Department, 6181.

Reports of, transmitted, 5567, 5669, 5769.

World's Columbian Exposition.—The idea of celebrating by an exposition the fourth centenary of the discovery of America by Columbus was conceived during the progress of the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876. The project was widely discussed and met with general favor, New York, Washington, St. Louis, and Chicago competing for the site. In February, 1890, Congress authorized the holding of the exposition and designated Chicago as the place. A company had already been organized, with a capital of $5,000,000, for holding the fair.

President Cleveland appointed an official board of managers, and at the close of the fair a full report was filed in the State Department.

The buildings were dedicated Oct. 21, 1892, just 400 years after the landing of Columbus. Owing to the magnitude of the enterprise the exposition did not open until May 1 following, remaining open till the 30th of the following October. It surpassed all previous world's fairs in every respect except in point of attendance, in which it fell below that of the Paris Exposition of 1889 only. Jackson Park and the Midway Plaisance, the site of the exposition, covered 633 acres of land on the shore of Lake Michigan, and of this about 190 acres were under roof. The twenty-eight main exposition buildings occupied 142½ acres, the remainder being covered by state and foreign buildings and concessions. The building devoted to the exhibition of manufactures and liberal arts was the largest in the world. It measured 1,687 by 787 feet and covered 30½ acres. The central hall, 1,280 by 380 feet, was open to the roof, a distance of 237.6 feet, without a supporting column. There were eleven acres of skylight and forty car-loads of glass in the roof, and it required 7,000,000 feet of lumber and five car-loads of nails to lay the floor. The buildings were painted by spraying machines and covered with a composition resembling marble, which gave the fair the name of the "White City."

Fifty-two foreign countries officially participated in the exposition in response to President Harrison's proclamation of Dec. 24, 1890, inviting "all the nations of the earth to take part in the commemoration of an event that is preeminent in human history and of lasting interest to mankind." (Page 5575.) The United States Government appropriations amounted to $6,000,000. There were in all 65,422 exhibitors, 27,529,400 admissions, and the receipts amounted to $14,117,332, exceeding the expenditures by nearly $2,000,000.

See illustration opposite 5163.

World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago:
Board of management of Government exhibit designated, 5833.
Chinese artisans, admission of, to, temporarily, recommended, 5622.
Military encampment to be held during, discussed, 5669.
Proclamation respecting opening of, 5575.
Proposition to observe four hundredth anniversary of discovery of America by opening of, discussed, 5487.
Referred to, 5622.
Reports of—
Deposited in State Department, 6181.
Discussed and recommendations regarding, 5567, 5669, 5765, 5769, 6184.
Resolution of International American Conference regarding, 5512.

World's Fair. (See World's Columbian Exposition.)

World's Industrial and Cotton Centennial Exposition at New Orleans, 4773, 4802, 4804, 4863, 4923.
Board on behalf of Executive Departments designated, 4815, 4817.
Also placed in charge of Cincinnati and Louisville expositions, 4819.
Instructions to, 4819, 4820.
Proclamation regarding, 4746.
Report of board of managers of, referred to, 4953.

World War: —A quite unbiased, neutral and and detached history of the greatest armed conflict in the history of all civilization must wait for calmer days than these. Belligerent nations are naturally prejudiced in their interpretation of events, and when most mankind has been at war, even neutral nations have their sympathies. Moreover, many of the facts necessary to a complete understanding of the developments of the holocaust will not be disclosed until many months after peace will have been signed; and a contemporary chronicler can merely record events as they occurred.

Whatever be the final verdict of history upon the causes which produced the holocaust, however, one fact stands indisputably clear. The war was in no sense an isolated phenomenon, but had its roots in the previous relations between the various European states. Indeed, as one surveys the diplomatic history of the latter half of the nineteenth century, one must ask oneself if the partition of Europe into two hostile camps delicately balanced on a vague and complicated theory of the balance of power could have resulted otherwise than in war.

THE ROOTS OF THE WAR.

The outstanding feature of European history of the last seventy-five years is the remarkable growth and increase of power of the German empire. At the beginning of the nineteenth century, Germany was but an unintegrated conglomeration of petty kingdoms and principalities, most of which were still in medieval conditions. The rise of Prussia under the Fredericks, together with their remarkable ability both to wage war and to form national federations, was the medium which conceived and finally gave birth to modern Germany.

The strength of this newest and most virile of the European countries was indicated when it proceeded to annihilate Denmark in 1864; and was plainly shown when it completely defeated Austria in 1866, and paved the way for that domination of the Hapsburg kingdom which has continued until the present day. But even the best informed statesmen of Europe rubbed their eyes in astonishment at the rapidity and

the ease with which Prussia brought France to her knees in 1870. After that time, there was no nation which would have denied that Germany was dominating all Europe.

Bismarck foresaw that France would never forget or forgive his annexation of Alsace and Lorraine; and the foundation of his diplomacy lay in the absolute isolation of France. (It was a bitter disappointment to him that France was able to pay promptly the enormous indemnity which he had laid upon her.) By a series of negotiations which have probably never been equalled for astuteness, he succeeded in arranging alliances with every country which might possibly unite with France against him.

Despite the humiliation of Austria by Germany in 1866, Bismarck played upon her fear of Russia sufficiently to consummate an offensive and defensive alliance with Austria. He then played upon Russia's conflicting interests with Austria in the Balkans and probably upon her possible rivalry with England in the East to conclude a similar alliance with Russia. Italy and Austria were at loggerheads about the "Irredenta," and the rising threat of the Catholic party in France filled Italy with uneasiness; so that Germany was able to conclude an alliance with Italy in return for protection against France and Austria. England had no interests upon the Continent; and as Germany had not yet challenged her commercial supremacy and had not even thought of colonial expansion, England presented no problem.

The leadership of Germany was well shown at the Congress of Berlin, in 1878, called to adjust the results of Russo-Turkish war. The various nations there represented took the law practically as Bismarck laid it down to them.

When William II, the present German emperor, came to the throne in 1888, however, he soon evinced impatience with the aged Chancellor, and in 1890, "dropped the pilot" altogether. Soon afterwards, the system of protection which Bismarck had devised for Germany began to fall apart.

Russia's interests in the Balkans and her desire for Constantinople could hardly be reconciled with Austria's interests; and Germany no longer had been able to keep both of them on her string. William chose to retain Austria; and as Russia was sadly in need of the funds which frugal and therefore prosperous France could lend her for her internal improvements, an offensive and defensive alliance between France and Russia resulted. Moreover, Italian bitterness against Austria could no longer be restrained, and as France soon disestablished Church and state, and thereby removed the danger of the Catholic animus against Italy, there is every reason to believe that Italy let it be known secretly to Germany that she could not be counted upon in the plans of that latter country, although publicly the "Triple Alliance" between Germany, Austria and Italy seemed to be firm.

Moreover, with the beginning of the twentieth century, German efficiency had begun to undermine England's industrial supremacy, and the commercial competition between the two countries became bitter. Probably to develop new fields for her marvelous factories, Germany also began to lay plans for colonial expansion, and England awoke with a start to the danger presented by her isolation. The contemplated German railroad to Bagdad menaced the road to India, and England came eagerly into an "entente" with France and Russia.

Nevertheless, Germany was still all-powerful in European diplomacy. In 1904, she demanded the retirement of the French foreign minister, the able and anti-German Delcassé, and despite the utter humiliation involved, France did not see her way clear to resist the demand, although she defeated Germany in the diplomatic conference following the Moroccan troubles in 1905. Moreover, Russia's prestige was sadly diminished as a result of her defeat by Japan. In 1908, Germany again dominated when she supported Austria in the latter country's absorption of Bosnia and Herzegovina, when the Entente again felt itself too weak to resist.

It was in 1911, as a result of the Agadir dispute concerning Morocco, that Germany's challenge was met by France, supported by England and Russia. Germany's demands were refused, and for a period war hung almost by a hair. But Germany did not risk it, and for the first time in more than forty years she could not dominate.

In September, 1911, Italy, despite pressure from Germany, opened war against Turkey in order to annex the Turkish colony of Tripoli, on the south shore of the Mediterranean. Italy, however, met with great difficulties in her attack, until the Balkan states seized, in October, 1912, the opportunity also to open war upon Turkey and thus compelled Turkey to end the Turco-Italian War by granting Tripoli to Italy.

The Balkan states uniting to drive Turkey from Europe were Greece, Servia, Bulgaria and Montenegro, Roumania remaining aloof. In surprisingly short order, they reduced Turkey to her knees and prepared to share the territorial spoils of this First Balkan War. But the great Powers refused to permit Albania, which had been assigned to Servia, to become part of a greater Servia, lest both Austro-Hungarian and Italian aspirations along the Adriatic be balked. Servia thereupon demanded, as recompense, territory assigned to Bulgaria in Macedonia and inhabited chiefly by Bulgars; Bulgaria refused to yield it; the resulting disputes became acrimonious; Greece and Montenegro supported Servia; whereupon Bulgaria declared war upon this trio of her opponents in June, 1913. At this moment, however, both Roumania and Turkey attacked Bulgaria, in the hope of profiting by her downfall; and Bulgaria, helpless against such a combination, was forced to conclude the Second Balkan War by suing for peace in July, 1913.

But Turkey was the ally of Germany, and Austria-Hungary had long supported Bulgaria, against the opposition of Russia, who had long supported Servia. Therefore the camp led by Germany had once more suffered a sharp loss of power and prestige, and a weakening of its hold upon the Balkans.

Moreover, the Socialist party in Germany had polled 35 per cent of the vote in the 1912 elections. It had been increasing in numbers and influence since that year, and within several more years might easily be sufficiently strong to prevent the intrigues which could be utilized as pretexts for war. The heavy taxes made necessary by the maintenance of Germany's military establishment and by her naval expansion could not be continued indefinitely at the acceleration of the previous few years. Across the western frontier, France in 1913 had passed laws providing for three years' instead of

two years' training in the army for her youth; and if Germany delayed much longer, the French army would be almost as powerful as the German. Across the eastern frontier, Russia was beginning to recover from the effects of her military defeat by Japan in 1904-5, and, under the anxious tutelage of both the French and the British War Offices, was preparing an army increase on a hitherto unapproached scale. If Germany was to dominate the world, it had become by 1914 a case of another successful coup like those of 1905 and 1908, with Entente submission—or else war.

In the spring of 1918, Prince Lichnowsky, German ambassador to Great Britain at the outbreak of the war, made public memoranda confessing that Great Britain had steadily tried to bring about a "rapprochement" with Germany and to bind the two nations in a more friendly relationship. In his statement denying many of Prince Lichnowsky's statements, the Foreign Minister under whom he served, von Jagow, admitted the implication of the diplomatic history sketched above—namely, that Germany recognized that she could no longer dominate Europe in peaceful diplomatic negotiations, and that she could regain or even strengthen her former position of domination only by war, or by threat of war.

These political and diplomatic developments, however, had their roots in almost every phase of European activity. Particularly, they were made possible by the growth of the nationalistic impulse throughout the nineteenth century. At the close of the Napoleonic Wars, the partition of Europe was arranged with scant heed to the cultural demands of various suppressed nationalities. Within Austria-Hungary were many national elements with little in common; the Balkan peninsula was a hotbed of racial groups, with now one in the saddle, now another, but with the powerful always repressing the weaker; neither France nor the inhabitants of Alsace-Lorraine could rest contented while those provinces were a part of German culture; Russia might be Slavic, but some of her elements, for instance the Ukrainians and the Lithuanians, had no desire to wrap up their destinies with those of the Great Russians; more than one hundred years of partition and dependence had failed to shake the longing of the Poles for a country and a literature of their own; and the geographical boundaries of Italy were not broad enough to include those lands and peoples which inherently were a part of Italian national life. Dominating all this smouldering volcano was the so-called Pan-German movement—a movement of a new and young nation which had developed its own national life in so brilliant a fashion as virtually to assume the leadership of the world, but in which success had inculcated so heedless and so unscrupulous a national pride that Germany held itself justified in forcing its civilization and culture upon all other peoples, no matter what the civilization and culture of the latter and no matter how distasteful to them might be the German idea.

Forming the frame for this ferment of unrestrainable forces were the industrial needs of the last twenty-five years. The extent to which economic competitions and aggressions were responsible for a situation which could make possible the outbreak of a world war is a matter of individual opinions, varying in accordance with the amount of influence assigned economic motives in one's philosophy of life. But it is undeniable that the tremendously accelerated production due to new mechanical inventions had made national markets no longer adequate for the great enterprises of the great nations, and the wealth and influence of those nations were dependent upon the extent of the new markets which they could control. Preferential tariffs; colonies and colonial expansions; access to the natural wealth of the great undeveloped lands of the earth, especially Africa and Siberia; the control of the important harbors of maritime traffic, with their coaling facilities, and of international waterways and canals; the manipulation of international finance and banking—all these aspirations were the pawns pitted against each other by the Great Powers of Europe on their chessboard of the world.

On June 28, 1914, the pan-Slav agitation in Servia came to inevitable fruition with the murder in Sarajevo, the capital of Bosnia, of Archduke Franz Ferdinand the heir apparent to the throne of Austria-Hungary.

THE FOURTEEN DAYS.

July 23, 1914.—Austria-Hungary delivers her expected ultimatum to Servia, making demands of which at least two cannot be granted without a virtual surrender of Servia to Austro-Hungarian domination. It is the first sight of the war-clouds.

July 24.—Germany supports Austria-Hungary and Russia supports Servia. France assures Russia of support. England works for a peaceful settlement.

July 25.—Servia replies to the ultimatum in a most conciliatory fashion, granting all but two of the Austrian demands. Servia begins mobilization and Russia secretly orders partial mobilization. Austria-Hungary declares Servia's answer unsatisfactory.

July 27.—Germany announces that Russian mobilization will be followed by German mobilization. Russia refuses England's request to postpone mobilization and announces that she will not permit Servia to be crushed. Russian mobilization begins. The British fleet remains mobilized after naval manoeuvres.

July 28.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Servia and proceeds with general mobilization. Russia announces to Germany that Russian mobilization will take place only against Austria-Hungary and not against Germany.

July 29.—Hostilities between Servia and Austria-Hungary begin. Germany holds a war council at Potsdam, warning that she will mobilize unless Russian mobilization ceases. France assures Russia of support. England declines to promise neutrality in case of a general European war.

July 30.—Austria-Hungary, alarmed, becomes more conciliatory, and hints at arbitration. Russia threatens general as well as partial mobilization, and at midnight carries out the threat.

July 31.—Germany replies by an ultimatum, demanding from Russia an agreement within twelve hours to countermand the Russian general mobilization. Germany asks France what France's course will be in case of a German-Russian war. England asks German guarantees of respect for Belgian neutrality, but Germany, as previously, refuses to commit herself. Belgium mobilizes.

August 1.—Russia makes no reply to the German ultimatum within the time-limit set. Germany undertakes not to attack France in case France will remain neutral. France informs Germany, in reply to the ultimatum of the previous day, that in case of a German-Russian War, France will act as her

own interests dictate. France orders general mobilization. Austria-Hungary is still conciliatory, but the quarrel has passed out of her hands. At 7:10 P. M., having received no answer to her ultimatum to Russia, *Germany declares war on Russia.*

August 2.—Germany demands from Belgium passage-way for her troops and sends forces into Luxemburg.

August 3.—Belgium refuses the German demand for passage-way. England informs Germany that violation of Belgian neutrality will bring England into the war. Citing alleged hostile acts by France, *Germany declares war on France.*

August 4.—German troops enter Belgium, against Belgian resistance. England delivers an ultimatum to Germany, demanding the withdrawal of the German troops from Belgian soil. Germany refusing, the British ambassador demands his passports, and at midnight *England declares war on Germany.*

August 5.—Austria-Hungary declares war on Russia.

Declarations of war were made as follows:

Austria v. Belgium, August 28, 1914.
Austria v. Japan, August 27, 1914.
Austria v. Montenegro, August 9, 1914.
Austria v. Russia, August 6, 1914.
Austria v. Serbia, July 28, 1914.
Brazil v. Germany, October 26, 1917.
Bulgaria v. Serbia, October 14, 1915.
China v. Austria, August 14, 1917.
China v. Germany, August 14, 1917.
Costa Rica v. Germany, May 23, 1918.
Cuba v. Austria, December 16, 1917.
Cuba v. Germany, April 7, 1917.
France v. Austria, August 13, 1914.
France v. Bulgaria, October 16, 1915.
France v. Germany, August 3, 1914.
France v. Turkey, November 5, 1914.
Germany v. Belgium, August 4, 1914.
Germany v. France, August 3, 1914.
Germany v. Portugal, March 9, 1916.
Germany v. Rumania, September 14, 1916.
Germany v. Russia, August 1, 1914.
Great Britain v. Austria, August 13, 1914.
Great Britain v. Bulgaria, October 15, 1915.
Great Britain v. Germany, August 4, 1914.
Great Britain v. Turkey, November 5, 1914.
Greece (provisional government) v. Bulgaria, November 28, 1916.
Greece (provisional government) v. Germany, November 28, 1916.
Greece (Government of Alexander) v. Bulgaria, July 2, 1917.
Greece (Government of Alexander) v. Germany, July 2, 1917.
Guatemala v. Austria, April 22, 1918.
Guatemala v. Germany, April 22, 1918.
Haiti v. Germany, July 12, 1918.
Honduras v. Germany, July 19, 1918.
Italy v. Austria, May 24, 1915.
Italy v. Bulgaria, October 19, 1914.
Italy v. Germany, August 28, 1916.
Italy v. Turkey, August 21, 1915.
Japan v. Germany, August 23, 1914.
Liberia v. Germany, August 4, 1917.
Montenegro v. Austria, August 8, 1914.
Monenegro v. Germany, August 9, 1914.
Nicaragua v. Germany and her allies, may 7, 1918.
Panama v. Austria, December 10, 1917.
Panama v. Germany, April 7, 1917.
Portugal v. Germany, November 23, 1914. (Resolution passed authorizing military intervention as ally of Great Britain.)
Portugal v. Germany, May 19, 1915. (Military aid granted.)
Roumania v. Austria, August 27, 1916. (Allies of Austria also consider it a declaration.)
Russia v. Bulgaria, October 19, 1915.
Russia v. Turkey, November 3, 1914.
San Marino v. Austria, May 24, 1915.
Serbia v. Bulgaria, October 16, 1915.
Serbia v. Germany, August 6, 1914.
Serbia v. Turkey, December 2, 1914.
Siam v. Austria, July 21, 1917.
Siam v. Germany, July 21, 1917.
Turkey v. Allies, November 23, 1914.
Turkey v. Roumania, August 29, 1916.
United States v. Austria-Hungary, December 7, 1917.
United States v. Germany, April 6, 1917.

Severance of diplomatic relations has been as follows:

Austria against Japan, August 26, 1914.
Austria against Portugal, March 16, 1916.
Austria against Serbia, July 26, 1914.
Austria against United States, April 8, 1917.
Bolivia against Germany, April 14, 1917.
Brazil against Germany, April 11, 1917.
China against Germany, March 14, 1917.
Costa Rica against Germany, September 21, 1917.
Ecuador against Germany, December 7, 1917.
Egypt against Germany, August 13, 1914.
France against Austria, August 10, 1914.
Greece against Turkey, July 2, 1917 (government of Alexander).
Greece against Austria, July 2, 1917 (government of Alexander).
Guatemala against Germany, April 27, 1917.
Haiti against Germany, June 17, 1917.
Honduras against Germany, May 17, 1917.
Liberia v. Germany, May 8, 1917.
Nicaragua against Germany, May 18, 1917.
Peru against Germany, October 6, 1917.
Turkey against United States, April 20, 1917.
United States against Germany, February 3, 1917.
Uruguay against Germany, October 7, 1917.

At war with Germany or her allies on June 1, 1918:

Serbia, France, Great Britain, Montenegro, Japan, Belgium, Italy, San Marino, Portugal, Greece, Cuba, Panama, Siam, Liberia, China, Brazil, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and the United States.

The various belligerents, soon after their respective entrances into the war, published their own official versions of the circumstances which led to their participation. These versions were in the forms of booklets, and were named by the color of the covers, as follows:

Blue Books, England and Servia; Gray Book, Belgium; Green Book, Italy; Orange, Russia and Holland; Red, Austria-Hungary; Red, White and Blue, United States; White, Germany and Portugal; Yellow, France.

THE GERMAN PLAN OF CAMPAIGN.

The vastness of Russia's population compelled Germany to assume the aggressive immediately upon the outbreak of the War. For if Russia should be unhindered in gathering her vast man-power, her armies alone would be thrice the size of the German. Moreover, Russia lay to the east of Germany and France to the west, so that Germany was compelled to wage two campaigns simultaneously.

On the other hand, the mobilizing resources of Russia were notoriously scant. According to German calculations, it would be six weeks or two months before the Russian army could arrive near the German border in sufficient numbers to compel the diversion of a great part of Germany's strength to the east—all the more since Austria-Hungary was counted upon to keep busy the first armies which Russia should be able to mobilize.

Thus the German plan was to crush France within six weeks or two months; then to turn her undivided strength to crush Russia, held in check until that time by Austria-Hungary; after which there would be ample time to turn attention to the British, who had adopted no policy of universal military training and who therefore could not present an army of more than several hundred thousand until 1915.

Of the three roads to Paris open to Germany, the road via Switzerland presented too many material difficulties to be considered. The most practicable road would have seemed at first blush to be that through Alsace and Lorraine. But the country in that section was hilly and therefore both unsuited for the rapid movement of troops and also admirably suited for defence. Moreover, it was from this quarter that France had long expected attack, and along the Alsace-Lorraine frontier France had erected and connected the four mighty fortresses of Toul, Épinal, Verdun and Belfort. The reduction of these strongholds would immeasurably delay the German plans. Finally, there was the probability that the Alsace-Lorraine frontier was not long enough to avoid crowding, and hence delay, in thrusting through it the vast hordes of men which Germany intended to use against France.

Therefore the road via Belgium and Luxemburg was chosen. Luxemburg, although technically neutral, had no army and could not delay the German advance. The violation of Belgian neutrality would constitute an act of glaring international immorality, but Germany was under the spell of that system of thought which yields to no scruples in accomplishing the task ahead of it. Similarly, the violation of Belgian neutrality would ensure England's entrance into the war; but, as we have seen, England was committed to France by a close defensive alliance. Moreover, England had consummated with France in 1912 a secret understanding, probably known to Germany, whereby England was at once to go to France's assistance in case France were attacked by Germany, irrespective of the violation of Belgium's neutrality. Furthermore, there was on the Belgian frontier but one French fortress of strength on the road to Paris. The country was level and admirably suited for the rapid advance of huge bodies of troops, even for the use of cavalry on a large scale. Finally, for years Germany had been constructing to the Belgian frontier a great net-work of military railroads, which would land the German armies almost intact at the boundaries of King Albert's kingdom.

Belgium, of course, was expected to resist to the utmost, but the Belgian army was weak and Germany anticipated little delay in rolling it back to the west, beyond the area of Germany's passage-way into France. True, several of the Belgian fortresses lay in that passage-way, but recent experiments had convinced the German General Staff that their high explosives and large caliber guns could render even the strongest fortresses helpless in a short space of time.

As Germany's plan was inevitably aggressive, France's plan was inevitably defensive. She must attempt to stave off the first rush of the German cohorts, always retreating rather than risk surrender or encirclement, until Russia's blows in the east could relieve the pressure. If France could stave off defeat for some months, the British manpower also could make itself effective.

England's plan was naturally to send as many reinforcements as possible to the assistance of France and to speed the development of an army large enough to turn the scales of battle. In the meantime, the British fleet would completely control the seas and impose upon Germany a blockade the strictness of which would tell upon Germany's strength as the months rolled up.

Russia, as we have seen, was to mobilize as quickly as possible. Her first armies would have to be sent against the offensive to be expected from Austria-Hungary to the south; and after the pressure in the south was relieved, Russia must hasten to form armies on the German frontier in order to relieve the pressure on France.

Austria-Hungary, finally, could not altogether neglect the war she had started with Servia, but obviously was to throw most of her strength against Russia so that her ally would not be interrupted while in the process of annihilating France.

THE WAR, 1914

IN THE WEST

The German Advance into Belgium.—Instead of sending one army after another directly toward Paris, Germany dispatched her first forces due west across Belgium. Thus, the first troops marching through Belgium would reach the point farthest west, and be ready to turn south, at the same time that the last troops would be entering Belgium, so that all the troops could then march in practically a straight line toward Paris. The very first troops sent into Belgium, however, were used for the reduction of that country. They were under the command of von Emmich, and had been mobilized within several days, whereas the complete German mobilization was not finished until about August 12.

The three great Belgian fortresses were Liège, Namur and Antwerp, of which only the first two barred the road toward France. Antwerp being on the sea. Von Emmich made all haste for the first of these, arrived before its gates on August 5, and immediately demanded its surrender. Meanwhile, the Belgian army of some 125,000 had been mobilized, portions of it were in a position to assist Liège, and when the German demand for surrender was peremptorily refused, the first great battle of the World War opened.

The Fall of Liège and Namur.—Von Emmich's troops were repulsed in their attacks on the fortress on August 5, and he was compelled to await the arrival of his artillery on the following day. On August 6, also, new quotas of the German army arrived, flanked the city, and attacked in force while the heavy guns demolished the forts. On the next day, two of the strongest forts of Liège were rendered helpless, so that the supporting Belgian troops retired and left further defence solely to the garrison. On August 7, the city was occupied, the bridges across the Meuse fell into the hands of the invaders, the road south was thus opened, and von Emmich went ahead with greater deliberation, while the next German army

(the First), under von Kluck, crossed the Meuse and proceeded on its way. Heroic resistance allowed the garrison of Liège to resist until August 14, when the last fort fell before the devastating fire of the German heavy guns. Liège had inspired the world with the heroism of Belgium, but had not delayed the German plans.

The next Belgian fortress to be overcome was Namur, to the southwest of Liège, and more strongly fortified and defended. Von Kluck's army had marched due west, and it was the German Second Army, under von Bülow, which reached the Belgian lines in front of Namur on August 18. The entire Belgian army was stationed before the city, but the greater size of the German forces enabled them to flank the Belgians, and to compel them to retire to avoid encirclement. By August 20, the Belgian army, almost without striking a blow, had been forced back into Antwerp, safe, but no longer in the path of the Germans. Meanwhile, the withdrawal of Albert's forces allowed the capital, Brussels, and Louvain, to fall without a struggle into the hands of von Kluck's First Army.

The Germans had learned a lesson at Liège, and von Bülow did not attempt to reduce Namur until his heavy guns were in position. The bombardment opened on August 20, and its ceaseless steel rain reduced the fortress to virtual impotence within three days. On August 24, the Germans occupied the town, and on August 26, the fortress. Namur had been counted upon by the Allies for a more longer resistance, and its fall within several days sadly disarranged all the Allied plans, placing in dire peril the British and French troops which were being assembled near the French border to meet the invaders. Meantime, the last of the German forces entering Belgium, the German Third Army, under von Hausen, had also crossed the frontier, and it started south at the same time that the First and Second Armies to the west wheeled, almost at a right angle, and likewise started for Paris. To the east of the Third Army, the Fourth and Fifth Armies, under the Duke of Württemberg and the Crown Prince, respectively, crossed through Luxemburg, and also drove south.

The German Advance through France.—Meanwhile, France seems not to have realized the seriousness of the thrust through Belgium and Luxemburg. At all events, she concentrated most of her forces along the Alsace-Lorraine frontier, according to prearranged schedule, and even entered upon an advance into this German territory, where within three weeks French troops occupied Saarburg, Mülhausen and Altkirch, before being driven back by the Germans. By August 20, however, the French realized the peril, hastily abandoned the eastern offensive, and made all haste to withdraw all their forces to the north.

The British Expeditionary Force, some 100,000 strong, had landed in France on August 18, and by August 23 had marched north to the Belgian border at Mons, forming the extreme left of the Allied forces, opposite the German First Army. On its east was the French Fifth Army, under Lanrezac, just below Namur, joined to the British at Charleroi, and facing the German Second Army. But further to the east, the German Third Army was driving ahead unopposed, since the French Fourth Army to the east was fully occupied with the German Fourth Army.

When the Battle of Mons-Charleroi opened, therefore, on August 23, the right flank of the French Fifth Army had to be extended beyond the safety point, to prevent flanking movements by the German Third Army. The German Second Army thus had little difficulty in driving back the French center and left, so that the French had to retreat, leaving the British right flank exposed.

The British had resisted stubbornly at Mons, although steadily driven back by the superior numbers of the German First Army, until they learned that the French had retreated and that a German corps was swinging into position in their rear. A precipitate retreat was therefore ordered, which compelled a further French retreat, and for ten days the British were mercilessly driven helter-skelter back upon Paris by the alternate hammer-blows of first the German First and then the German Second Army. It was a complete rout, cutting down the British forces to about half their strength, breaking up their formation, and resulting in complete exhaustion but in an almost miraculous escape from utter destruction. The French Fifth Army likewise retreated precipitately, although preserving a better semblance of order, and punishing the enemy in some rear-guard engagements, notably at Guise and St. Quentin. All this time, the French commander-in-chief, Joffre, was frantically rushing up reinforcements from the Alsace-Lorraine frontier, but the withdrawal of the British and of Lanrezac had compelled the withdrawal, although in good order, of all the French forces west of Verdun, comprising the French Fourth and Third Armies.

It seemed as though the German plan of campaign was bearing fruit and that only complete disaster lay ahead of the Allies. For it was not until September 3 that the British were able to rally sufficiently to offer resistance once more and that the French reinforcements were able to join the Fifth, Fourth and Third Armies in full strength; and by that time the Germans had advanced more than one hundred miles into French territory and were as far south as Paris itself.

Battle of the Marne.—The retreat of the British and of the French Fifth Army had left Paris exposed to capture, since there was not sufficient time to station north of Paris the troops diverted by Joffre from the Alsace-Lorraine frontier, and they could be placed only to the east of the French capital. But the German General Staff rightly placed the capture of the Allied army above the capture of Paris, and von Kluck swerved in front of the city, which he could readily have taken, and passed southeast of it. (In the meantime, the seat of the French Government had been removed to Bordeaux.) Thus on September 4, when the Allies were at last ready to cease retreating and to give battle, the opposing forces were facing each other south of the Marne River and north of the Seine. It must not be forgotten that the Battle of the Marne thus took place along a line between Paris and Verdun, running to the south and east of Paris. For the four great French fortresses on the Alsace-Lorraine frontier had held, and the German Sixth and Seventh Armies had not been able to break through to aid the five armies which had advanced west of Verdun.

To some extent, the reinforcements gathered by Joffre had been added to the French armies previously formed. But most of them went into the formation of a new army, the French Seventh Army, stationed just north of the Seine between the French Fifth and Fourth Armies, and placed under the command of General Ferdinand Foch. However,

the French formed more than one new army. By troops rushed up from their African possessions and by members of the Paris garrison, another army, the French Sixth Army, was organized in Paris, was placed under General Manoury, and, when Joffre at last ordered a general advance on September 5, was marched out to attack the German First Army on its western flank.

Von Kluck had anticipated something of a move against his right wing, and, as he swung below Paris to pursue the fast-retreating British, he had left one army corps along the Ourcq River, around Meaux, northeast of Paris. But Manoury greatly outnumbered this single corps, completely defeated it, put it to rout on September 5, and on September 6 made for von Kluck's rear.

Only one road then lay open to von Kluck. To avoid being taken in the rear and thus disrupting the entire German line, he cleverly turned in a complete circle and retraced his steps in order to drive Manoury back. Indeed, on September 7 and 8, von Kluck arrived in force opposite Manoury and easily crushed the new French army, threatening to hurl it back into Paris, whence it had started. But this retirement of von Kluck back to the northwest compelled a shift in the entire German line; for if it had remained stationary, a serious gap would have come into existence between von Kluck and the German Second Army on his right. Therefore, the Second Army also shifted to the west, leaving a gap in the German lines between the Second and the Third Armies. And when von Kluck fell upon Manoury, the German Third Army, instead of also shifting to the west to close the gap, attacked in force the French Seventh Army under Foch, in the hope of breaking the center of the French line.

But the westward shift of the German Second Army allowed the French Fifth Army, facing it, to send some reinforcements to Foch, who on September 7, 8 and 9 was being steadily driven back. And it was these reinforcements which suddenly turned the tide of battle and miraculously saved France. For Foch's uncanny penetration showed him a weak point in the east wing of the German army which was driving him back, and on the afternoon of September 9 he hurled his reinforcements at this Achille's heel of Germany's armor.

The fresh French troops cut through the east wing of the German Third Army as a knife cuts through cheese, and in several hours the entire German Third Army was being flanked on its left. At the same time, Foch attacked it in the center, so that von Hausen could not send reinforcements to his bending left. Before midnight on September 9, the entire German Third Army, holding the center of the German line, had been driven back and Foch was pouring his troops into the hole thus opened up.

On September 10, Foch turned to the west and threatened to flank the German Second and First Armies. The latter had not only to protect themselves, but also to lend assistance to von Hausen, in order to enable him to retreat in good order; and thus they were in no position to withstand a further attack, especially since by this time the British had once more become effective and were streaming through the gap left when the German Second Army shifted to the west and the German Third Army remained stationary to attack Foch. Von Hausen, therefore, was compelled overnight to call off his drive upon Manoury, and when September 10 dawned, the German armies were in full flight back to the Aisne, where they dug themselves in. France had been saved by the "Miracle of the Marne."

The Race to the Sea.—After one week's attempt to break the German lines along the Aisne, Joffre discovered that the trenches were too strong to be captured by storm; so he inaugurated a vast encircling movement to the west, in order to occupy the land between the opposing armies and the sea. At the same time, the Germans realized the value of this territory, both to prevent being flanked and also to gain submarine bases along the Belgian seacoast. Hence both the Allies and the Germans withdrew forces from the Alsace-Lorraine frontier, adding increments to their west wings, until these successive additions occupied all the land to the sea, and the battle-line of trenches reached all the way from the ocean to the border of Switzerland. However, Lille, the other great French fortress on the Belgian frontier, had been invested, and it fell on October 10.

In the meantime, Maubeuge, the one great French fortress on the Belgian frontier, which had been in the path of the German invasion, had also been invested and it had fallen on September 7.

Battle of the Aisne.—The Aisne River is a sluggish canalized river about 170 miles long flowing generally westward into the Oise through a valley from half a mile to two miles wide between plateaus 400 feet high on each side. While on the drive to Paris the Germans had prepared a strong position on the northern plateau upon which to make a stand in case of possible retreat. Concrete platforms had been built for heavy guns, and commodious trenches with overhead protection against shrapnel had been constructed for the infantry. The right of the position rested on the Noyon Hills west of the Oise, north of its junction with the Aisne. From this point the line ran east along the Aisne about forty miles and then south by east by Reims to Verdun. Four railways ran back from this position into Belgium and a fifth ran east and west at a convenient distance in the rear of the lines. The German retreat abruptly halted Sept. 12 at Soissons, where the river is about sixty yards wide. Here the armies were deadlocked from the Noyon Hills to the Swiss frontier. The allies sent out forces to turn the German right and strike the railways in their rear, but each expedition resulted only in a pitched battle and the extension of the German lines northward. By Oct. 7, the 25th day of the fighting along the Aisne, the lines had been prolonged to La Bassee, ten miles from the Belgian frontier, and the net result of the fighting after ten months was the extension of the lines from the confluence of the Aisne and Oise rivers into Flanders and as close to the English Channel coast as operations of the British navy would permit. This line was roughly marked by the towns of Vermelles, Armentieres, Ypres, Bixshoote and Dixmude, which became the scenes of fierce struggles. French reserve troops, detachments from the French active army, the British expeditionary force, British Indians, Senegalese, and Turcos went to make up the prolongation of the allies' front.

On the southeast end of the German line the Crown Prince in September sent out several army corps to cut the line south of Verdun, but only succeeded in reaching St. Mihiel, which during the first half of 1915 continued to be a starting point for aggressive movements.

Fall of Antwerp.—All this time, the Belgian army in Antwerp had been making sorties, and with both sides racing for the sea, the acquisition of Antwerp became of prime importance to the German armies.

Antwerp was considered to be probably the strongest fortress in all Europe. The city had a population of more than 300,000. It was defended by two rings of forts—an inner one of eight forts, about two miles from an old enceinte which encircled the city, and an outer ring of fifteen forts, at distances varying from six to nine miles from the enceinte. Four special features contributed to the strength of Antwerp: (1) the close proximity of the neutral Dutch frontier on the north and northwest, which reduced the front to be defended; (2) the existence of a large inundated area on the west and northwest, which served the same purpose; (3) the position of the River Scheldt, which protected the city on the west and offered a secure passage through Holland for supplies from the sea; (4) the position of the River Nethe, which runs close to the rear of the outer ring of forts and furnishes an inundated area for the protection of the city on the southeast.

Sept. 28 the German guns opened upon two of the forts of the outer ring south of the city. On the 29th one of these was blown up and the other was destroyed the following day. The next two forts to the right were silenced Oct. 1, and the Belgian infantry were compelled to withdraw across the Nethe, where they were supported by the British. On the 5th the Belgian army withdrew and the Germans crossed the Nethe and occupied Antwerp, coming into complete possession by the 9th. A war tax of $7,000,000 a month was levied upon the city and a civil governor placed in charge. Many stories were told of attacks by civilians upon the soldiers after surrender and of retaliatory measures by the Germans which were calculated to excite the sympathies of neutrals. Indeed, it is not too much to say that her procedure in Belgium was the strongest of the many factors which condemned the Kaiser's government at the bar of international public opinion.

Fighting in Flanders.—Having taken Antwerp the Germans began sending large armies toward Dunkirk and Calais. The Belgian army held the Germans back of the Yser River at Nieuport, and, assisted by British warships in the Channel, forced them from the coast. Between Nieuport and Ypres the German advance was checked by cutting the dykes and flooding the country.

Battle of Ypres.—About the middle of October, 1914, the Germans began massing their troops in the vicinity of Ypres, and the attacks grew fiercer each day. Their evident intention was to force their way to Calais. By Nov. 5 the attacks ceased. The allies, on the defensive, lost 100,000 men, killed, wounded and missing, and it is supposed the German offensive cost twice as many, so that the losses about Ypres must have reached close to 300,000 men.

By the end of 1914, therefore, fighting in the west had become a deadlock, a series of monotonous trench struggles not broken until the great German successes in the spring of 1918 once more forced the fighting into the open.

ON THE EASTERN FRONT

Battle of Lemberg.—Austro-Hungarian forces invaded Russia immediately after the outbreak of the War, but they were in the nature of an advance guard. They comprised one army under General Dankl. The main Austro-Hungarian force under von Auffenburg was kept in Galicia, to repel the Russian invasion into Hungary. The Russian forces mobilized in the south against Austria-Hungary comprised two armies, one under Russky and the other under Brusiloff. On August 14, less than two weeks after the declaration of war, they crossed the Galician frontier and on August 23 met von Auffenburg's forces, drawn up in front of Przemysl and Lemberg.

For several days, the Austro-Hungarians maintained their lines, and even gained minor victories, as the two Russian armies had converged from different points and had not yet effected a junction. But on August 28, the Russians captured Tarnopol, on the Bug River, and thus consolidated into one army which greatly outnumbered von Auffenburg. The Austro-Hungarians, however, risked battle, with the result that the superior numbers of the Russians let the latter flank von Auffenburg on both wings. By September 1, the Austro-Hungarian lines had been bent back almost into a circle and a rapid retreat therefore became imperative. On September 4, the Russians captured Lemberg, with the result that the Austro-Hungarians had to abandon all pretense of further resistance and flee wildly through the scanty space left in their rear for retirement. By September 7, von Auffenburg's great army was completely dispersed, Dankl had to retire to avoid being surrounded, and the Russians plunged deeply into Galicia and into northern Hungary, laying waste the country-side, investing Przemysl, threatening to capture Cracow, and compelling strong reinforcements from Germany to the aid of her defeated ally.

The Battle of Tannenburg.—So far the war had proceeded according to preconceptions, but in the third week of August, 1914, the Russians delivered a complete surprise by moving in force into East Prussia. Germany had not anticipated such an advance, and had few troops available to resist it; so that by August 23 the Russians had gained some notable victories and were threatening to penetrate even more deeply into the center of Prussia.

But on August 23, the German command in East Prussia was given to a retired general with a matchless knowledge of the topography of East Prussia, named Paul von Hindenburg. He managed to scrape together an army of some 200,000, with which he moved against the Russians. The latter were in two armies, under Generals Samsonof and Rennenkampf, and by the time that Hindenburg was ready, they had made the mistake of allowing themselves to be separated by the Mazurian Lakes and Swamps.

Hindenburg moved first upon the southern Russian army under Samsonof. For three days the German leader was occupied in beating off the Russian attacks, after which he turned the Russian flanks and drove Samsonof into the Mazurian Lake region, where the latter's army was literally cut in half by death or capture. Meanwhile, Rennenkampf to the north had made no move to come to the assistance of his colleague, and Hindenburg next led his victorious army through the Mazurian Lake region to fall upon Rennenkampf's rear. The Russians had expected an attack from their right, instead of from their left; and, rather than risk being taken in the rear, hastily beat a retreat, so that by the middle of September all Prussia was free of Russians.

For the remainder of the year, the Germans in the east contented themselves with launching several drives at Warsaw, the capital of Russian Poland, which did not succeed in capturing the fortress, but which did succeed in compelling Russia to rush up forces from Galicia, thus relieving the pressure upon Cracow and upon the Austro-Hungarian armies.

ON OTHER FRONTS

The Capture of Kiao-Chau.—For some years before 1914, Japan had been the ally of Great Britain, and Japan naturally used the War as an occasion for seizing the one considerable German possession in the Far East, on which she had long cast envious eyes. On August 19, Japan demanded from Germany the surrender of Germany's holdings at Kiao-Chau and the Shantung Peninsula and, on failing to receive a favorable answer, declared war on August 23. Kiao-Chau was strongly fortified, and Japan therefore proceeded against it with deliberation, so that it was not until November 7, 1914, that it fell.

However, Japan was concerned solely with her own interests, and rendered no further aid in the war until the Allies embarked upon military intervention in Siberia in 1918. Indeed, Japan was well content to see the great Powers of the West weaken themselves, and thus place Japan in a relatively stronger position in international manoeuvres, by a long and ennervating struggle of attrition.

Invasion of Servia.—From July 29 to Aug. 12, 1914, the Austrians bombarded Belgrade, capital of Servia, whence the administrative offices were moved, first to Kragujevac and later to Nish. Aug. 16, 50,000 Austrians crossed the Danube into Servia and were met and defeated on the 18th and 20th by four Servian corps. The Servians, elated with their victories, invaded Austria early in September and besieged Sarajevo, capital of Bosnia. They were driven back, however, and an Austrian force of some 250,000 men moved against the northwest corner of Servia, meeting the Servians at Valievo Sept. 15 and defeating them Nov. 15. The Austro-Hungarian siege of Belgrade, which had begun July 29, ended Dec. 2, when the Servians were driven out by assault. The outlook for Servia was indeed gloomy when, to the surprise of the world, a desperate attack on the center divided the Austrian army, crushed the right wing and drove the invading armies from the Servian soil. Dec. 14, 1914, King Peter reentered Belgrade with his victorious army and reported the land wholly free from the invading Teutons.

Turkey's Entrance into the War.—The German cruisers *Goeben* and *Breslau*, pursued by hostile war ships at the beginning of the war, sought escape by passage through the Dardanelles and safety in the Turkish harbors beyond. Instead of being compelled to put to sea or intern within a reasonable time, the cruisers were alleged to have been bought by Turkey. The powers protested, but Turkey not only retained the vessels but announced the abrogation of her capitulations wherein she had in times past restricted her sovereignty or conferred special privileges upon foreign nations. The first act of hostility was the bombardment of the Russian Black Sea port of Theodosia, Oct. 29, 1914, by the *Goeben*, changed in name to the *Midullu*. Other hostile acts followed, and Nov. 5, Great Britain and France declared war on Turkey. The former also annexed the island of Cyprus and declared Egypt to be a British protectorate.

Kut-el-Amara, Siege of.—The outbreak of the war found British troops to the number of 8,000 or 10,000 in Mesopotamia, under command of Gen. Townshend. After a defeat by the Turks at Ctesiphon, Townshend retreated to Kut-el-Amara, a city built on a peninsula on the left bank of the Tigris river. The Ottoman troops settled down in front of the place, while heavy flanking parties swept by on both banks of the river and speedily cut off the British line of communication. The Turks then assumed the simple task of maintaining the siege until necessity should compel the British surrender. Ineffectual attempts were made at rescue, and unusual floods prevented aggressive operations. After a siege of 143 days the British flag was hauled down, and the army surrendered its arms to the Turks, April 29, 1916.

Capture of German Islands and Togoland.—By December, 1914, all the German island possessions in the Pacific had been captured. New Zealand troops occupied German Samoa at the end of August. In September, Australian troops acquired the Bismarck Archipelago, the Solomon Islands and Kaiserwilhelmsland. And by the end of October, the Caroline, Marschall and Marianne Islands had fallen to Japanese troops.

In Africa, the Boers seized the opportunity to revolt once more against British rule, and Great Britain's efforts in Africa were confined chiefly to putting down the revolt. However, Togoland, containing practically no German troops, fell to England's and France's African forces. Advances were made also into German East Africa, Kamerun and German Southwest Africa, but the Boer revolt halted the progress of these expeditions.

On the High Seas.—At the very outbreak of the War, the British fleet took over the control of the seas. However, there were a few German battleships scattered over different quarters of the globe, and these began to give accounts of themselves as commerce raiders before they were finally hunted down and sunk. The most brilliant career of any of these cruisers was that of the *Emden*, which put out from Kiao-Chau on August 1, sinking many merchantmen as she made her way into the Indian Ocean to harass the Indian coasts. She then sailed among the islands of the Malay peninsula, sinking many craft, including a French gunboat and a Russian cruiser lying at rest in the harbor of Penang. But a few days later she was picked up by the *Sydney*, of the British Australian fleet, was chased, bombarded and finally run ashore, a total wreck. She had sunk or captured more than thirty vessels.

On August 28, a division of the British battle fleet came upon a section of the German fleet in the North Sea and inflicted some damage upon the enemy before he could escape. On September 28, a German submarine managed to sink three British battleships in the North Sea, and there were other similar chance encounters throughout the remainder of the year.

The outbreak of the war found a small German cruiser squadron in South American waters. On November 1, 1914, it was met by a British squadron off Coronel, Chile, but the five German cruisers were far stronger in armament than the three British cruisers and one armed merchant vessel, and

sank two of the British cruisers before darkness permitted the other two British vessels to escape.

On December 8, a stronger British squadron met the Germans off the Falkland Islands. The British now had the superiority in armament, and sank three of the German vessels with little difficulty. The fourth, the *Dresden*, escaped, only to be sunk later in other waters.

1915

ON THE WEST FRONT

The year 1915 saw no military development of any importance on the western front. Superiority in numbers passed from the Germans to the Entente Allies, but the greater skill and better management of the German war machine prevented the Allies from making gains of any moment. On March 10, the British opened a drive for Lille, and managed to capture Neuve Chappelle and a section of trenches about a mile deep; but the British losses were far too heavy to constitute the attempt other than a failure. In the spring, the French made an unsuccessful attempt against the sides of the St. Mihiel salient, just east of Verdun. On April 22, the Germans opened a drive for Ypres, using chlorine gas against the French and Canadians; but in spite of this illegal and terrible weapon of warfare, they were unable to break through the Allied lines, although their gains were considerable.

In May, the British struck again around Neuve Chappelle and the French north of Arras. The former made little headway, but the latter managed to capture Lorette Ridge and the German fortifications (the Labyrinth) near Vimy Ridge. In June, the army of the Crown Prince made an unsuccessful advance in the Argonne.

Toward the end of September, the Allies made a ponderous attempt to break the German lines, the British and French striking at Loos and the French in Champagne. But after a week's severe fighting, they had succeeded in penetrating the German lines only to a depth of several miles. In November and December, the Germans made slight gains to consolidate and straighten their lines.

In December, Sir John French was replaced as the British commander-in-chief by Sir Douglas Haig.

War Zone Operations.—Early in the year 1915 a British order in council declared that all foodstuffs destined to Germany, though intended for the civilian population, subject to seizure and confiscation. This was based on Germany's national regulation of the food supply, which was construed to mean confiscation for army uses. Germany in reply to this order declared a war zone to be in existence around the British isles after Feb. 15, 1915, and warned neutral vessels of the dangers of navigation. Submarines were sent into the designated waters, and reports came daily of the sinking of English, French and neutral vessels.

Munitions Shipments.—Soon after the outbreak of the war, the Entente Allies proceeded to purchase in the United States both munitions of war and the raw materials for manufacturing them. Because of the Entente mastery of the seas, the Central Powers were not able to use the resources of the United States in a similar fashion.

The refusal of the United States to interfere in this trade in munitions caused much bad feeling against her in the Central Powers, coupled with charges that by permitting such trade the United States had in fact, if not in theory, joined hands with the Entente. Indeed, on June 29, 1915, Austria-Hungary lodged with the United States an official protest against the trade in munitions between this country and the Entente. The reply of the United States pointed out that this trade was sanctioned by international law, that Germany had itself similarly indulged in such trade with belligerents in wars in which she had been neutral, and that inability of a belligerent to purchase supplies in neutral countries would to a marked degree increase the amount of war preparation indulged in by all countries in peace times.

Agents of the Central Powers in the United States attempted to thwart the trade in munitions between the United States and the Entente by dynamiting factories and encouraging strikes. As a result, recall of the Austrian ambassador, Dumba, was requested by the United States in September, 1915, it having been proved that he had engineered such actions, and similar action was taken with respect to von Papen and Boy-ed, connected with the staff of the German ambassador to the United States, in December of the same year. Other German agents in the United States were imprisoned for offenses against the peace of the country and for other crimes.

Lusitania Case.—The German embassy in America called attention to the war zone and repeated the warning to neutral and enemy vessels. Despite the warning, which had been personally brought to the attention of the passengers, the *Lusitania* sailed from New York May 1st, and May 7th, when off Kinsale, Ireland, was struck by a mine or torpedo and sank within fifteen minutes with great loss of life, including more than one hundred Americans. (See Wilson, Woodrow.)

The *Lusitania* was built in 1907, and was one of the largest and fastest of British ships and was valued at about $10,000,000. Besides passengers and crew to the number of 2,159 persons aboard, she carried about 1,500 tons of cargo, valued at $735,579. The principal items of the cargo were for war consumption, and included sheet brass, valued at $50,000; copper and copper wire, $32,000; beef, $31,000; furs, $119,000; copper manufactures, $21,000; military goods, $66,000; ammunition, $200,000. The latest official figures showed that 1,396 lives were lost. The total number of survivors was 763, including 462 passengers and 301 of crew; the number injured was 30 passengers and 17 of crew; of the survivors 45 died from exposure or injuries; the number of Americans who died was 107. There were 81 American survivors, 23 American identified dead and 84 Americans missing and undoubtedly dead.

Aerial Warfare.—Soon after the breaking out of the war it became evident that air craft of various designs were to play an important part, both in scouting and offensive operations. The Germans had developed the Zeppelin airship to a high state of perfection, and in the early advance through Belgium and into France Zeppelins flew high in advance of the uhlans, communicating their observations to headquarters. On Aug. 24, bombs were dropped on Antwerp. A month later other Belgian towns, as well as Paris and Warsaw, were bombarded from the air. Contradictory stories of the effects of these attacks reached the outside world

from the headquarters of the belligerents. In October German aviators dropped bombs in Paris, killing three persons and wounding 20; Dec. 30 Dunkirk was shelled from the air and 15 persons were killed. In January, 1915, a fleet of Zeppelins raided the English coast, bombarding six towns and killing five persons. Other air raids followed, but without accomplishing any military purpose. By February, 1915, the Anglo-French allies had built a fleet of 30 to 40 air and seaplanes and made retaliatory raids on Dunkirk, Ostend, Zeebrugge and other towns within the German lines.

On the western battle front, at least four types of aeroplanes are in constant use. (1) Scouting machines. They are swift, and capable of long flights. They carry a large store of gasoline, photographic apparatus, machine guns and even wireless stations. Their biplanes have a spread of 45 feet and the motors often attain 150 horse power.

(2) Bombing planes. They are heavy and slow, and carry great weights of bombs, all of which must be discharged before return, as the shock of descent would explode any bombs remaining upon the machine. They must usually be protected by lighter machines, and accordingly make night attacks the rule.

(3) Artillery planes, used for observing the explosions of shells among the enemy. They are light and stable.

(4) Battle planes, which are very light and swift, and are especially adapted to climb quickly.

In addition, there are the huge heavier-than-air Zeppelins, used by the Germans, which are dirigible balloons; and the captive balloons used by all belligerents for observation purposes.

During 1917, especially after the summer months, the Germans increased their night aerial raids upon England, and especially upon London, often killing many children, women and other non-combatants. These machines used the captured sections of Belgium as their base; and it was difficult for the English to make reprisals, for this territory was inhabited chiefly by Belgian non-combatants, and the territory of Germany itself was too far distant to offer much prospect of success for air raids. The Germans defended their bomb-throwing upon unfortified cities by the Allied food blockade and consequent attempt to starve German women, children and other non-combatants. From a tactical point of view, the raids were of service to Germany in keeping a large number of airplanes in England to meet the German airplanes, and hence diminished the number of machines utilized by the English on the battle-front. Even neutral opinion, however, unqualifiedly condemned such raids on unfortified places as not only in direct violation of the Hague regulations of war, but also as manifestations of a savage and brutal philosophy.

ON THE EASTERN FRONT

In contrast to the progress of the war on the western front, the campaign in the East in 1915 gave birth to one of the most influential battles of the war. Indeed, the Battle of the Dunajec shattered for all time the strength of the military machine of the Tsar, although Russia rallied to a slight extent in 1916.

In the first months of 1915, the Germans and Austrians mobilized in strength in southeastern Austria-Hungary, and by the end of February had driven all the Russians out of Bukowina and Transylvania. By this, the Germans had launched another drive at Warsaw, only to see it rolled back at the eleventh hour by reinforcements rushed up from the Russian ranks in Galicia. On March 22, the strong Austro-Hungarian fortress of Przemysl, which had been invested since the previous September, was starved into surrender.

All this time, the Germans were preparing a decisive blow to cripple Russia, painstakingly accumulating great supplies, large guns and many army corps in the southeast. At the end of April, von Falkenheyn, who had replaced von Moltke as head of the German General Staff, was ready. On April 28, he drove his mighty phalanx against the apex of the Russian lines in Galicia along the Dunajec River. The Russians were helpless before the might of the German artillery attack, and within several days were streaming back to the Wisloka River, twenty miles away, where a stand was made for a time.

But the Austro-Germans, making no attempt at flanking moves, drove ahead irresistibly and without cessation, into the Russian centre, and by May 8 the Russians, still helpless because of their inferiority in artillery, had broken once more and were making all haste for the San, seventy-five miles from the Dunajec. This rapid retreat of the Russian centre compelled also a rapid retreat of the Russian army left in Galicia, which had to retire rapidly back into Russia to avoid being caught in the rear by the phalanx that was tearing the Russian centre to pieces; while the Russian left, in Poland, was also forced to retire.

On May 14, the German heavy guns arrived at the San and once more shattered all resistance. By the end of the month, Jaroslav had fallen and Przemysl had been re-captured, and the Austro-Germans were making through Russian Poland for Warsaw from the south as well as from the west. Throughout June, the Russian retreat continued, all the soil of Austria-Hungary being now free of the enemy, the Russian armies all disorganized, and the battle-line entering well into Russian territory. Throughout July, the Austro-Germans leisurely but mightily beat back all resistance on their road to Warsaw, and the capital of Russian Poland fell on August 5, one year and four days after Germany had declared war upon Russia.

Even after the fall of Warsaw, and with it the occupation of all of Russian Poland, the Austro-Germans pressed on. In August, a number of the strongest Russian fortresses east of Russian Poland were captured, and it was not until September that a firmer stand by the Russians, the increase of the distance of the battle-line from the Austrian and German bases of supply, and the approach of winter called off the progress of the Austro-Germans into Russia. Russia's strength had been completely dissipated, it would be months before her armies could be reorganized, more than a million of the Tsar's soldiers had been killed or captured, all of Russian Poland had been captured, further invasion of Germany or Austria-Hungary from the east had been rendered well-nigh impossible, next year the Germans could concentrate their strength upon the Allies in France with little interruption from Russia, and no less than 65,000 square miles of Russian territory had been occupied.

ON OTHER FRONTS

The Dardanelles and Gallipoli. — The greatest weakness of the Allies lay in their lack of uninterrupted communication with Russia. Russia had grain and man-power, but lacked artillery; an exchange of these commodities between the eastern ally and England and France would immeasurably strengthen the power of the Entente. The occupation of the Dardanelles and the capture of Constantinople would make such an exchange possible, as well as discourage Bulgaria from joining the Central Powers; and therefore the attempt was made, although the Dardanelles were considered almost impregnable.

On February 19, 1915, a French and British fleet advanced upon the fortifications at the mouth of the Dardanelles. The Turkish positions here were weak, and could be bombarded by the entire fleet at long range; so that when the bombardment was resumed on February 25 and 26, most of the Turkish guns at the entrance were silenced; and early in March the road was open to attack the main Turkish fortifications some fifteen miles from the mouth, at "The Narrows," where the Dardanelles twist into an S-shape and are less than a mile wide.

On March 18, the Allied fleet advanced against The Narrows. But the Dardanelles are so narrow that only a portion of the fleet could fire upon the forts at one time; torpedo tubes from the shore aimed torpedoes at the huge dreadnaughts; the Turkish batteries were manned by German gunners, whose aim was most accurate; and the Turks sent floating mines down the current of the Dardanelles with telling effect. Within six hours, five of the largest Entente vessels had been sunk, and the remainder had made little effect upon the Turkish batteries, so that the attempt to reduce the Dardanelles by sea was abandoned.

The next attempt was by land, an attempt to occupy the Gallipoli peninsula, forming the north shore of the Dardanelles. Toward the end of April, Allied forces, composed largely of troops from Australia and New Zealand, landed, and attempted to work their way toward the neck of the peninsula. But the Turks were numerous, and well led, and after efforts in May, June and August had signally failed, the Allies determined to pocket their heavy losses without further attempt on the Dardanelles; and the entire expedition was abandoned in December and in the first month of 1916.

Italy Enters the War.—With the outbreak of the War, Italy proclaimed her neutrality, asserting that her membership in the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria-Hungary was binding only in the case of defensive war waged by the other two members. Italy then immediately entered upon steps to acquire the land in the Trentino and along the Adriatic long desired by her. The Central Powers promised to cede most of the land in those sections inhabited chiefly by the Italian nationality, but the Entente promised more; and on May 24, 1915, Italy declared war on Austria-Hungary. The terms of the agreement between Italy and the Entente, embodied in the secret Pact of London, gave Italy much territory inhabited chiefly by German-Austrians and by South Slavs (but not Fiume), in addition to Italia Irredenta proper; and these terms were responsible for many disputes both during the Peace Conference and after the ratification of the Peace Treaty.

Italy made no attempt to assist France and Great Britain in France and Belgium, but set about to occupy the land along the Adriatic which she desired. However, Austria-Hungary had been awaiting such a move; there were strong Austro-Hungarian forces along the Austro-Italian frontier; that frontier was mountainous and unsuited for the movement of troops on a large scale; and by the end of 1915, Italy had penetrated but a few miles into Austrian territory along the Adriatic and had not succeeded in capturing Gorizia, the strong enemy fortress in that section.

Bulgaria Enters.—We have already seen, in the "Roots of the War," that Bulgaria's interests conflicted with those of Servia. Since Servia and Servia's ally, Russia, were with the Entente, it was natural that an Entente victory would benefit Servia at the expense of Bulgaria. Similarly, the Entente could not well promise Bulgaria concessions at the expense of Servia, as the Central Powers could and did promise. Moreover, Germany had advanced to Bulgaria a loan of considerable size, and when Germany induced Turkey to cede certain portions of Thrace long desired by Bulgaria, it was inevitable that Bulgaria in return should join the Central Powers. Bulgaria declared war on Servia on October 14, 1915, delaying long enough to complete the mobilization of her army.

The Occupation of Servia and Montenegro.—With Bulgaria in position to attack Servia in the east, the Central Powers were ready in the fall of 1915 to overrun the kingdom of King Peter, and thus to acquire direct connection with Turkey and Constantinople, and a solid belt of territory through Central Europe uniting the North and the Black Seas.

The German General Staff employed against Servia much of the equipment and many of the troops which had been used in the spring against Russia and which were released for other service by ending the pursuit of the Russians in September. The Austro-Germans were in two great armies, concentrating opposite the northwest corner of Servia. Against them, the Serbian commander placed the bulk of his army, only some 200,000, on his wings, being compelled to leave Belgrade and his centre weakly protected.

The attack opened on October 3, 1915, and the Serbians were no less helpless against the heavy out-ranging German guns than the Russians had been. By October 9, the enemy had crossed the Drina, Save and Danube Rivers into Servia and had occupied Belgrade. Until October 12, the Servians were steadily driven back, and this was the day chosen by the Bulgarians to drive at them from the east.

The Allies had been preparing reinforcements to be dispatched to Servia, but such reinforcements could be sent only through Greece, and Greece was officially neutral. True, there was an alliance between Servia and Greece, and the Greek premier, Venizelos, insisted that by the terms of that alliance Greece was bound to come to Servia's assistance. However, the Greek government and the Greek people still insisted on neutrality and Venizelos was forced to retire. Nevertheless, against Greece's protest, the Allies seized the opportunity to dispatch forces northward through Greece from Saloniki, where Allied forces had been

concentrating, in accord with an invitation from Venizelos.

So that one branch of the Bulgarian army made for the Vardar Valley, to intercept the Allied troops marching northward, while the other two branches moved against the disintegrating Serbian army. On October 17, the Bulgarians got between the Allied and the Serbian armies, and by October 20 had completely blocked the Allied progress into Servia. Servia thus was doomed, and after a series of defeats on both the east and the west throughout October, the Serbians became a people without a country. On October 30, Kragujevatz fell and on November 6, Nish. One remnant of the Serbian army fled into Montenegro and another into Albania, only to be attacked by the Albanians and severely punished before being rescued by Italy.

The Allied forces from Saloniki entrenched in the Vardar Valley, where they were attacked and completely defeated by the Bulgarians in December. The Allies streamed back into Saloniki, where they were safe, as Bulgaria respected Grecian neutrality.

With Servia conquered, the Central Powers turned to Montenegro, which was, in all but name, a part of Servia, and which had joined Servia in the War soon after it opened. The Montenegrins were even less able to withstand the Austro-German cohorts than the Serbians, and by the middle of January, 1916, Montenegro was also in the hands of the Central Powers.

Albania had been occupied by the Serbians and Montenegrins, so that northern Albania was also occupied by the Austro-Germans. Southern Albania, however, had been occupied by the Italians, who, with the Greeks, were anxious to expand in that direction.

The Capture of the German African Colonies.—In January, 1915, the Boer revolt having been put down, an army of Boers loyal to Great Britain seriously began the reduction of German Southwest Africa. The invaders made progress through the remainder of the winter and the spring, and by May had occupied the southern half of the territory, including its capital. In June, further advances were made, and German Southwest Africa officially surrendered on July 9, 1915.

In Kamerun, the British and French advance continued throughout 1915, capturing most of the province by the summer. It was not until March, 1916, that all defence on the part of the Germans ceased.

The German resistance in German East Africa was more stubborn, and in 1915 the Allies had great difficulty in making much headway against the ably-led defenders. But in 1916, the command was given to General Smuts, who ended most of the resistance before the end of 1916. However, it was not until the winter of 1917 that the opposition became altogether feeble, and German Southwest Africa did not officially surrender until November, 1917.

On the High Seas.—On the sea, 1915 was a year of comparative inaction, outside of the attack on the Dardanelles. The German fleet remained bottled up by the British, and the Austro-Hungarian by the French and Italian, while the Russian fleet retained command of the Baltic and of the Black Seas. Several German commerce raiders made themselves felt, notably the *Prinz Eitel Frederick*. The one naval engagement of importance was the Battle of Dogger Bank.

On January 24, 1915, a German battle cruiser squadron, sailing to raid the coasts of England, met off the Dogger Bank a British cruiser squadron of greater strength, and immediately fled. After several hours, the British got within firing distance, and soon managed to sink the old and slow *Blücher*. Several other of the German cruisers were also struck, but the leading British vessel, the *Lion*, was disabled by the German fire, and with this loss to their strength and with the German mine fields approaching, the British called off the pursuit some five hours after the German fleet had been sighted.

With the rout of Russia and the conquest of Russian Poland; the occupation of Servia and Montenegro; the adherence of Bulgaria; the weakness of the Italian campaign; the failure of the attack on the Dardanelles; and the growing strength of the submarine campaign, which had not yet brought America into the War, while the struggle in the west remained a deadlock, 1915 had been most decidedly a German year.

1916

ON THE WESTERN FRONT

Verdun.—In the beginning of 1916, Germany reached the apex of her strength in the west, not only because of success in her internal readjustments for war, but also because of her defeat of Russia and Servia; and it was no secret that in the spring she was going to concentrate all her strength against the Allied line in France, in the hope of breaking through and of achieving the victory which she had so barely missed in September, 1914.

The blow fell upon Verdun, the strongest of the French fortresses, lying in a broad pocket of the Meuse and consisting of thirty-six forts arranged around the city of Verdun. But the war had taught that the strongest fortresses were helpless against the heaviest guns, and Germany struck at Verdun largely to take the Allies by surprise and largely because of the moral value of the most famous of the French strongholds. Through most of February, the Germans delivered a series of feint attacks at different points in the line, while the Allies kept their reserves in readiness behind the front, until the direction of the main blow could be definitely learned. The Allies themselves were preparing for a decisive blow later in 1916, and hoped to be able to repel the German drive without calling upon the resources stored up for their own drive.

The Germans opened their attack upon Verdun on February 21, 1916. At that time, their lines were some eight miles from the city and some four miles from the northernmost of the forts, but within several hours the first line of French trenches had been literally blasted out of existence by the terrific German bombardment. For the next four days the fighting was of a furious hand-to-hand nature, the French resisting with the utmost stubbornness before retiring, in order to give time for reinforcements to arrive to save Verdun. And the bitterness of the French resistance compelled the Germans to consume five days in order to reach the outer ring of the Verdun forts, and by the evening of February 25 the French positions were manned with reinforcements.

By this time, however, the Germans were at the gates of Forts Douaumont, Vaux and Trouville, and on the evening of the twenty-fifth they carried Fort Douaumont by storm, making the entire French hold on Verdun precarious in the extreme. However, on the following day a brilliant French counter-attack captured many of the lines around Douaumont, rendering its occupation of little value, and at the same time the lines around Vaux and Trouville held. On the twenty-seventh and twenty-eighth the French still held off furious German attacks, which represented the full strength of the enemy, and after which he was compelled to take a breathing-space of several days.

In March and April, much of the German effort at Verdun was diverted to the west bank of the Meuse, where the French positions on hills in that section to a great extent dominated the forts of Verdun. This second phase of the fighting was a series of slow and deliberate boring methods, centering around Dead Man's Hill (Le Mort Homme), with its two ridges, Hill 295 and Hill 265; and Goose Hill (la Côte d'Oie), or Hill 304. For six weeks the Germans struggled forward, but after combats of the bitterest nature the French held on to the commanding positions.

On the east bank of the Meuse, the Germans stormed Fort Vaux on March 8-11, March 16, April 2 and April 18, but were rolled back as they had been rolled back across the river; and in the latter half of April, the Germans were inactive, stunned by their losses.

In May, the Germans redoubled their efforts on the west bank of the Meuse, and after a struggle of several weeks managed to gain both Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304, but the French had prepared lines of great strength in the rear of these positions, and the German energy had been spent in the capture of the two hills. Accordingly, the drive on the west bank of the Meuse was abandoned, and the enemy had failed to capture Verdun by flanking it from the west and southwest.

On the east bank of the Meuse, the French re-captured Fort Douaumont by a drive on May 22-3, but on the next day the Germans delivered counter-attacks which managed to regain the position, now nothing but a mass of ruins. At the end of May, the Germans gathered themselves together for a last desperate effort to break the French resistance, and after a tremendous bombardment managed to capture Fort Vaux on June 6, after a drive lasting more than a week. The loss of Fort Vaux once more imperilled Verdun, for if Souville also should go, Verdun was doomed. The drive on Souville opened on June 11 and reached its climax on June 23. Fort Thiaumont fell and the village of Fleury; but beyond these gains the Germans could not go, although they threw themselves upon the French lines until the end of the month saw the Crown Prince's cohorts completely exhausted. Then the French counter-attacked and regained Thiaumont. After 130 days, Verdun was safe. The casualties on each side were between 300,000 and 400,000 and there was no victor—the sole loser was humanity.

In the last three months of 1916, the French regained practically all of the ground before Verdun which the Germans had won at so high a cost in the first half of the year.

As one result of his defence of Verdun, General Nivelle replaced Joffre as commander-in-chief of the French armies. In December, the Asquith Government in England fell before a coalition organized by David Lloyd George, who thereafter controlled the British Government until after the conclusion of peace.

The Battle of the Somme.—With the end of the German drive at Verdun, the Allies were ready with their own drive. Great Britain had adopted conscription, and its army had reached some 1,500,000, with probably a million men held in reserve for any emergency in which they might be used. The British production of munitions was now at its height, and huge supplies of guns and shells had long been accumulated in Picardy.

The Allied attack was delivered by the British forces under General Rawlinson and by the French Sixth Army, with some co-operation from the French Tenth Army. The sector chosen was that portion of the front north and south of the Somme, in front of the important German centres of Bapaume and Péronne. The bombardment opened in the latter half of June and the French poilus and the British Tommies went "over the top" on July 1.

But from the very first, the British attack struck a snag. The Germans were fully prepared, and their heavy guns swept away rank after rank of the British, causing greater destruction of human beings than had attended any other single day of the war; and by evening, the British were back in the trenches whence they had started. South of the Somme, however, the French were attended by better fortune, breaking into the German positions for more than a mile; but the German defence here was still vigorous, and the British had been so stunned by their losses that the very first day of the Battle of the Somme was sufficient to stamp as indecisive the entire Allied attempt to break through.

In the next several days, the British greatly shortened their area of attack, and managed to make a number of step-by-step gains into the German lines. The French also continued to push ahead, and by July 5 were within three miles of Péronne. By July 9, the French were two miles nearer their objective, having driven in ten days a wedge ten miles wide and six miles deep. But after the middle of July, the French south of the Somme were able to make but little headway, and the British gains were insignificant. The enemy's defence had proved too strong. By July 26, the British had gained Pozières, but almost the entire month of August had to be used in consolidating the positions already won.

Early in September, the Allies renewed their efforts along the Somme, making some piece-meal advances, and by September 10 they had gained about as much ground as they counted on gaining in the first day of the battle. About the middle of September, the British drove for Combles, using "tanks" for the first time, and gained it by the end of the month. They had reached what had been the last German lines of defence at the beginning of the drive. But the winter was at hand, and the Germans had removed to the Somme front some of their corps from the Verdun front, and took the offensive themselves through most of October. In the middle of November, the Allies made some gains, notably along the Ancre, but with these gains the Battle of the Somme came to an inglorious close. The Allies had a casualty list of more than 600,000 and the

enemy one of almost 400,000; and as at Verdun, nothing important had been gained.

ON THE EASTERN FRONT

The Attack on Czernovitz.—In the last days of December, 1915, and the first days of 1916, the Russians attempted to advance to Czernovitz, at the southern end of their battle-line; but by the middle of January, 1916, the Austro-Hungarian defence had stiffened to a point where the Russians had to abandon their effort.

The Russian Drive in Mid-Summer.—By the summer of 1916, the Russians had recovered to a slight extent from their disaster of the previous year. Indeed, earlier, in March, the Russians had attempted to advance south of Dvinsk, hoping to create a diversion against the German drive on Verdun, but had been unable to advance against the fire of the enemy's heavy artillery.

In June, however, the Russian armies opened a general advance along the whole southern third of the eastern battle-front, south of Pinsk and the Pripet Marshes. Throughout the month, they won forward in Volhynia, capturing Lutsk, penetrating to a depth of some forty-five miles into the enemy's positions, and being halted only by the diversion of strong Austro-Hungarian and German reinforcements from the west and south. At the very end of the battle-front, in Bukowina, even more gratifying success was achieved. The entire formation of the Austro-Hungarians was broken up, and by the middle of the month the Russians had captured Czernovitz and were marching through Bukowina for Lemberg.

But the two salients which had been punched out were widely separated, and it was necessary to consolidate them before proceeding further. Most of July was given over to this consolidation, but German reinforcements were arriving in great numbers and further Russian progress was slow. In August, the Russians shoved ahead in Bukowina once more, capturing Stanislau and arriving before Halicz. But the German General Staff had now realized the gravity of the Russian threat, and the enemy was entrenched along the Narajokva River, prepared to resist all further attacks. For weeks the Russian waves beat in vain against the enemy lines, and finally further attempts had to be abandoned because of sheer weakness.

Nevertheless, the services rendered by this Russian mid-summer drive were considerable. Only the great distance to which the battle-front had been driven eastward after the Battle of the Dunajec in 1915 prevented the Russian gains from tearing at the enemy's vitals. Even so, there can be no question but that the Russian diversion relieved the pressure upon Italy (see below), and thus may well have assisted in saving the day for Italy and the Allies.

ON OTHER FRONTS

In the Caucasus.—In January, 1916, the Russians made an unexpected advance in the Caucasus and dispersed the Turks, who were expecting no advance until the spring. By the end of January, Grand Duke Nicholas had progressed through the mountains to Erzerum, the key to Asiatic Turkey, and the fortress fell on February 12. A few weeks later, Trebizond, the great Turkish port on the Black Sea north of Erzerum, also fell.

On the Italian Front.—Italy was preparing her major effort to capture Gorizia in the summer of 1916, but the Central Powers stole a march upon her by delivering their offensive first. The enemy struck in the Trentino, on the northern, instead of on the eastern, Austro-Italian frontier, in the hope of getting in the rear of the Italian forces on the Gorizia front along the Isonzo River. The Austrian drive was opened in the middle of May, 1916, and drove the Italians before it for a week, until almost all the Trentino battle-front was on Italian soil. By May 25, the Austrians were nearing the southern edge of the mountains overlooking the plains of Venetia, which opened up the road to the rear of the Isonzo front. But by the end of May, the Italian left held firm, notably at Coni Zugna, Pasubio and Buole Pass, although the centre and right were still retiring. On May 25, Battale fell to the Austrians, who crossed the Posino on May 28 and on June 3 captured Asiago.

But by this time, the stand of the left wing and the arrival of reinforcements, as well as the opening of the Russian drive in the east on June 4, which sent many troops from the Trentino to the eastern front, weakened the Austro-Hungarian effort; and Italy was able to make a stand, by the middle of June launching counter-attacks which regained some of the lost ground. Largely through the cooperation of Russia, Italy had been saved by a hair's-breadth from invasion and probably from the destruction or surrender of her huge army along the Isonzo.

Italy was thus prepared to drive for Gorizia once more, and in the first days of August, Cadorna, the Italian commander-in-chief, opened a heavy bombardment along the Isonzo. On August 6, the Italians stormed the city, capturing the heights of Sabotino. By August 8, the heights of San Michele were taken, by the ninth the river was crossed and on the tenth the city fell. In the next few days, the Italians advanced their lines slightly beyond Gorizia.

The Conquest of Roumania.—We have seen how the complications of Balkan politics had inclined Roumania to the Entente camp, although her ruling family was a branch of the Hohenzollerns and her ruling classes were Germanophile. The alliance of Bulgaria with Germany, Austria-Hungary and Turkey increased the movement in Roumania for alliance with the opponents of Bulgaria. Furthermore, several million Roumans were "unredeemed" in the sections of Austria-Hungary known as Bukowina and Transylvania; and it was in those sections that the Russians advanced in the summer of 1916. Russia threatened to keep Bukowina and Transylvania for herself if Roumania did not join the Entente, and on August 27, 1916, Roumania declared war on Austria-Hungary. (In March, 1916, Portugal had also joined the Entente, in fulfillment of her alliance with Great Britain.)

For months before the declaration of war the Roumanian army had been mobilized, and it was sent at once into Transylvania to cooperate with the Russians there. By September 15, much of Transylvania was in Roumanian hands. But von Hindenburg, who had replaced von Falkenheyn as head of the German General Staff, was but biding his time. He was gathering Bulgarian, Turkish and German troops under von Mackensen in the Dobruja, on the opposite (eastern) border of Roumania, and by the middle of September these forces advanced

upon Roumania. On September 20, the main Austro-German drive was then launched upon the Roumanian forces in Transylvania. (By this time, the Russian drive there had been stopped and the Russians gave little further aid to Roumania, it being evident that the court of the Tsar was now flirting with Germany with an eye to a separate peace.) Against the heavy Austro-German artillery, the poorly-equipped Roumanian troops were powerless, and von Falkenheyn had no trouble in making his way into Roumania throughout October, while von Mackensen was moving through the Dobruja to effect a junction with him. On December 5, 1916, Bucharest fell, and by February, 1917, all but the northern tip of Roumania was occupied by the enemy. In December, 1917, Roumania joined with Bolshevist Russia in obtaining an armistice, and signed a separate peace with the Central Powers in March, 1918, at the time of the Brest-Litovsk peace between Bolshevist Russia and Germany.

Battle of Jutland.—During the spring and summer of 1916, both the German and the British fleets had been making long sweeps, in divisions, through the North Sea; and it hence was inevitable that they should meet. At 2 P. M. on May 31, 1916, a British division under Sir David Beatty encountered, off the northwest coast of Jutland, a German division under Admiral Hipper. The British division consisted of 2 squadrons of battle cruisers, 3 squadrons of light cruisers, and 4 torpedo boat destroyers, supported by 4 super-dreadnaughts. The German division, consisting merely of 5 squadrons of battle cruisers, supported by light craft, was outnumbered, and attempted to fall back on the main German fleet steaming up from Helgoland. Beatty, however, pursued the Germans, with the two hostile divisions stretched out in almost parallel lines, although the pursuit carried him closer to the main German fleet and farther away from the main British fleet under Jellicoe, which also was steaming up to join in the conflict. At 3.48 P. M. action commenced at a distance of about 20,000 yards. Each side soon got busy with torpedoes, and the English "Indefatigable" was the first vessel to sink, although the Germans soon lost two destroyers when their attack was met by an attack from the British destroyers. The latter, however, lost heavily when they pursued their advantage to attempt an attack upon the German light cruisers. The "Queen Mary" also soon went to the bottom; and by 4.30 the conflict was raging fiercely.

At 4.45 P. M., Beatty sighted the advance of the main German battle fleet, and fell back to the main British fleet, which was now also approaching, and which soon engaged the enemy. A heavy haze, however, gave rise to a condition of "low visibility," and it was difficult to strike a decisive blow; and action practically ceased by 9 P. M. Jellicoe attempted during the fight and later during the night to cut off the German fleet from its base, but found in the morning that he had not succeeded; and the English could not follow, because of the danger of mines. Although the battle of Jutland remains probably the greatest naval battle fought in the history of the world, yet the results were indecisive. The British seem to have suffered the heavier losses, but the Germans indisputably fled. The British loss comprised 3 battle cruisers, 3 cruisers, and 8 destroyers, a total loss in tonnage of 114,100 tons. The Germans confessed to a loss of 1 battleship, 2 battle cruisers, 5 cruisers and 5 destroyers—a total loss in tonnage of 60,720 tons. The British claimed, however, that the Germans lost in addition tonnage to the extent of 47,800 tons; but the end of the war showed that Germany had published a true account of her losses, although many German ships not sunk were so badly damaged as to be practically useless. Considered absolutely, then, Jutland was a German victory; but the British fleet was at least twice as powerful as the German, so that to gain a practical victory, Germany would have had to inflict more than twice as much damage upon the British fleet as the British fleet had inflicted upon the German. In its effects, Jutland was thus a drawn battle; and did not effect the further prosecution of the war on and from under the sea.

Peace Proposals.—Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg, December 12, 1916, handed to the envoys of the United States, Spain and Switzerland—the three neutrals that represent German interests in hostile capitals—a note proposing peace negotiations. The text of the note and the replies thereto will be found on pages 8187 to 8194.

One week after the German proposal President Wilson, through Secretary of State Lansing, sent a note to each of the belligerent powers, suggesting that they take the initiatory steps to bring about peace.

The note to the Entente groups was delivered to Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Russia, Belgium, Montenegro, Portugal, Rumania and Serbia; that to the central allies, to Germany, Austria-Hungary, Turkey and Bulgaria, and also to all neutral governments for their information. For the text of the note and replies, see 8190, et seq.

The Entente Allies' message in reply to President Wilson's peace note outlined terms which would have indicated defeat for Germany in the war, but which had the saving grace of being definite.

Germany, in reply to the President's note, refused to mention any definite terms on which she would be willing to consider the establishment of peace; but asserted her willingness to discuss peace terms with representatives of the countries with which she was at war.

1917

America Enters the Lists.—Early in the war, the German Government instituted a ruthless submarine warfare, in retaliation for England's "starvation blockade," and the violation of America's rights on the high seas thereby ensuing (see pages 8055, 8057, 8062, 8121) had the effect of inclining the sympathy of most Americans toward the Entente camp. The German treatment of Belgium also played a leading part in creating an anti-German feeling in America, as did German intrigues in the United States to subsidize newspapers, to foment strikes in plants producing materials to be shipped to the Entente Allies, and to stir up trouble and even war between the United States and Mexico and between the United States and Japan. With the sinking of the *Lusitania*, it was with difficulty that America preserved her neutrality, and only the German pledge to observe due care in the further prosecution of her campaign from under the water preserved friendly relations between the two countries. But with the beginning of 1917, the military element within the German Government achieved control over the civil, and decided upon a policy of unrestricted submarine warfare, believing that thereby the Allies could be brought to their knees before the

assistance of the United States could make itself materially felt in the scales of war. (See page 8204.)

On January 31, 1917, Ambassador von Bernstorff laid before the State Department a communication from the Imperial German Government which retracted the assurances previously given by that power regarding limitations upon its submarine campaigns. The defense offered by Germany for this retraction was a statement that her enemies had resorted to illegal warfare until Germany was compelled to do likewise. The communication announced that beginning with February 1, 1917, all ships entering a blockade zone established around the British Isles and France, and also a blockade zone in the Mediterranean Sea around France and Italy, would be sunk on sight, with no provision for the safety of their crews and irrespective of their purposes and cargoes. Due time would be given for ships sailing before this warning was made public to reach their destinations in safety, the German note continued; but thereafter no ship, belligerent or neutral, would be safe from unannounced attack in the blockade zones. American ships would be allowed only this privilege—they might sail to and from the port of Falmouth, according to a course laid down by Germany, provided that only one ship a week took advantage of this offer, and provided that such ship did not carry contraband in the German interpretation of that word.

The response of the United States to Germany's announcement was prompt and decisive. On February 3, President Wilson announced to Congress that Ambassador von Bernstorff had been given his passports, and expressed a fervent wish that this action would convince the Imperial German Government of the determination of the United States to defend its own honor, and would induce Germany not to commit an overt act which would lead to war. The American Ambassador to Germany, James W. Gerard, was instructed at the same time to ask for his passports from the German Empire.

For some weeks, the outcome of the situation was awaited over the entire civilized world with breathless interest, but there was no indication that Germany was considering receding from the position she had taken. On February 27, one week before the adjournment of the Sixty-fourth Congress, President Wilson asked it for power to arm American merchant vessels, in accordance with a policy of armed neutrality; but a small group of Senators, whom the President characterized as a group of "wilful men representing no opinion but their own," was enabled to take advantage of the Senate's rules of debate to prevent a vote upon the bill embodying President Wilson's request. The result of their action was the immediate amendment of the rules of the Senate to provide for shutting off debate by certain regulations (closure); and the policy of armed neutrality was put into effect. It soon became evident, however, that, in the President's words, "the policy proved to be impracticable." American ships were still being mercilessly sunk, and the Sixty-fifth Congress was summoned into special session on April 2, 1917. On the evening of the same day, the President addressed the Congress assembled in joint session, and asked it to declare that the actions of Germany had compelled this country to proclaim that a state of war existed between the United States and the Imperial German Government. With only 6 Senators and 50 Representatives voting in the negative, the Congress followed the President's request, and official announcement of the entrance of the United States into the conflict was made by the President on April 6.

Preparations of the United States for Participation.—Immediately upon the announcement by the President and Congress of the existence of a state of war, the country went into extensive preparations to prosecute its share in the conflict with the utmost of its energy and resources. Plans made for the enlargement of the Army (q. v.) and the Navy (q. v.) and for the industrial and social integration of the country for the conflict were put into immediate effect; and new plans were made by newly-created boards and commissions. (See Council of National Defense; Naval Consulting Board; National Food Board; United States Shipping Board.) A conscription act was passed, providing for a first war army of 500,000 men, in addition to the recruiting of the Army and Navy up to their full war strength. Ex-President Roosevelt pleaded for permission to lead a division of volunteers into France, and went ahead with plans for the organization of such a force while Congress and the President were considering the advisability of granting his request. The Secret Service force was most efficient in rounding up and arresting German spies and plotters in this country, and practically none of the anticipated schemes for blocking the progress of the country's war plans was carried into effect. Commissions from England, Italy and France, to consult and to give advice about our participation in the war, were received with open arms, and a commission from the United States to her new ally, the democratic Government of Russia, was dispatched. Without a dissenting vote, Congress passed a first war budget of $7,000,000,000; and $2,000,000,000 offered in bonds as the Liberty Loan (q. v.) was offered generally to the country, to be largely oversubscribed. Extensive war credits were granted to our new allies. State and municipal governments co-operated extensively in governmental plans, specially in the elimination of waste, in the production of food, and in the encouragement of thrift and economy. Registration of all men between the ages of 21 and 31 was set for June 5. On May 19, President Wilson announced that a division of the regular army (about 28,000 men) would be dispatched immediately to France under the command of General Pershing. Aviation and hospital units from the United States also were dispatched about the same time. President Wilson announced also on May 19 that he did not contemplate at that time the acceptance of Ex-President Roosevelt's offer to lead an expeditionary force into France.

From June throughout 1917, American troops were dispatched to France, where they received intensive training before being sent to the firing lines.

On July 20, 1917, the numbers were drawn for the draft army, which had been increased to 687,000, and by December all those drawn in the lottery were in cantonments receiving training.

The Sixty-fifth Congress, by its adjournment early in October, had passed appropriations totalling $21,000,000,000. Seven billions of this amount, however, was for loans to the other Entente Allies; and much additional was for future expenditure. The President sought and obtained legislation enabling him to mobilize and direct the entire economic resources of the country. For the war taxes levied, see Internal Revenue. Mr. Herbert Hoover, formerly head of the Belgian Relief Commis-

sion, was made food administrator, although his powers fell far short of those of a food dictator. The Red Cross was re-organized; the problem of providing ships for transportation of men and supplies to Europe was attacked vigorously; and the entire business structure of the land was re-organized for food purposes.

The First Liberty Loan of $2,000,000,000 was offered to the people in June, 1917, and was largely oversubscribed, as was the Second Liberty Loan, offered in October, in which more than $4,000,000,000 was collected.

A feature of the war administration of President Wilson was the suppression of papers criticising our entrance into and prosecution of the war to the point where the post-office authorities declared that such criticism was hindering the country's endeavors.

Domestic activities concerned with the prosecution of the War, such as the *United States Shipping Board, War Trade Board, Alien Property Custodian, Shipbuilding, Income and Corporation Taxes, Espionage Law, Fuel Administration, Food Administration, Railroad Federalization, Conscription,* are described under their respective heads.

For detailed account of the war activities of the bureaus within the War and Navy Department, look under those heads. Separate activities like those concerned with Shipping, Aircraft Production, Liberty Loans, Conscription, Council of National Defence, Fuel Administration, War Trade Board, Red Cross, Alien Property Custodian, etc., are described under those heads.

Vatican Peace Proffer, 1917.—On August 14, 1917, the Pope dispatched a proffer of peace to all the belligerents. The Pope proposed as the basis for negotiations the establishment of arbitration; the freedom of the seas; disarmament; the absence of indemnities of a punitive nature; the evacuation of Belgium with guarantees for independence; the return of northern France and also of the German colonies; and the settlement of the territorial problems represented by Alsace and Lorraine, Italia Irredenta, the Balkan problem, etc., by negotiations after the war.

The President replied to the Pope on August 29, in a communication which spoke also for the allies of the United States. The President, after expressing appreciation of the Pope's motives in offering mediation, drew up an indictment of Germany as a faithless menace to the organization of the world, and declared that while the German government remained autocratic, there could be no guarantee that a peace with it would be lasting, secure or just. Denying that the United States would take part in an economic league against Germany after the war, President Wilson declared that until Germany was ruled democratically by its people instead of autocratically by a caste, there could be no peace negotiations with her. The President did not state what definite changes would meet the requirements of the Allies, nor did he comment upon the other definite proposals of the Pope.

The German and Austrian replies to the Vatican, published soon after the President's reply, after asserting that Germany and Austria had always been peace-loving, assented to the Pope's proposal of reciprocal limitation of armaments, and the establishment of international arbitration.

The text of the Pope's offer and of the replies to it will be found in their chronological position in the text of the Messages and Papers of the Presidents, under the administration of President Wilson.

ON THE WESTERN FRONT

Battle of Arras.—Early in February began the first of the great German retreats since the Battle of the Marne. The Battle of the Somme had allowed the British to drive a wedge into the German lines, and persistent attacks had gradually widened that wedge until the German lines were no longer tenable. The Germans prepared their new line of resistance (the Hindenburg line) very carefully and retreated to it in masterly fashion, taking up a position facing the towns of Arras and Soissons. The Germans pursued their policy of frightfulness by deliberately wasting the country they were forced to abandon, in such wanton fashion as to impoverish it for years to come.

Against the new German line, the English launched a general attack at dawn of Easter Monday, April 9, 1917. The offensive was along a 45-mile front, with Lens as the objective at one end and St. Quentin at the other end. Despite the fact that the attack was launched in bitter weather, it was irresistible, and day after day the Germans retreated, the English taking above 10,000 prisoners daily. Not since the beginning of the war was the attack by air so comprehensive, and the artillery bombardment rivalled that around Verdun in the previous year. From the day of the inauguration of the offensive, when the Canadians captured the Vimy ridge, to the end of ten days, the Allies gained more ground than they had previously gained in the 6 months since the Battle of the Somme. After the first 5 days, the French also delivered smashing blows; and the retreat of the Germans along their whole line covered a considerable number of miles. By May 1, the end of the offensive was in sight, and by May 15, Germany was able to deliver several successful counter-attacks.

The Second Battle of the Aisne.—In the middle of April, the French struck at the southern pivot of the Hindenburg Line, around the Aisne. But they made little progress, and in May signally failed in their onslaught on the Chemin des Dames position. General Pétain replaced General Nivelle as the French comamnder-in-chief.

The Battle of Flanders.—Having failed in April, the British struck in June, to the north, in Flanders, capturing Messines Ridge, after exploding the German positions there by means of mines. In the same month, the Germans made gains near the sea-coast, along the Yser Canal. At the end of July, the British again broke through from the Lys River to Steenstraat, but in the middle of August failed around Ypres. Throughout September and October, Haig bit into the German lines in Flanders by severe fighting, breaking through for several miles and capturing Passchendaele Ridge.

The French Summer and Autumn Drives.—In the fall, the French struck again in front of Verdun, regaining Dead Man's Hill, Hill 304 and other important positions. In October, they renewed their efforts along the Aisne and after some days' severe fighting captured the Chemin des Dames and the Heights of the Aisne.

In France, the Briand ministry was succeeded by that of Ribot, which fell before that of Painlévé, who in turn was succeeded in November by Georges Clemenceau.

Man Power Under Arms on Jan. 1, 1918.—According to the most reliable figures available, there were at the beginning of 1918 some 38,000,000 persons in the Armies and Navies of the nations engaged in the great struggle, distributed as follows:

ENTENTE ALLIES

Russia	9,000,000
France	6,000,000
Great Britain	5,000,000
Italy	3,000,000
Japan	1,400,000
United States.....more than	1,000,000
China	540,000
Rumania	320,000
Serbia	300,000
Belgium	300,000
Greece	300,000
Portugal	200,000
Montenegro	40,000
Total	27,400,000

CENTRAL POWERS

Germany	7,000,000
Austria-Hungary	3,000,000
Bulgaria	300,000
Turkey	300,000
Total	10,600,000

Battle of Cambrai.—On the morning of Monday, November 19, 1917, the British launched a carefully-prepared and carefully-concealed attack upon the German trenches in front of the village of Cambrai. The attack was led by many "tanks," or tractors, which had been massed before the point of attack without the knowledge of the enemy, and which succeeded in battering down the German trenches in their advance so that the British troops could pour through. There was tremendous artillery activity on a front of almost 32 miles, from Quéant almost to St. Quentin, but the advance proper was on a front of about 12 miles.

The attack lasted four days before it spent itself, and by that time the British had advanced six miles at certain points, averaging a five-mile advance along a seven mile front, and gaining altogether more than fifty square miles of territory and some 10,000 prisoners. This gain of ground represents the greatest Allied advance since the Battle of the Marne, and more than was gained in four months' fighting at the Somme. Cambrai itself, an important railroad and highway center, was not occupied, however.

Once recovered from their surprise, however, the Germans launched terrific counter-attacks against the advanced positions of the British, winning many of them back. These counter-attacks continued well into December, and succeeded in retrieving practically all of the ground which the British had captured.

Russian Military Collapse, 1917.—For several months after the Russian Revolution (q. v.), Germany seems to have refrained from any attacks upon that country because of the hope of concluding a separate peace with her. A strong Russian offensive in July, however, was final proof that Russia was determined to stick by her allies, and Germany accordingly launched a heavy attack later in the month. The inevitable re-action from the enthusiam of the Revolution at this time was convulsing Russia, and she was unable to to present any considerable resistance to the German advance. Many of the radicals and the pacifists were not in favor of continuing the war, and the consequent disorganization in the army made Germany's task easy. On September 3, Riga was occupied, and in October, German warships penetrated into the Gulf of Riga.

In July, the Socialist Kerensky had replaced Lvoff as premier, and the government became more radical in its personnel. Kerensky displayed remarkable powers of organization, and made great strides toward resurrecting Russia's military strength. The Bolsheviki, or uncompromising Socialists, nevertheless at latest reports were increasing in power; and the date on which Russian armies could again be of great assistance to their allies was problematical.

On September 9, 1917, General Korniloff, who had succeeded Brusiloff, the successor of Alexieff as commander-in-chief, raised the standard of revolt in behalf of the constitutional democrats, or moderates, against the Socialist government, but was unsuccessful, and saw his revolt put down by Kerensky with little trouble. Shortly afterwards, the Cabinet proclaimed Russia a republic. Before the end of 1917, Kerensky had been replaced by a government of the Bolsheviki (q. v.), under Lenine and Trotsky. In December, an armistice between Russia and Roumania and Germany was announced.

Through January, 1918, the representatives of the Bolshevist government and of Rumania discussed terms of peace with the spokesmen of the Central Powers at Brest-Litovsk. Lenine asked the Allied governments to join the negotiations, but was told that the Allies would not discuss peace with a victorious and uncontrolled German government. On February 15, 1918, the German government finally rejected all peace propositions of the Bolsheviki, and three days later resumed hostilities against Russia, which was not in a condition to oppose even a weak resistance to the German advance. The Germans soon crossed the Dvina River at Dvinsk and, Petrograd being menaced, the seat of the Russian government was removed to Moscow, and the Bolsheviki were forced to accept terms of peace as dictated by Germany.

Rumanian-Central Powers Peace. — At the same time as the peace negotiations between the Central Powers and the Socialist Government of Russia at Brest-Litovsk, and largely under the same conditions, Rumania entered upon peace negotiations with the Central Powers. Final terms of peace were signed on May 7, 1918, constituting the Treaty of Bucharest, and practically making Roumania a vassal state of Germany and Austria-Hungary.

ON OTHER FRONTS

Greece Joins the Entente.—In spite of the efforts of Venizelos, the Greek government persisted in trying to remain neutral in 1917 as well as in 1916. But the Allies used the presence of their army at Saloniki and of their fleet in Grecian waters to compel the demobilization of the Grecian army; the submission of Grecian newspapers and other forms of communication to Allied censorship; the appointment of certain ministers desired by them; the dismissal of the Central Powers' diplomats in Greece; and even the surrender of large military stores for Allied use. The Allies also supported Venizelos in a revolt, but the revolt found little favor among the Greeks. Early in January, the Entente,

Shipping Built in United States During War.—Between April 6, 1917, and November 11, 1918, 2,985 ships were built in United States shipbuilding plants. The total tonnage represented was 3,091,695 gross, an average of 1,035 gross tons each. Of the total built, 506 were ocean-going steel vessels, aggregating 2,056,814 tons, an average of slightly more than 4,000 gross tons each. Ocean-going wooden vessels aggregated 403, with a gross tonnage of 753,156. For further details of our shipbuilding program during the War, see the article in volume XX under "Shipbuilding."

Month by month the number of ships built in the United States was as follows:

Months.	Seagoing.						Nonseagoing.		Grand total.	
	Steel.		Wood.		Total					
	Number.	Gross Tons.	Number.	Gross Tons.	Number.	Gross Tons.	Number.	Gross Tons.	Number.	Gross Tons.
1917.										
April	7	34,364	9	17,233	16	51,597	123	9,201	139	60,798
May	11	36,086	19	33,004	30	69,090	162	22,137	192	91,227
June	22	97,908	9	31,216	31	129,124	196	22,877	227	152,001
July	14	54,891	7	14,113	21	69,004	184	20,148	205	89,152
August	9	46,716	14	12,155	23	58,871	152	27,171	175	86,042
September	9	35,073	12	12,513	21	47,586	80	28,999	101	76,585
October	13	44,420	22	35,879	35	80,299	87	10,386	122	90,685
November	19	50,660	11	10,872	30	61,532	87	15,736	117	77,268
December	17	85,917	16	20,611	33	106,528	52	16,053	85	122,581
1918.										
January	12	53,748	6	6,468	18	60,216	39	4,579	57	64,795
February	17	94,242	14	17,874	31	112,116	53	5,485	84	117,601
March	29	115,040	12	20,776	41	135,816	97	11,329	138	147,145
April	31	130,637	15	21,017	46	151,654	119	11,396	165	163,050
May *	*40	157,598	13	16,453	53	174,051	132	20,413	185	194,464
June	42	163,034	16	26,985	58	190,019	130	11,406	188	201,425
July †	37	146,981	38	72,727	75	219,708	118	†10,223	193	229,931
August	49	191,102	39	91,997	88	283,099	89	12,750	177	295,849
September	46	177,765	54	123,668	100	301,433	70	7,037	170	308,470
October	57	228,203	53	117,165	110	345,368	91	12,164	201	357,532
Nov. 1 to Nov. 11.	25	112,429	24	50,430	49	162,859	15	2,235	64	165,094
Grand total	506	2,056,814	403	753,156	909	2,809,970	2,076	281,725	2,985	3,091,695

* Includes 1 cement vessel of 3,427 gross tons. † Includes 1 cement vessel of 325 gross tons.

charging that Constantine and his Government were engaged in pro-German intrigues, blockaded all Grecian ports; and in June finally compelled him to abdicate, placing his second son, Alexander, on the throne, and giving over the management of the country to Venizelos. Through these measures, Greece was led to declare war on Germany on July 2, 1917.

The Great Italian Defeat at Caporetto.—The winter of 1916-7 was too severe for the Italians to make much of an advance after their capture of Gorizia, but in May they won many more of the heights on their road to Trieste and Laibach. In the same month, another Austro-Hungarian attack in the Trentino failed, although in the early part of June the enemy succeeded by counter-attacks in regaining some of the ground he had lost along the Isonzo front. In August, the Italians drove ahead once more beyond the Isonzo and great efforts in September gained the important position of Mont San Gabriele. A strip of land some thirty miles in width had been cut from the Austro-Hungarian frontier.

But the German General Staff had no intention of permitting the Italians to get farther ahead. They were preparing a heavy onslaught into the Italian positions, and they were aided by the pacifist feeling among the Italian troops. The great Italian Socialist party had taken a position of utter opposition to the prosecution of the war, and when the great German drive started, thousands of Italians soldiers, in the uniform against their will and against their convictions, refused to fight.

On November 1, German and Austro-Hungarian shock troops launched two attacks as terrible as they were unexpected against the Italian line, which had become considerably extended. The attacking forces were largely of seasoned German troops under von Mackensen. One force advanced through Plezzo and Tolmino while the other was making a flanking movement to the northeast. The first attack drove the Italians southwest to the plains around Udine and Cividale, and bent the Italian line so sharply that Gorizia and the surrounding land to the south had also to be abandoned. The German flanking force to the northeast meanwhile was not to be denied, and Cadorna was confronted by the threat of being altogether surrounded. The only escape lay in a general retreat into Italy; and despite the rapidity with which the Germans moved, by skilful strategy he was able to reach the Tagliamento River in Italy with the loss of 180,000 prisoners and 1,500 cannon. The Teutons were thus enabled to occupy the northern boundary of Italy to the extent of more than thirty-five miles.

At the Tagliamento River a stand was made, but the Germans continued their flanking movements, and a general retreat still farther into Italy was ordered. There seemed to be hope that Venice could be saved from the invaders, and that a successful winter stand could be made farther north than the Adige or the Po rivers.

The Italian disaster called forth great re-inforcements from the Allies, especially in supplies; and the consciousness among the Allied leaders that the disaster had been made possible largely by the lack of

The Results of Submarine Warfare.—The following table shows the merchant tonnage of the world on July 1, 1914, the tonnage lost through acts of war (chiefly submarine attacks), the tonnage built during the war, and the tonnage of the world on January 1, 1919. The figures are in gross tons.

	July 1, 1914	*Lost in War*	*Built in War*	*January 1, 1919*
United Kingdom	20,100,000	7,757,000	4,557,000	16,900,000
United States	1,875,000	395,000	4,239,000	5,719,000
Other Allies	7,675,000	2,592,000	1,757,000	6,840,000
Central Powers	6,325,000	3,000,000	750,000	*4,360,000
Neutral Nations	6,640,000	1,998,000	1,144,000	5,786,000
Total	42,615,000	15,742,000	12,447,000	39,605,000

* 2,400,000 tons of Central Powers' shipping were seized at the outbreak of the War and during the War.

The net loss of merchant shipping due to the war, that is, the difference between the tonnage lost and the tonnage constructed, may be placed at 4,250,000. But under normal conditions it is estimated that there would have been constructed from August, 1914 to November, 1918 some 12,000,000 tons of shipping, so that the total shortage in world shipping as a result of the war may be placed at 16,250,000.

It is estimated that Germany lost 200 submarines during the War.

unified management of the war among the Entente Allies led to the formation of a central Allied war council, with power to direct all military operations.

Capture of Jerusalem.—Soon after the entrance of Turkey into the war, a Turkish attack against Egypt and the Suez Canal was launched across the Sinai peninsula. In November, 1914, the Turks arrived within striking distance of the Canal at several points, but after several months were driven back a considerable distance.

In June, 1916, however, the Turks advanced again, and got to within fifteen miles of the coveted water passage, only to be defeated again.

In December, 1916, the British finally succeeded in driving the Turks altogether out of Egypt, and inaugurated an advance of their own into Palestine. By March, 1917, they had advanced to the site of ancient Hebron, fifteen miles south of Jerusalem. The heated summer weather compelled a lull in operations and a retirement until the following Fall; but by November, Beersheba and Gaza were in British hands, and by December Hebron had again been taken, and Jaffa, the port of Jerusalem, also was under the British flag. The city was thus surrounded, but the invading forces proceeded with caution, so as not to injure the holy places of the city; and Jerusalem was not finally surrendered until December 9, 1917.

The Capture of Bagdad.—In 1917, the British prepared to avenge Kut-el-Amara, and in February re-captured the city by a strong advance under General Maude. The victors then proceeded up the Tigris, and, after inflicting several defeats upon the Turks, occupied Bagdad on March 11. The British continued to control Mesopotamia after the War, as one of the settlements of the Peace Treaty.

1918

The First Great German Drive (The Second Battle of the Somme).—If Germany was to win the war by the might of her army, she had to win it in 1918. The Russian military collapse enabled her to transfer all her legions from the eastern to the western front. At the same time, France had passed the zenith of her effort, and her might on the western front had suffered a decline which counter-balanced the increase in Great Britain's might. The submarine warfare was crippling the Entente, and American ship-building had not yet struck its stride. Opposition in the Balkans had almost ceased, and Italy was still engaged in recovering from Caporetto. Finally, the American army in France was not yet in a position to exert great pressure.

In 1919, on the other hand, Germany, like France, would have passed the zenith of her might. America would be in Europe in full force. Austria-Hungary was breaking up, and there was no telling how long the Bolsheviki might remain in power in Russia. For Germany, it was victory in 1918 or never.

Notwithstanding the heavy casualties of 1917, the British Army was considerably stronger on January 1, 1918, than on January 1, 1917. Before the collapse of Russia in November, 1917, the German combatant strength was as two to the Allies' three. The German offensive in March was reinforced with the German troops removed from the Eastern front, with a certain amount of support from Austria, especially in guns and ammunition. Nevertheless, when the battle began, the Germans were still slightly inferior to the Allies in infantry and in artillery and markedly inferior in aircraft.

Accordingly, the Germans reorganized their troops in smaller divisions, so as to get a greater number of divisions. They had fewer men in a battalion and fewer battalions in a division. The particular advantage enjoyed by the Kaiser's troops was that of the offensive and the knowledge where the attack would be delivered, whereas the Allies had to strengthen their line along practically its entire length. The Germans concentrated in front of both the British and the French troops, bringing up their latter forces to the support of the former by night. The Germans enjoyed also remarkably advantageous weather conditions. But the chief advantage which the Germans enjoyed was that of a unified command, as opposed to the divided authority of all the Entente forces.

In addition, the Germans had successfully developed a new method of trench warfare, that of infiltration, whereby groups of machine-guns would break through the enemy lines to post themselves in secure positions, counting on sufficient strength to make the enemy's lines virtually sieves.

The German hope was to separate the French and the British, the latter having taken over so much of the Entente battle-front as to thin it beyond the safety point. If Hindenburg and Ludendorff could break

Casualties of the War.—It is difficult to present accurate figures as to the total casualties of the war. Many soldiers originally reported as missing are later found to have been killed or captured, many were wounded more than once, and many killed were previously included in the wounded column. The following figures, however, are compiled from official reports of some of the belligerents, with the figures for the other belligerents acquired by using the ratio of total casualties to deaths obtaining among these official reports:

ENTENTE ALLIES

	Dead	Wounded	Total Casualties
Russia	1,700,000	3,500,000	7,500,000
France	1,366,200	3,000,000	5,000,000
British Empire	900,000	2,800,000	4,200,000
Italy	462,000	950,000	2,700,000
Servia, Montenegro	125,000	290,000	575,000
Belgium	102,000	235,000	450,000
Roumania	100,000	230,000	440,000
United States	49,000	230,000	286,000
Greece	7,000	16,000	30,000
Portugal	2,000	4,000	7,000
Total	4,813,000	11,255,000	21,188,000

CENTRAL POWERS

Germany	1,620,000	3,700,000	6,000,000
Austria-Hungary	800,000	2,000,000	4,100,000
Turkey	250,000	575,000	800,000
Bulgaria	100,000	400,000	700,000
Total	2,770,000	6,675,000	11,600,000
Grand Total	7,583,000	17,930,000	32,788,000

Estimates of the losses in wars of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries are as follows, although the data are extremely meagre and unreliable, except in the case of the Union forces in the Civil War, where the figures may be regarded as official:

Civil War—Union Army:			*Casualties*
Forces Engaged	2,320,272	War of 1812	50,000
Total Deaths	359,528	Mexican War	50,000
Wounded	275,175	Napoleonic Wars	6,000,000
Confederate Army:		Crimean War	285,000
Forces Engaged	600,000	Russo-Turkish War	225,000
Total Deaths	155,000	Russo-Japanese War	550,000
Wounded	70,000	British-Boer War	175,000

the point of connection, they could roll back the British toward the west, where the ocean would limit the British retreat; and could either capture great numbers and force other great numbers to re-embark from France or else hold the British at bay by relatively few forces while proceeding without interruption to crush the French.

The Germans struck on the morning of March 21, 1918, along the fifty-mile front held by the British Fifth Army. The great German concentration of strength and the new German methods of breaking through the trenches did their work well. Before noon, the British lines had been completely pierced in at least four separate points, and with great bodies of Germans turning in to get in back of the positions which had held, a precipitate retreat all along the line was imperative. And the retreat came perilously close to a rout. The Germans concentrated their strength upon opening a wedge between the retreating Fifth Army and the adjoining Third Army, and at the same time drove another wedge between the British and the French, so that the latter had to swing far to the south and west before they could come up to reinforce the British. Throughout the days following the inauguration of the attack, the British desperately made all haste for the rear, abandoning miles and miles of territory to the Germans, in a hectic hope of establishing once more connections between the Third and the Fifth Armies and between the Fifth Army and the French, so as to avoid the encirclement and hence the complete destruction of the entire Fifth Army. But the Germans drove their wedge between the two British armies so as to drive the Fifth to the north and the Third to the south, as they retreated; and thus the opening between them constantly widened. For a time, only open country lay between the centre of the German phalanx and Paris.

But on March 25, a miscellaneous corps, composed of any and all forces at hand, and placed under General Cary, was shoved into the breach; and although it could not stop the German centre, at least it delayed the enemy long enough, and plugged the German wedge long enough, for the fast retreating Third and Fifth Armies to join once more in back of Cary. All this time, the British were making no pretence at steady resistance, fighting only enough rear-guard actions to save sections in danger of being flanked; and content to retreat if only thereby they might save their formations. By the twenty-seventh, finally, the first of the French reinforcements arrived; and along the Ancre and above Albert, the British were able to make a stand, at the same time beginning to narrow the chasm in their lines.

On March 28, the American First Army was shifted from the Toul sector to a position in reserve back of the French lines, thus permitting more French reserves to rush up to the succor of the British; and the Third and Fifth Armies finally effected a juncture. On that day, the Germans made a supreme effort, capturing Montdidier, and driving for Amiens, where the possession of the Paris-Calais Railroad would effectively cut off the British from the French once more. They drove deeply ahead in certain sections, but

in others the Allied lines remained firm, and the worst was over. Throughout the remainder of the month, the enemy made serious gains, but the lines in front of Amiens finally held. Spending several days in consolidating his last gains, on April 4 Ludendorff again tried to break through the British centre, but was checked by the following day, and by April 8 the drive was over. The enemy had broken through to a depth of some forty miles on a sixty-mile front, had captured fifteen hundred miles of territory, had disorganized one British army and much of another, had compelled the Allies to use all their reserves, and had carved out a most dangerous salient.

One result of the Allied withdrawal was the appointment of the French military leader, General Ferdinand Foch, as generalissimo of all the Allied forces, the first time that the Allied armies had been placed under one leader.

The Second German Drive (*The Battle of the Lys*).—Having failed to coop up all the British forces in front of the English Channel, the next German drive was an effort so to coop up the upper half of the British forces in the west. To this end, Ludendorff struck in Belgium, around the Lys River, from La Bassée to Dixmude. It is possible that this move had been originally intended as a feint and that only the overwhelming German success of the first several days of the drive turned it into a major operation.

For the British forces in this sector had been sadly depleted in order to bolster up the lines to the south shattered some days before, and the Germans had little difficulty in driving ahead when their attack opened on April 9. Portuguese troops among the British broke almost at once, and before long the entire line was in full retreat before the new German infiltration methods. For some days, there was a repetition of the Second Battle of the Somme; and before the enemy was finally halted on April 13, the great British centre of Ypres was in great danger. On April 15, the drive was renewed with success, but from that point to the end of the month the German gains, though often serious—such as those resulting in the occupancy of Mont Kemmel—were chiefly local; and Ypres, although almost surrounded, finally held. The second salient carved out by the Germans was from ten to twenty miles deep, representing a total gain of some 400 square miles.

The Third German Drive (*The Third Battle of the Aisne*).—The third German drive was the decisive one. Germany was fast wasting the resources she had stored up, and if the third drive should fail to gain Paris or completely crush the Allied resistance, Germany would be at the end of her rope, well-nigh merciless before the resurrected strength of the Allies, as reinforced by the great American army which was beginning to be formed in France, ready for action. Throughout the month of May, therefore, Germany hurried her preparations and on May 27, with all the desperation of a final bid for victory, struck on the front between Rheims and the salient carved out in the first great drive.

Once more, the German attack was irresistible and carried all before it. Before the fury of the onslaught, the French reeled back in dismay and for some days the story of the Second Battle of the Somme was repeated. In two days, the enemy broke through to a depth of from twelve to fifteen miles. By this time, American troops were in the thick of the fighting, but nothing could yet stop the German advance, and on May 29, from ten to fifteen miles more were gained and the retreat again was but a shade from a rout, even if no serious gap had been opened in the French ranks comparable to that opened in the British ranks in March. By May 30, the Germans had again reached the Marne, more than thirty miles from their starting point four days before.

Up to this time, Foch had wisely decided to choose retreat rather than risk destruction by extensive resistance, but at the Marne he determined to make his stand. His lines had begun to hold on the extreme wings, and as thus the German gains by this time had assumed the form of a triangle, it would be dangerous for Ludendorff to advance further in the apex without broadening his base. The German leader therefore drove again at the wings. On the west wing, the enemy did manage to break through, bringing his gains in connection with his great Somme salient; but on the east wing, around Rheims, a different story was told. There the French lines held.

Accordingly, the Germans were compelled to concentrate their next efforts on the north side of their Aisne triangle, so as to get in the rear of the Allied troops holding the south side of the Somme salient. And now American troops began to give an account of themselves, along with the French. The Germans were held in the centre, notably around Château Thierry, and on June 4, 5 and 6, they were compelled to halt. The new drive had got ahead faster than its two predecessors, but it had been stopped more quickly.

In the next several days, the Germans again broke through at the west wing of their new Aisne salient, compelling the French to retire from a strip of land some thirty miles long and seven miles deep between the bases of the two salients; but beyond this Ludendorff could not go. Again the French and Americans held the enemy counter-attacks, notably at Belleau Wood, regaining all the ground lost by the initial enemy onslaught. Down to June 18, Ludendorff drove at different places in the line, attempting to find another weak spot where he might again break through, but to no avail, and flesh and blood could go no farther. Through sheer exhaustion, the German attack died down.

The German armies had shot their bolt, and the threat of German victory was now a thing of the past. True, Ludendorff might make another drive, rather than retreat at once to shorten his lines against the Allies, who now, thanks to America, had a decided numerical superiority, but no one knew better than the German leader that a fourth German drive was fore-ordained to failure, and that it would be followed by a hasty retirement from all the ground won in 1918, back to the shortest lines he could hold.

The German Check (*The Second Battle of the Marne*).—Nevertheless, Ludendorff insisted upon one more offensive, driving on July 14 for Rheims, at the eastern apex of the Aisne salient. He drove both from the east of Rheims, and from the eastern side of the Aisne salient, to the west of the city. But in three days, he got ahead but several miles, and could not get far enough behind the city to compel the French commander, General Gouraud, to withdraw from it. At the apex of the

Aisne salient, he was again stopped by the Americans at Château-Thierry and by the French to the east of Château-Thierry. By July 18, the German advance had come to an inglorious close through sheer weakness. It was Foch's turn to strike.

Gaining six miles on the first day, Foch's forces so irresistibly swept aside the German defense that Hindenburg and Ludendorff decided that to oppose the whole fronting army of the Crown Prince was to court its complete annihilation or surrender, and a general German retreat from the salient was ordered. The German General Staff evidently hoped that rear guard actions would give the Crown Prince's army time to retire in good order, but so precipitate was the American and French advance that the Germans had to retreat in great disorder, and enormous stores of war materials and great numbers of prisoners fell into the Allies' hands. The Allied attack beginning at the apex of the salient, by July 20 it spread around the sides. By July 23, every German had been driven across the Marne, and by July 27, the German army abandoned all pretense of strong resistance until it could reach the Vesle, where the Germans established themselves and entrenched by August 5th. Their line was thus much shorter, and their evident need for a shortening of the front gave every indication that the German forces were no longer strong enough to maintain against the Allies' forces a battle line much lengthened over the Hindenburg line of 1917. The Germans accordingly gave up the entire salient which had cost them so dear.

The Beginning of the End.—When the Crown Prince's Army entrenched itself on the Vesle on August 5, 1918, it seemed probable that another period of trench warfare, possibly continuing up to the following spring, was in order; for it looked as though the Allies needed several months to consolidate the salient which they had regained, and to prepare strong forces to attack the German position.

But Foch's resources were greater than probably any one except himself knew. Within two days, that is, on August 7, he ordered an advance of the British forces against the army of Prince Rupprecht, one hundred miles to the north, on the Lys salient. The next day, August 8, another attack was launched halfway between the Crown Prince's line and Rupprecht's army—on the Somme and directed against the lines of communication feeding the new position of the Crown Prince on the Vesle. The strength of the new attack may be gauged from the fact that on the first day the English army under Rawlinson gained no less than nine miles. By August 12, Lassigny had been taken and 40,000 prisoners were in the Allies' hands. Before August 18, when the Germans attempted to make a new stand, they had given up much ground and had surrendered at least one-fifth of the Lys and Picardy salients.

Simultaneously, attacks on the Crown Prince's line had made it impossible for him to consolidate his resources, and by August 18, his army had been driven back about ten miles from the Vesle. By this time, the whole line from the coast to Switzerland was active, and contemporaneous history becomes impossible. One can only take up different sections in order.

On the Lys salient, the Germans were compelled before September to withdraw forces to prevent a rout farther south, where Foch was hammering in Picardy; and the British constantly took advantage of these withdrawals to launch attacks which cut deeply into the German line. By August 25, Merville was in Allied hands and by August 30, Bailleul. On the next day Mount Kemmel itself was re-occupied by the British and by September 10, Wytschaete was evacuated.

In the Picardy salient, the centre of the entire Allied thrust was taking place, and was dominating the whole line, gains in Picardy necessitating both withdrawals and transferrals of German troops from other sectors to bolster the Picardy lines. On August 25, the Allied forces had reached the Hindenburg Line on the north, and there the Germans once more endeavored to make a stand.

The Hindenburg line represented the line held by the Germans through the winter of 1917-8 and hence the line from which their advances in the spring of 1918 had been launched. It was the strongest natural line of defense for the Germans and also the shortest, while if it were once seriously broken, the entire German line in Belgium and northern France would have been threatened. The entire world therefore looked to see that line held by the Germans up to the last man and the last ounce of resources.

Foch, however, had no intention of allowing the Germans sufficient breathing space to make a stand. The Allies advanced as quickly as the Germans retreated. It was therefore significant when Haig was able within several days to cut the Hindenburg line to the north near Arras, and to carve out the first salient into the Hindenburg line since the beginning of the war, a salient toward Cambrai, developing considerable proportions by August 27th. By the end of the month, Mont St. Simeon fell and Mont St. Quentin, dominating the road up the Oise and Peronne. By the middle of the month of September, the Hindenburg line was being attacked along its whole length, and had been pierced in several important sections toward Cambrai.

On the Vesle front, there was little attacking between the middle of August and the first of September. The German withdrawals to the north, however, were threatening the Crown Prince with the danger of being flanked, and on September 5 he ordered a wide retreat to a point some twenty miles back of the Vesle. His retreat broke whatever had been left of the German military morale, and by October 1, the Hindenburg line had been cleared of Germans and the battlefront was rolling far to the north and east. Meanwhile the surrender of Bulgaria exposed Germany and Austria on the east and Turkey on the west.

The German Rout.—From the middle of September, the history of the war on the western front is an uninterrupted story of Allied gains and German retreats. By September 16, there could no longer be question of final defeat of Germany. Her losses had been tremendous all through the year, but by the end of the summer she could show nothing as recompense for them. Her condition in the military sense was dynamic, not static; on no front except that of Lorraine was she able to catch her breath. There was no longer possibility of making a stand—she had risked all, and was losing all, and there was no middle ground she could hold. She had decided to abandon the slow trench warfare, had won tremendous victories in the open, but now that the Allies had

utilized the open fighting for victories of their own, Germany no longer could resort to trenches. The only problem now on the western front was the number of men and guns Germany could save before she reached the Rhine and there was strong probability that the rate of her retreat had been so accelerated that even at the Rhine no stand could be made. After the middle of September, moreover, the American army west of the Vesle was ready with its thrust.

American Troops Capture St. Mihiel Salient.—For more than four years, from September, 1914, to September, 1918, the German forces had occupied the so-called St. Mihiel salient—stretching over the plain of the Woevre River. Its apex toward France was the town of St. Mihiel, on the Meuse, and it protected as its base the great iron fields of Briey, the most productive in the world, while still farther in the rear it served as a bulwark for the strongest of all German fortresses, Metz, with its many surrounding forts.

On September 12, 1918, the first American army ever mobilized in France launched a tremendous attack against the entire salient. Pershing himself led the attack, and under him was the flower of the troops sent across the seas, trained, supplied and reserved to break for all time the threat of German world domination. It was no mere chance which gave the Americans probably the most difficult position to attack along the whole line—fortified as it had been for all of four long years over almost every square foot of its two hundred miles.

The operation itself was along the so-called pincers plan. One claw of the pincers rested on the Moselle near Pont-a-Mousson —about ten miles thick. The other was to the east of the river, near Haudimont—about seven miles thick.

The artillery preparation began about midnight, and lasted several hours. The chief opposition was encountered on the west front, at the northern tip of the salient, slightly southwest of Fresnes; but before the end of the day the advance here had almost equalled the advance on the southern end of the salient. The attack was led by a great army of tanks, reported by correspondents to be between 500 and 1,000.

On the first day, the northern attacking force had advanced from five to seven miles, while on the second it had got about twelve miles into the salient, reaching the Moselle at Jaulny. On the first day alone, some 10,000 prisoners were taken, the Germans being unable to offer much resistance to the force of the attack.

Early in the second day, the forces attacking from the south, which had had the easier task, met the northern forces at Haudicourt, and the junction of the two forces gave them all the ground back of them, in all, about 100 square miles. The combined forces then advanced along the entire line. By September 16, the guns of Metz itself got into action, and for the first time the Germans were able to offer stiff resistance, and some of the American advances were checked. Nevertheless by the seventeenth, the Americans had advanced to Ronvaux and Haumont. By the eighteenth, the attack slackened to consolidate the positions won, especially near the regions from which the pincers had first begun to close in upon the German lines.

In five days, accordingly, probably the most strongly-fortified German salient had been captured, with more than 20,000 prisoners and 200 guns; Verdun had for all time been freed from danger of further attack; more than 200 square miles of territory had been gained; the Moselle had been reached; and Metz was finally under fire, while the Briey iron fields were at least menaced.

Every military observer then realized that the war was practically over and the only uncertainty lay in the length of time before the German forces degenerated into a rabble and Germany would admit defeat, ask peace on the Allies' terms, and lay prostrate before the mercies of the Allies.

Germany herself answered the question. On September 15, 1918, Austria asked peace. The peace negotiations are described elsewhere, and it will suffice here to say that from that moment until the armistice was signed on November 11, the defeat of Germany and her inability for further resistance were confessed by herself and on the battlefronts only rearguard machine actions obstructed the steady advance of the Allies toward German territory.

Capitulation of Bulgaria.—The check to the German advance in the summer of 1918, and the forward progress of the Allies beyond even the line which the Germans had held through the winter of 1917, lowered morale among Germany's allies as well as in Germany itself throughout August and September, 1918. Coupled with these military events was the ever-increasing faith, not only among the Entente Allies, and not only among the neutrals, but even among the common people of the Central Powers, in the potency and promise of President Wilson's program of international political idealism.

The first sign of the defection of Germany's Allies was the peace overture from Austria-Hungary, described elsewhere. The second, and even more significant, was the agreement by Bulgaria to an armistice on the terms of the Allies.

On September 14, 1918, a carefully prepared but carefully concealed campaign was opened against Bulgaria. The British and Greek forces, which had long been held at Saloniki and other places in Greece as protection against a possible invasion of Greece by German, Austrian or Turkish forces, were no longer needed in this capacity because of the inability of Germany to detach any of her forces from her hard-pressed western front. Accordingly, the British-Greek forces struck the Bulgarian line with great vehemence between the Vardar River and Lake Doiran. Serbian forces soon afterwards made for Charevo and the Serbian-French forces made east of Monastir for Uskub, while there was a general enfianking movement of the Italians eastward through Albania. Within ten days, progress to the extent of one hundred miles had been made, and in a few days more the capture of Strumitza severed the two wings of the Bulgar-German army.

On September 27, 1918, Bulgaria asked for an armistice, and being refused any armistice except one on the Allies' terms, agreed to the latter proposal; and on September 29, 1918, it was announced that Bulgaria had withdrawn from the war. The terms she received were purely military, containing no provisions of a political nature, the armistice being in force until a final general peace was declared. Bulgaria agreed to evacuate all the territory she occupied in Greece and Servia; to demobilize her army at once; to surrender all means of transportation to the

Allies, including her boats; to grant control of navigation on the Danube; to give the Allies free passage for military operations through her territory; to permit the Allies to occupy all strategic military points, and to store her arms and ammunition under the control of the Allies.

Thus in addition to losing an ally, with the consequent loss of prestige and weakening of morale, Germany's direct route to the East was broken, the Berlin-to-Bagdad Railroad was blocked, the solid belt of German territory through Central Europe (Mitteleuropa) was dissipated and Turkey was practically isolated.

Palestine Lost to Turks.—On September 18, 1918, General Allenby struck with all the might of the British army in Asia Minor against the Turkish armies in central and northern Palestine; and the Turks were soon in full retreat. In connection with Arabs under King Hussein, the British forces advanced rapidly from the Mediterranean at Haifa on a line extending across all of Palestine to the Arabian desert. On October 1, Damascus, the capital of Syria, was taken and occupied. By October 8, the Allied forces had captured the towns of Zaleh and Rayek, thirty miles from Damascus. On the same day, a French naval division entered Beirut, 150 miles north of Damascus, and made for Aleppo, the seat of the Turkish military power in Asia Minor; and it soon fell into their hands.

Simultaneously, the British forces along the Euphrates and Tigris, in Mesopotamia, advanced toward Allenby's army.

Before the surrender of the Turkish army, Allenby had captured some 125,000 prisoners, including some Austrian and German troops and officers.

So complete was Allenby's victory that the road to the Aegean sea and the Dardanelles was opened and Turkey was in no position to resist further. By the middle of October, all Palestine was free of Turkish forces, and with Allenby threatening an advance to the north and east, Turkey sued for peace. A note addressed to the United States on October 11 asked for peace terms and indicated willingness to yield whatever points were demanded, but before the Allies, busy with negotiations with Austria and Germany, could reply, Allenby's threat had become so great that Turkey surrendered to him early in November and granted the terms of armistice demanded by him, of a nature to make Turkey impotent, to await her final fate from the world war at the hands of the Allied representatives at the final peace negotiations.

It was announced by the Allied Governments that Palestine would be administered pending final settlement of its status by a government representing the Allies. In 1918 both Great Britain and France announced that Palestine would be an autonomous state, and that Jews would be protected in their organization of the long-cherished Zionist hope, a separate and independent Jewish state. In a semi-official letter to Rabbi Wise, of New York (see page 8575), President Wilson also endorsed the Zionist program with respect to Palestine.

Intervention in Russia.—In the summer of 1918, the Allies and the United States embarked upon a policy of military intervention in Russia (see page 8590), but with disastrous results. The Russian people rallied to the support of the Bolshevist government, particularly against the Japanese; many elements within the Allied countries resented invasion of a land whose Government desired to remain neutral, while even neutrals charged that the true purpose of the intervention was to collect old Tsarist debts and to provide for the economic exploitation of Russia; the Czecho-Slovak forces did not leave Russia until 1920; the Allied troops made little headway; the stores and supplies saved from falling into Bolshevist hands did not atone for the cost of intervention and for the diversion of strength from the western front; the Italian Socialists and the British Labor Party gained great electoral victories largely on the Russian issue; and the Bolshevist Government constantly became more powerful. In 1919, the Allies and the United States concentrated their efforts on supporting native Russian leaders warring against the Bolsheviks, but these leaders were denounced by most Russians as monarchist and reactionary, and received so little support that by 1920 all of them had been overthrown and their forces dispersed, while the Bolshevist Red Army was well on the road to regain much of the Russian territory which had been lost.

Austria's Internal Troubles and Defeat in Italy.—During the spring and summer of 1918 evidences of racial discontent within the Austrian Empire and opposition to the government, aggravated by the desperate food situation, grew more and more pronounced. A Conference of Oppressed Austrian nationalities met at Rome on April 10 and declared the necessity of the disintegration of the Empire and the establishment of a unified, independent Jugo-Slav nation. On May 5 Emperor Charles dissolved the Reichsrat, in which the Germans were in the minority. Demonstra-

The Cost of the War.—The following figures show the cost of the War to the spring of 1919, almost six months after the termination of hostilities. They represent most of the direct outlay for military purposes, but naturally the cost of the War, in items such as pensions, etc., will continue for many years after the signing of the peace.

ENTENTE ALLIES

British Empire	$ 38,000,000,000
France	26,000,000,000
United States	22,000,000,000
Russia	18,000,000,000
Italy	13,000,000,000
Other Entente Allies	6,000,000,000
Total	$123,000,000,000

CENTRAL POWERS

Germany	$ 39,000,000,000
Austria-Hungary	21,000,000,000
Turkey and Bulgaria	3,000,000,000
Total	$ 63,000,000,000
Grand Total	$186,000,000,000

War Debts.—The following table shows the pre-war and post-war debts of the belligerent nations:

	Pre-War	*Post-War*
Germany	$ 1,200,000,000	$ 39,000,000,000
U. Kingdom	3,500,000,000	34,000,000,000
France	6,600,000,000	27,000,000,000
United States	1,300,000,000	24,000,000,000
Aust.-Hungary	4,000,000,000	23,000,000,000
Italy	2,900,000,000	11,000,000,000
Russia	5,100,000,000	25,000,000,000
Total	$24,600,000,000	$183,000,000,000

tions against Germany became more and more frequent. Risings in Bohemia led to the establishment of martial law at Prague and the suppression of Czech newspapers. The disintegrating forces were fostered by organized Italian propaganda in the Austrian army and by a statement issued by the Allied War Council at Versailles in favor of an independent Polish state and freedom for the Czecho-Slovaks and Jugo-Slavs. Numerous mutinies occurred among the Slavic troops and Bohemian troops began to join the Italian army.

In the summer of 1918, Austria-Hungary endeavored to stave off the impending dissolution of the Dual Monarchy by winning another success against the Italians. On June 15, the Austro-Hungarians advanced along the entire front. On the west, the Italians, aided by some British and French divisions, held firm, but to the east, along the Piave, Diaz lost much ground. On the next day, the same story was repeated and by June 17, the Austro-Hungarians were well across the Piave along most of its lower length. But on the following day, the Italians were ready with their counter-attack, and, aided by a flood in the Piave, began to drive the enemy back to his positions on the north bank of the river. For several days, the Italians continued their advance; until the enemy's left wing had been turned, and by the twenty-fourth the opposing forces were back in the positions they had occupied before the beginning of the offensive.

On October 25, General Diaz led his Italian army in a powerful frontal attack against the Austrian positions, and within three days there was little left which could be called an Austrian army. On the 29th, the Austro-Hungarian government declared its willingness to adhere to all the conditions laid down by the American government and asked for an immediate armistice on all fronts without waiting for the outcome of other negotiations. By this time, the defeat of the Austrians in Italy had become a complete débacle, and Austria was menaced too vitally by the Italian army to be able to await the result of further peace negotiations. Accordingly, she turned directly to General Diaz, and on November 4, 1918, an armistice was concluded on terms which amounted to unconditional surrender.

Final Peace Negotiations.—When the Austrian note asking for negotiations looking toward peace was handed to President Wilson on September 16, 1918, there was little doubt of Germany's knowledge and approval of the move. Accordingly, there was no surprise when Germany herself took up the burden of the peace move, after the President had peremptorily told Austria that the United States had previously stated her peace conditions and that therefore he must refuse to re-state them or to enter into conversations on the subject.

The direct peace overture came from Germany on October 6, signed by Prince Max, who had supplanted von Hertling as the power of the military oligarchy of Germany waned at home under the pressure of the retreat of the German armies under Foch's blows in the field. The course of the negotiations and the final terms of the armistice may be seen by consulting pages 8603 to 8617.

President Wilson, before replying to the German overture, asked on October 8 three questions of the German government, concerned with—(1) the acceptance by Germany of his terms of peace laid down on January 8th (the 14 points) and on other occasions; (2) the willingness of the Central Powers to abandon all invaded territory as an requisite to an armistice; (3) the extent to which the German government was still uncontrolled by the German people and the Reichstag.

On October 12, the German government returned answers to these queries indicating their willingness to accept the President's terms of peace and to relinquish invaded territory and asserting that recent changes in the German political structure had given the German people control over their Government.

On October 14, President Wilson replied, calling the German government's attention to the fact that an armistice would have to be left to the military leaders of the Allies and would be of a nature calculated to maintain the contemporaneous Allied military supremacy and to render Germany impotent in the field; that no peace could be considered by the Allied governments while Germany persisted in her inhuman practises on sea and on land; and that one feature of the only peace to which the Allies would consent would be the final overthrow of the autocratic and unchecked military group in control of the German people.

By this time, the German forces in France were no longer able to maintain even a pretense of strong resistance to the oncoming Allied troops, and Germany was compelled to assent to the conditions, or rather the observations, of the note of President Wilson of October 14. In a reply of October 18, Germany indicated her willingness to grant even the last points insisted upon by the President, accompanying her acceptance with a memorandum, not made public, indicating the recent changes toward complete democratization which had taken place in Germany since September.

Accordingly, on October 23, the President replied, saying that he would lay the German request before the Allies, but still insisting that the terms of the armistice would necessarily be severe, because of the untrustworthy nature of the German government. The Interallied War Council was immediately convened at Versailles, Colonel House being the chief of the American delegates, and arranged terms of an armistice.

On November 5, 1918, President Wilson informed the German government that the Allies had decided upon the terms on which an armistice would be granted Germany, and that Germany could obtain them by application to Marshal Foch. At midnight on November 10, 1918, the armistice was signed, and actual hostilities ceased six hours later (eleven A. M., November 11, French time). As will be seen by consulting the terms of the armistice in President Wilson's address to Congress on November 11, 1918, they are of such a nature as to constitute complete surrender, and to mark the end of the war.

The story of the armistice negotiations will be found on pages 8603-8617.

The most stupendous of all wars lasted from August 1, 1914, to November 11, 1918, killed more than 8,000,000 men, permanently wounded and disabled almost as many more, cost well-nigh $175,000,000,000, and involved 28 nations. Fundamentally, it ended for all time the hope of the German militarists to dominate the world, unseated the Czar and demolished the last vestige of royalty in Russia, broke up the Austro-Hungarian government into its racial groups, ended the isolation of America and brought her as an active member into

the family of the world's nations, and at the very end not only overthrew the Hohenzollern and all other royal dynasties within the German empire and restored the German people to independence, but also dissipated for all time that creed of might and force which the world to its cost had come to know as German Kultur. More important than any other achievement, it brought the great nations of the world into agreement, and gave hope that the international world order of the future would be one permeated no longer by lack of organization and competitive negotiations supported by force, but one of orgonization of the nations of the world into a league whose foundations lie in justice and goodwill and friendship.

Battle-line at Close of Hostilities.—When the guns of battle ceased their roar from both the Allied and the German lines in northern France and Belgium at exactly one minute before eleven o'clock (six o'clock, French time), the line of battle was approximately as follows:

From Belgium at the boundary with Holland near Selzaete (all the Belgian seacoast had been cleared of Germans) south through Ghent, southeast through Grammont, along the west bank of the Dandre River to Ath; 4 miles east of Mons, crossing the Sammbre at the boundary with France, several miles southwest of Thuin. Then for some distance almost exactly along the French-Belgian frontier to Rocroi, thence on to French soil proceeding just north of Messieres and Sedan, along the Meuse until the river begins to turn directly south; then away from the Meuse some ten miles north and east of Verdun, through Fresnes, being retired close to the French-German frontier near Conflans and Mars la Tour, some twelve miles north and east of Nancy, then again well onto French territory straight across to the frontier again in the Vosges mountains directly east of Saint Die, where it passed into Lorraine, extending almost due southwest of Mulhausen until it ended near the point where Germany, Switzerland and France touch.

Position of American Forces at End of Hostilities.—On November 11, 1918, scattered forces of American troops were scattered along the entire battle-front from the North Sea to Switzerland; but the main military strength of the United States, as represented by its First and Second American Armies, lay as follows:

First American Army.—Running south to north, from north of the Chateau D'Hannonville (about ten miles east by southeast of Verdun) slightly northwest, passing east of Blanzee and Grimaucort, then steadily northwest, passing east of Bezonvaux, north of Chaumont, north of Remoiville, striking the Meuse east and north of Stenay, then north and east of the Meuse, passing north and east of Sedan, ending the sector north of Nouzon, along the Meuse. This sector was only about seven miles from the Belgian frontier at its northernmost point, and fifteen miles at its southern end from the German frontier along Lorraine, although about thirty miles from the German and Luxembourg frontier along the middle of the sector.

Second American Army.—Running south to north, from Nomeny (due east of St. Mihiel and Pont à Mousson, and just west of the German frontier in Lorraine), west by north through Eply, to the Moselle River less than a mile south of Pagny, then west slightly south of Preny; then west through Remberecourt to the north edge of Lake Lauchausee, through St. Hilaire, Marcheville and Riaville to a point slightly south of Ville-en-Woevre. The American front covered 52 miles.

Part Played by United States Troops.—It was on May 26, 1917, that General Pershing with a small staff landed in France to conduct the military operations of the United States against the Central Powers. At that time, the French and British armies were at their maximum strength, but had failed to dislodge the enemy from his positions; so that the problem presented was that of organizing an American force sufficiently strong to turn the tide in favor of the Allies.

It was decided that an American combat division would consist of 4 regiments of infantry of 3,000 men each, with 3 battalions to a regiment and 4 companies of 250 men each to a battalion. An artillery brigade consisted of 3 regiments, a machine-gun battalion, an engineer regiment, a trench-mortar battery, a signal battalion, wagon trains, and the headquarters staff and military police. These, with medical and other units, made a total of about 28,000 men, practically twice as many as in the average French and British divisions.

Each corps consisted of 6 divisions,—4 combat and 1 depot and 1 replacement; and also 2 regiments of cavalry. Each army consisted of from 3 to 5 corps. With 4 fully trained divisions, a corps could take over a sector of the battle-line with 2 in line and 2 in reserve, with the depot and replacement divisions ready to fill any gaps in the line.

The plan of training in France was for one month for acclimatization and training in small units from battalions down, a second month in quiet trench sectors by battalions and a third month after coming out of the trenches for training in war of movement as a complete division.

The principles of general staff work were taught to officers at Langres. The artillery school was at Saumur. Cadets in aviation were trained at Issoudun.

The choice of the position of the American army was influenced chiefly by transportation considerations. The northern ports of France were overcrowded by the British and the southern ports had inadequate dock facilities. Moreover, the systems of transportation in northern France behind the front were already overtaxed. It was therefore decided that the American army would use the southern ports of France on the Atlantic—Bordeaux, La Pallice, St. Nazaire and Brest—and the railroad systems leading from them to the northeast. The American sector would hence be to the northeast. The great depots of supply were centrally located.

The chief deficits in equipment were in artillery, aviation and tanks. The French government came to our rescue in the first case with heavy guns for thirty divisions. In the second case, the French also came to the rescue, with 2,775 planes—1,380 altogether being received in addition from the United States. In tanks also the French were relied upon, although their own needs did not permit them to furnish quite an adequate number.

By March 21, 1918, when the great German offensive in Picardy began, there were four American divisions experienced in the trenches and equal to any of the demands of battle. The crisis developed by the German offensive was so serious that on March 28 the occupation of an American sector was abandoned and all American forces placed at the disposal of Marshal Foch.

Foch transferred the First Division from the Toul sector, where it had taken over a section of the battle-line, to a position in reserve at Chaumont en Vexin. On April 26, the First Division went into action in the Montdidier salient in Picardy. Its first true opportunity to manifest its qualities occurred on May 28, when it captured and held the town of Cantigny.

The second great German offensive in Belgium on the British battle-front occasioned an agreement between the American and the Allied commanders whereby British shipping was to transport ten American divisions to the British battle-front.

The third great German offensive beginning on the Aisne on May 27 created another grave crisis for the Allies and again every American soldier was placed at the disposal of Foch. The Third Division, which had just finished its preliminary training in the trenches, was hurried to the Marne. Its machine-gun motor battalion arrived in time to check the German advance at Château-Thierry. The Second Division had been held in reserve near Montdidier, and was thrown on the enemy's road toward Paris. It captured Bouresches and later Belleau Wood; and on July 1, just before it was relieved, the town of Vaux fell into its hands.

The divisions which had been brigaded with the British Army had been held back in training areas or assigned to second-line defenses. In June, five of the ten divisions were withdrawn from the British area—three to relieve divisions in Lorraine and two to protect Paris from any further German advance. The great June-July movement of troops from the United States allowed all the divisions already in France by that time to be utilized.

The deep Marne salient established by the Germans was a source of danger to them no less than to the Allies, and when their offensive from the head of that salient failed —largely as a result of resistance of elements of the American Third, Twenty-Eighth and Forty-Second Divisions—General Pershing determined upon a strong counter-attack, in which the First and Second Divisions were given the place of honor along with chosen French troops. In the reduction of the Marne salient, the Americans took a leading part.

Accordingly, American divisions could at last be consolidated in and on the American zone—the reduction of the St. Mihiel salient being long planned as the first attempt of the American Army. For the reasons outlined above, there had not been up to this time an active American sector; but on August 30, the line from Port sur Seille, east of the Moselle, west through St. Mihiel and thence north to a point opposite Verdun was placed in American hands. The American front was afterwards extended across the Meuse to the western edge of the Argonne forest, including several sectors held by French troops. This First American Army was under Pershing himself.

The preparation of the attack against the St. Mihiel salient involved the moving of almost 600,000 men at night with all the supplies and equipment necessary to maintain them. The French lent artillery and especially air forces and the British also lent air forces, so that the joint air force assembled was probably the greatest and most powerful gathered for any one operation during the entire war.

On the very day after the capture of the St. Mihiel salient, plans were laid to drive back the old German line to the northwest, between the Meuse River and the Argonne Forest. The attack would be directed against the important railroad communications of the Germans through Mezières and Sedan. The German army, although defeated, had not suffered demoralization, and was exhibiting remarkable efficiency, tactical skill and courage.

On the night of September 25, American troops quietly took the places of the French, who were holding this long-quiet sector very thinly; and the attack began on the 25th. By the 28th, penetration of from three to seven miles had been attained, 10,000 prisoners had been taken, and the battle had been forced into the open. The Germans were still unified and powerful, however, and from the 28th to October 4 launched tremendous counter-attacks against the new American positions, but always without success.

In the meantime, other divisions were assisting the Allies as follows: On September 29 and October 1, the 27th and 30th Divisions were in the place of honor with Australian troops in breaking through the Hindenburg Line in Belgium where the St. Quentin Canal passes through a tunnel. In this and later actions from October 6 to October 19, these two divisions captured over 6,000 prisoners and advanced about thirteen miles. On October 2 to October 9, the Second and Thirty-Sixth Divisions were sent to assist the French in an important attack around St. Etienne and Blanc Mont, where they played an important part in the successes achieved.

On October 4, the second phase of the Argonne-Meuse offensive was assumed. Troops fresh from the United States were brigaded with veteran units whose strength had been exhausted. By the 10th the Argonne Forest had been cleared of the enemy.

It was now necessary to organize the Second American Army and the command of the First was turned over to Lieutenant General Liggett, the command of the Second being reserved for Lieutenant General Bullard. Constant progress was made up to October 18, the Germans resisting firmly, but making a firm stand only by bolstering their lines opposite the American Army with troops drawn from other sections of the line.

Meanwhile the Thirty-Seventh and Ninety-First Divisions were withdrawn to help the French Army in Belgium. Organized on the Belgian front by October 31, on that day they attacked in force near Ypres and within the next three days won signal victories.

On November 1, the Argonne-Meuse fight entered upon its third phase. The German line was steadily driven back, and by the 5th the advance had become impetuous and well-nigh irresistible. On the 6th the Meuse was crossed at a point opposite Sedan, representing an advance of 25 miles from the original position of the Army before the beginning of its summer offensive. The enemy's line of communications were thus severed and the main objective of the offensive was accomplished.

Further American plans were directed toward an advance of the First Army between the Meuse and the Moselle in the direction of Longwy and one by the Second toward the coal fields of Briey, and preliminary attacks toward those ends had actually got under way when hostilities ceased on November 11.

There were altogether in Europe, including one regiment and some sanitary units in Italy and the forces on the Murman coast in North Russia, approximately 2,050,000 American troops, less the losses incurred. Of this total, there were in France some 1,340,000 combatant troops. Forty divisions

had arrived in France, ten being used as replacement troops, leaving thirty divisions in France organized into three armies of three corps each.

Achievements of United States Marines.—In the heart of the battles which, as described above, stopped the German advance at Château-Thierry and inaugurated the Allied advance from that same point were the Marines. It was due largely to the rush of the Marines that Belleau Wood was taken and Bouresches occupied. In the following month of July, the Marines were again called into successful action near Soissons, and in September they were part of the American forces which captured the St. Mihiel salient. In the following month, they assisted valiantly in the capture of the Blanc Mont ridge, some twenty miles east of Rheims. Of the 8,000 Marines who were actively engaged in battles, the casualties were 69 officers and 1,531 enlisted men dead; 78 officers and 2,435 enlisted men more or less seriously wounded; and only 57 taken prisoners by the enemy.

American Forces in Battle.—The number of American soldiers to reach France was 2,084,000. Of these, some 1,390,000 saw active service in the front battle-lines. The number of divisions dispatched overseas was 42, and in addition some 200,000 troops were sent in auxiliary services. Of the 42 divisions sent to France, only 29 took active part in hostilities as such, the remainder being utilized as replacement troops or arriving in France just before the termination of hostilities. Of these 29 divisions, whose record comprises the greater part of the battle record of the United States, 7 were of the Regular Army, 11 were of the National Guard and 11 were of the National Army.

During the 200 days of battle in which American troops were engaged, they performed 13 major operations, of which 11 were performed in conjunction with French, British and Italian troops and 2 were distinctively American undertakings.

The period of greatest activity of the American Army was in the second week of October, when all the 29 divisions were in line, holding 101 miles, or 23 per cent., of the western battle-front. A resumé of the American record is as follows:

Total Battle Advances, miles	485
Prisoners Captured	63,000
Artillery Captured, Pieces	1,378
Trench Mortars Captured	708
Machine Guns Captured	9,650

The thirteen major operations in which American troops were engaged were as follows, together with the number of American troops involved:

West Front—Campaign of 1917:	
Cambrai, Nov. 20 to Dec. 4	2,200
West Front—Campaign of 1918:	
German offensive, Mar. 21 to July 18—	
Somme, Mar. 21 to Apr. 6	2,200
Lys, Apr. 9 to 27	500
Aisne, May 27 to June 5	27,500
Noyon-Montdidier, June 9 to 15	27,000
Champagne-Marne, July 15 to 18	85,000
Allied offensives, July 18 to Nov. 11—	
Aisne-Marne, July 18 to Aug. 6	270,000
Somme, Aug. 8 to Nov. 11	54,000
Oise-Aisne, Aug. 18 to Nov. 11	85,000
Ypres-Lys, Aug. 19 to Nov. 11	108,000
St. Mihiel, Sept. 12 to 16	550,000
Meuse-Argonne, Sept. 20 to Nov. 11	1,200,000
Italian Front—Campaign of 1918:	
Vittorio-Veneto, Oct. 24 to Nov. 4	1,200

The Strength of the American Army.—The following table shows the strength of the army of the United States in Europe and as a whole during the participation of the United States in the Great War.

1917—	*In Europe*	*As a Whole*
April		200,000
May		290,000
June		390,000
July	20,000	500,000
August	35,000	551,000
September	45,000	691,000
October	65,000	948,000
November	102,000	1,100,000
December	139,000	1,189,000
1918—		
January	176,000	1,315,000
February	225,000	1,425,000
March	253,000	1,639,000
April	320,000	1,796,000
May	424,000	1,953,000
June	722,000	2,112,000
July	996,000	2,380,000
August	1,293,000	2,658,000
September	1,576,000	3,001,000
October	1,843,000	3,433,000
November	1,971,000	3,634,000

Casualties.—Battle casualties in the American Expeditionary Forces were as follows:

Dead		48,909
Killed in Action	34,180	
Died of Wounds	14,729	
Wounded		230,074
Severely	80,130	
Slightly	110,544	
Degree Undetermined	39,400	
Missing in Action		2,913
Prisoners		4,434
Total		286,339

The comparative mortality in battle and from disease in recent wars of the United States has been as follows:

War	*Battle Rate*	*Disease Rate*
Mexican, 1846-48	12%	88%
Civil (Union forces), 1861-5	34%	66%
Spanish, 1898	16%	84%
European (Sept., 1917-June, 1918)	50%	50%

Expenditures.—For the 25 months from April 1, 1917 to May 1, 1919, the Treasury disbursements of the United States were $23,363,000. Charging $2,069,000,000 as normal peace expenses, the direct cost of the War to the United States for 25 months may be placed at $21,294,000,000. In addition, there was loaned to our Allies the sum of $8,850,000,000. Of the total war expenditure, there was expended on the Army $14,244,061,000. The *daily cost* of the War to the United States at different periods was as follows:

May 15, 1917	$ 2,000,000
February 1, 1918	22,500,000
January 1, 1919	44,700,000

The expenditures in the Army from April 1, 1917 to May 1, 1919 were divided as follows:

Quartermaster Corps*	$6,242,745,000
Ordnance Department	4,087,347,000
Pay of the Army	1,831,273,000
Air Service	859,291,000
Engineer Corps	638,974,000
Medical Department	314,544,000
Signal Corps	128,920,000
Chemical Warfare Service	83,299,000
Provost Marshal General	*24,301,000
Secretary of War and Miscellaneous	†33,367,000

* Exclusive of pay of the Army.
† December 31, 1918.

The total cost of the War to the United States averaged well above $1,000,000 *an hour* for more than two years.

United States Navy Activities.—Owing to the fact that the German naval campaign after the United States entered the War was confined to its submarine operations, the United States navy played a purely defensive and protective part in the conflict. Without its protection, however, combined with the protection of the navies of the Allies, not only could few American troops have been dispatched to Europe, but also there would have been a lack of the supplies wherewith to support them there. The United States Navy assisted materially in the transportation of more than 2,000,000 United States troops to Europe without the loss of a single American troopship sailing east and with the loss of only a few hundred soldiers altogether on the high seas.

At the close of the War, the United States naval forces in European waters comprised 338 vessels with a personnel of some 75,000—representing a force larger than the entire navy before the entrance of the United States into the War.

Four naval vessels were lost in the War as a result of submarine attacks—the destroyer *Jacob Jones;* the converted yacht *Alcedo;* the Coast Guard cutter *Tampa;* and the cruiser *San Diego* (sunk by mine). The collier *Cyclops* was also lost in a fashion which made its disappearance a complete mystery.

One definite achievement of the United States Navy was the laying of a mine barrage against submarines in the North Sea. For this purpose 100,000 mines were manufactured and more than 85,000 shipped abroad.

On July 1, 1918, the enlisted and commissioned personnel of the naval aviation forces of the United States included 823 trained naval aviators, 2,052 student officers, 400 ground officers, 7,300 trained mechanics, and 5,400 mechanics in training. The total naval aircraft personnel was in the neighborhood of 30,000.

When war was declared between the United States and Germany the navy comprised 66,000 men. At the signing of the armistice, this number had increased to 497,000. When the war was declared, the navy had 197 ships in commission; at the signing of the armistice, this number had increased to more than 2,000. During the same period the Naval Reserve increased from 85,000 to 290,000.

At the close of the war, the regular navy consisted of 570 ships, supplemented by 93 vessels from the Coast Guard, Lighthouse Service, Coast and Geodetic Survey, and Fish Commission. The Navy was operating 937 converted merchant craft, and also the Overseas Transport Service, consisting of 247 Shipping Board and other supply vessels. At the end of the war there were being constructed for the Navy 376 new ships of all kinds and 52 tugs.

United States Air Forces.—When the armistice was signed on November 11, 1918, there were 39 American aero squadrons actually in operation on the battlefront. In the zone of advance, the air service included 2,161 officers and 22,351 enlisted men, a total of 24,512; and in the service of supply there were 4,643 officers and 28,353 men. There were 8 American flying officers detached to service with the French and 49 officers and 525 enlisted men with the British forces. The total personnel in France was 6,861 officers and 51,229 enlisted men, making a grand total of 58,090 in the air strength of the United States.

The total air victories of the Americans comprised 845 enemy planes, of which 491 were officially confirmed, and 82 enemy balloons, of which 57 were confirmed. The American losses were 271 planes and 45 balloons; and the American casualties were 109 killed, 103 wounded, 200 missing, 27 prisoners and 3 interned, a total of 442. Those killed in training numbered 159.

Eight different schools were established in France at Tours, Issoudon, Clermont-Ferrand, St. Jean de Monte, Sougre, Coetinquidan, Meucon and Chatillon-sur-Seine. The flying personnel in training on November 11, 1918, included 1,323 pilots; observers in training, 689 (officers), a total of 2,012 in training. The personnel awaiting instruction comprised 155 pilots and 59 observers. Graduations up to November 11, 1918, included 6,069 pilots and 2,045 observers.

The number of planes received by the American air forces from all sources between September 12, 1917 and November 16, 1918, was as follows: Pursuit—for service, 3,337; for schools, 90; Observation—for service, 3,421; for schools, 664; Day bombing—for service, 421; for schools, 85; Night Reconnaissance, 31. Others included 2,285 training planes, 30 experimental planes, and 108 miscellaneous, a total of 6,472.

The Peace Conference.—As has been seen, Germany surrendered, and her surrender was accepted by the Allies, largely upon the basis of the principles and programs enunciated by President Wilson in the course of the United States' participation in the War. President Wilson therefore felt called upon to go in person to the deliberations of the peace conferences in Paris which sealed the greatest of all wars. The other members of the American delegation were Secretary of State Robert Lansing, Mr. Edward M. House, General Tasker H. Bliss and Mr. Henry White. The French delegation was headed by Premier Clemenceau, the British by Premier Lloyd-George, the Italian by Premier Orlando and the Japanese by Baron Makino. But the terms of the peace were arranged almost entirely by the three premiers and the American President, although Japan was also one of the great Powers, thus making five in all, in whose hands lay all the decisions of the Conference.

A full summary of the peace treaty with Germany will be found on pages 8737 to 8756. The kernel of the treaty was the Covenant of the League of Nations, although it was much circumscribed in power from the outlines of such a league as those outlines had been drawn by President Wilson before the Conference. It was evident that the President had been defeated in most of the deliberations by a combination of the French, Japanese and Italian votes, although he was usually supported by the British point of view. The dominating figure of the Conference was Clemenceau, and in order to gain a league of nations, the American and British delegations were forced to submit to a number of settlements which were admitted to be unjust, in the hope that they would later be altered by the action of the League of Nations.

By the terms of the treaty, Germany lost Alsace-Lorraine, her colonies, much territory on her eastern frontier inhabited by Poles, two small pieces of land on her western frontier inhabited chiefly by Flem-

ish, and control over the Sarre basin for a period of fifteen years at least. Her army was reduced to 100,000, she was forbidden to resort to conscription, and a wide sweep of territory east of the Rhine had to remain unfortified and without the presence of troops and garrisons. She was compelled to pay an indemnity estimated in the neighborhood of $25,000,000,000, and for practical purposes her trade and her commerce were placed in the hands of the Allies. Her fleet was practically dismantled and, temporarily, at least, she was excluded from the League of Nations.

As a result of the war, the old empire of Austria-Hungary disappeared. The Czechs and Slovaks formed the new nation of Czecho-Slovakia, and the South Slavs formed the new nation of Jugo-Slavia, with the old Servia and Montenegro as a basis. The portions of the old Austro-Hungarian empire inhabited chiefly by Roumania were given to the latter country, and the portions inhabited chiefly by the Ukrainians (Ruthenians) were given to the new Ukrainia. Italy was given not only Italia Irredenta, but also portions of the Austrian Tyrol and Dalmatia in which the Austrian and the Slav nationalities, respectively, were in the ascendancy. Austria was forbidden to join Germany, although the ruling race in Austria was German. The new nations of Austria and Hungary were penalized, by the terms of the treaties with them, in much the same fashion as Germany had been by the German treaty.

Another nation arising from the ashes of the war was Poland, re-assuming the national existence which had been terminated by partition at the end of eighteenth century.

Although the treaties with Turkey and Bulgaria were far from completion by the beginning of the winter of 1919-1920, it was evident that they, too, woud be penalized sharply. Obviously, Bulgaria would have to surrender territory to Roumania and Greece and it was considered axiomatic that Turkey would be driven altogether from Europe, with the possible exception of the territory immediately surrounding Constantinople, which, with the Dardanelles, the Sea of Marmora and the Bosphorus, would possibly be internationalized.

Most of the colonies taken from Germany were to be administered by the great Powers as mandatories for the League of Nations. Japan was given temporary occupation of the German rights upon the Shantung peninsula of China. However, certain portions of the old German colonial possessions were acquired outright by Great Britain, who, along with France, acquired also valuable concessions in Syria, Mesopotamia, Persia, etc.

The Peace Conference opened in Paris on January 18, 1919 and the treaty with Germany was signed at Versailles, France, on the following June 28. Strong opposition to the terms of the treaty, especially to the provisions of the League of Nations Covenant, developed in the United States Senate, which added a number of reservations to the text. As a result on November 19, 1919, the Senate refused to ratify the treaty, by a vote of 39 ayes to 55 nays, a two-thirds affirmative vote being necessary for ratification. All the Allied belligerents except the United States and China deposited their ratifications of the peace treaty with Germany, along with the German ratification, at Versailles on January 10, 1920, the day then acclaimed as the beginning of the peace.

A resolution declaring a state of peace between the United States and Germany, after passage by Congress, was signed by President Harding on July 2, 1921.

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Worsted Goods Industry. (See Wool.)

Württemberg.—A state of the German Republic, lying between Bavaria on the east and Baden on the west, while to the south reaches Lake Constance and the borders of the Tyrol. Though primarily an agricultural state, yielding considerable quantities of grain, beets, hops, flax and hemp, Württemberg has numerous flourishing industries. Stuttgart is the center of the publishing trade of southern Germany, and gold and silverware, clocks, pianos, surgical instruments, paper, beer and sparkling wine are largely produced both in the capital and other cities.

In 1805, the former Duchy and Electorate of Württemberg became a Kingdom and in 1871, a kingdom within the German Empire. Württemberg was proclaimed a People's Republic in November, 1918. The National Assembly, elected to draft a Constitution, showed a plurality of votes for the Socialists. The area is 7,534 square miles and the population, about 2,500,000. The chief town is Stuttgart (300,000). More than half the population is Roman Catholic.

Württemberg:
Convention with, 2169.
Naturalization treaty with, 3997.

Wyandotte Constitution.—The final constitution of the State of Kansas, adopted Oct. 4, 1859. It was ratified by a vote of 10,421 to 5,530. It prohibited slavery. The governor was to be elected for two years, and Topeka was made the capital. This constitution was adopted at Wyandotte, now a part of Kansas City, Kans. (See also Lecompton Constitution; Topeka Constitution.)

Wyandotte, The, capture of the *William* by, 3126.

Wyandotte Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Wyoming.—One of the western group of states; motto, "Equal rights." It lies between lat. 41° and 45° north and long. 104° and 111° west. It is bounded on the

north by Montana, on the east by South Dakota and Nebraska, on the south by Colorado and Utah, and on the west by Utah and Idaho. Area, 97,914 square miles. The surface being mountainous, the leading industries are stock raising and mining. Gold, coal, iron, and petroleum are the chief minerals.

Most of the present state was included in the Louisiana Purchase. It was organized as a Territory in 1868 from areas previously in Dakota, Idaho, and Utah, but derived more remotely from the original Territories of Nebraska, Utah, and Oregon, a portion having at one time also belonged to Washington. Wyoming was admitted to the Union in 1890.

For national forests, irrigation projects, public lands and Indian reservations in the state, see Forests, Irrigation, Lands and Indians.

In 1920, the population was 194,402, as compared with 145,965 in 1910. In the latter year, the foreign-born numbered 29,020, including 2,985 English, 1,359 Irish, 1,812 Scotch, 2,497 Swedes, 962 Danes, 2,638 Germans, 1,961 Italians, 763 Russians, 1,380 Finns, 3,966 Austrians, 1,915 Greeks, 1,431 Canadians, 1,575 Japanese. The urban population was 29½% of the whole.

The last annual agricultural production was as follows:

Crop	*Acreage*	*Bushels*	*Value*
Hay, tame....	740,000	*1,850,000	$22,200,000
Wheat.....	254,000	5,080,000	6,858,000
Oats.....	300,000	11,400,000	7,068,000
Potatoes.....	27,000	3,375,000	4,050,000
Corn.....	65,000	1,560,000	874,000
Barley.....	28,000	1,008,000	1,109,000

*Tons.

The latest census figures available showed in the state 10,987 farms, with an average of 778 acres to the farm. Only 15% of the farm land was classified as improved. The 1920 census gave the number of farms in the state as 15,611.

The state is well adapted for stock-breeding and leads all the states in the production of wool. The latest figures for animals showed 235,000 horses, 80,000 cows, 1,100,000 other cattle, 4,000,000 sheep and 70,000 swine. Between 30,000,000 and 35,000,000 pounds of wool is the average annual wool clip.

The chief mineral produced is coal, the last annual production being 7,000,000 tons, which was below the normal.

In 1915, the number of manufacturing establishments was 337, with an average number of wage-earners totaling 2,989, representing an investment of $29,275,000, and paying annually in wages about $2,315,000. The petroleum output is usually worth above $2,000,000 annually and about 2,500,000 pounds of copper are produced every year.

The latest educational statistics estimated that there were within the state 39,294 children between the ages of 5 and 18. The enrollment in the public schools was 38,271, with an average daily attendance of 30,619. There were 1,891 teachers. The public high schools numbered 43, with 52 male and 130 female teachers, and with 1,388 male and 1,988 female students.

Wyoming:
Admission of, into Union, discussed, 5553.
Chinamen injured by lawless men in, 4914, 4968, 5083.
Indemnity to, recommended, 5219.
Appropriation for, 5367.
Troops sent to protect, 4933.
Lands in, set apart for public reservation by proclamation, 5577, 5590, 6221, 6225.
Unlawful combinations in, proclamations against, 5725, 5932.

Wyoming Controversy.—In the original charter granted by Charles I. to William Penn the northern boundary of Pennsylvania was fixed at lat. 43° north. However, the proprietors of the colony accepted 42° as the northern boundary and extended the southern boundary to include the Chesapeake and Delaware bays. Connecticut claimed all the territory north of 41° in Pennsylvania, and asserted her rights by chartering the Susquehanna Company, organized in 1753, to form settlements in the disputed territory. In 1762 the company sent its first party of settlers, 200 in number, into the region, but they were driven out by the Indians, who repudiated a previous sale of their rights to Connecticut and made a sale to Pennsylvania. In 1769 the Susquehanna Company sent more colonists into the disputed country, and a desultory warfare began between them and the Pennsylvania settlers, to whom the territory had been leased. The former were several times driven out of the disputed district by the Pennsylvanias, but they finally obtained a permanent lodgment, as the Pennsylvania contestants were only lessees, while their opponents fought for their property rights. Hostilities with the mother country caused a suspension of civil strife for a time.

In 1779 an act of the Pennsylvania legislature transferred all the proprietary lands to the state. Pennsylvania brought suit against Connecticut to decide the jurisdiction over Wyoming. The case was heard by five judges at Trenton. In November, 1782, their unanimous decision, afterwards confirmed by Congress, was in favor of Pennsylvania.

Wyoming Massacre.—July 3, 1778, Col. Zebulon Butler, of the Continental army, with a force of about 300 militiamen, mostly old men and boys, marched out of Forty Fort, in the Wyoming Valley, about three miles above Wilkesbarre, Pa., to drive off an invading party of some 800 Indians and Tories under Chief Joseph Brant and the British Colonel Walter Butler. The Indians burned the forts in the upper part of the valley and forced the American militiamen to retreat in disorder. Of the 300 who left the fort in the morning the names of 162 officers and men are recorded as killed in action and the massacre which followed. Butler, the British officer in command, reported the taking of 227 scalps and only 5 prisoners. Col. Zebulon Butler with 14 men escaped from the valley.

X. Y. Z. Mission.—During the Revolution the United States secured the valuable aid of France by treaties in 1778. In 1789 monarchy was overthrown in France, and that nation soon found herself at war with England and other European nations. She desired the United States as an ally, and Genêt (see Citizen Genêt) was sent to accomplish her purpose. His mission failed, Washington persisted firmly in preserving our neutrality, and Jay's Treaty (*which see*) was concluded with England. The course of our government angered France. In 1797 the directory, which then governed that country, gave permission to the French navy to assail our vessels. Following a policy of conciliation, in spite of French insults to our minister and the threat to our commerce, President Adams called a special session of Congress in May, 1797, and Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, John Marshall and Elbridge Gerry were sent to France to arrange matters. In the spring of the next year the President submitted to Congress dispatches that had been received from these commissioners. They had been kept waiting by Talleyrand, the minister of foreign affairs, and had been approached by three unofficial persons with what was in effect a demand for a bribe and a loan to the directory before any arrangement could be concluded with the United States. In dispatches the names of these three persons were indicated merely by the letters X., Y. and Z., and hence the whole affair came to be termed the X. Y. Z. Mission. To these demands our representatives returned a decided refusal. It is said that Pinckney made use of the phrase, "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute." The answer as recorded, however, was, "No, no, no; not a sixpence." About the time when these dispatches were submitted to Congress, Pinckney and Marshall were ordered to leave France, and Gerry was afterward recalled by our government. A warlike feeling instantly sprang up in the United States. The Federalists, with Adams as leader, desired to defend by force, if necessary, their policy of keeping this country from entangling foreign alliances, and desired to resent French insults. The Democrats (then called Republicans) had always favored an alliance with France and had opposed the creation of a navy for the United States. Now, however, the popular pressure could not be withstood. Bills were passed for increasing the navy and separating it from the War Department (April 30, 1798). Provision was made for a national loan and the imposition of a direct tax. The President was authorized to increase the army in case of a foreign war within three years, and soon Washington was called to be commander-in-chief of the army and Alexander Hamilton was selected as the active commander. On July 9, 1798, Congress declared the treaties with France no longer binding, and authorized our war vessels and privateers to capture armed French vessels. A few naval engagments occurred, but no event of great importance. The effect of our warlike feeling and preparations on France was excellent. American prisoners were released and the embargo which had been declared was raised on American ships. Talleyrand now hinted to our Minister to Holland, William Vans Murray, that he was willing to receive another American Minister. Adams accordingly appointed Murray, in February, 1799, and soon joined with him Oliver Ellsworth and William R. Davis. The President's action created much stir, politically, as he was considered to have become subservient to France and to have changed the former attitude of himself and the Federal party. It was some months after their appointment that our envoys arrived in Paris. Napoleon was then at the head of the government as first consul and was favorably inclined toward the United States. French commissioners were appointed, and, on Sept. 30, 1800, a friendly convention was signed. Both countries ratified it, and it was declared in force Dec. 21, 1801, and for a time the safety of our commerce was secured.

Yakama Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Yakima Reservation, Wash., lands on, to be used by Northern Pacific Railway, 4864, 4954, 5178.

Yale, The, mentioned, 5318.

Yancton Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Yanctoni Indians. (See Indian Tribes.)

Yangtse River, steamers sailing under American flag prohibited from passing through Straw Shoe Channel on, 3896, 3902.

Yankee Doodle.—A popular national air of the United States. The words are said to have been written in derision of the ill-assorted Continental troops, about 1755, by Dr. Schuckburgh, a surgeon under Gen. Amherst in the French and Indian War. The original title was "The Yankee's Return from Camp," and there are several versions. The tune has undergone various changes.

Yankee, The, mentioned, 6317.

Yankees.—A word of uncertain origin, first applied to the early English colonists, later by the English to Americans generally, and still later to Northerners by people of the South. According to common legend, Yankees is a corruption of Yengees, Yaunghees, or Yanghies, a name said to have been given by the Massachuset Indians to the English colonists in their efforts to pronounce the word "English" or the French word "Anglais." It was first applied to the New Englanders as a term of reproach by British soldiers.

Yap.—A small island in the Pacific, about 850 miles southeast of the Philippines, and the junction of important submarine cables. Before the World War, it belonged to Germany; after the War, it was part of the German islands north of the equator assigned to Japan under a mandate of the League of Nations, although there was some talk of internationalizing it, or of giving it to the United States, as a cable and coaling station.

Yap, island of, disposition of, discussed, 8915, 8950.

Yards and Docks, Bureau of, Navy Department. (See Bureau of Yards and Docks, Navy Department.)

Yazoo Frauds.—A term applied to the sale by the State of Georgia in 1795 of her western territory, now included in Alabama and Mississippi, to four land companies, known generally as the Yazoo companies, from the district in which they operated. The land extended from the Alabama and Coosa rivers to the Mississippi, and from the thirty-first to the thirty-fifth parallel, and the price paid to the state was $500,-

000, or about one and two-thirds cents per acre. It was charged that many members of the legislature who voted for the sale had been bribed. President Washington made the alleged frauds the subject of a special message (page 167). The people of the state were indignant and a party was formed to repeal the sale. In 1796 the records of the transaction were burned in the presence of the governor and legislature in accordance with what was known as the Rescinding act. Immediately numerous claims sprang up, which had to be decided by Congress.

The territory was ceded to the United States in 1802. The next year President Jefferson appointed a commission to investigate the claims, and James Madison, chairman of the commission, recommended a compromise, but Georgia refused to compensate the claimants. Their claim was sustained by the Supreme Court, however, Chief Justice Marshall holding that allegations of bribery of the legislature could not be entertained, and that purchasers from the land companies were innocent holders; that the act of the Georgia legislature in 1796 repealing the sale of 1795 was an abrogation of contract, and therefore void. Finally an act was passed in 1814 appropriating $8,000,000 payable out of the proceeds of the sale of Mississippi lands to satisfy the Yazoo claimant.

Yellow Fever (see also Contagious Diseases; International Sanitary Conference; Quarantine Regulations):
Commission to investigate causes, etc., of, recommended, 6341.
In Southern States, discussed, 4444.
Act legalizing issue of provisions to sufferers, recommended, 4452.

Yellow Peril.—The so-called perils to be feared from the yellow races, especially the Japanese. The phrase may mean the economic evils feared, rightly or wrongly, from peaceable Japanese immigration and settlement in the United States; but it usually signifies a threatened military or naval invasion from Japan.

Yellowstone National Park. (See Parks, National.)

Yellowstone National Park, compensation to superintendent of, referred to, 4036.

York (Canada), Capture of.—The plans for the prosecution of the war with Great Britain in 1813 contemplated an invasion of Canada from both the east and the west. Gen. Harrison successfully carried out the programme in the west, routed Proctor's army, and was in possession of the territory. April 27, Gen. Dearborn, with about 1,700 men under the immediate command of Gen. Zebulon Pike, crossed Lake Ontario on Commodore Chauncey's transports and marched upon the British garrison at York (now Toronto), where Maj.-Gen. Sheaffe was in command of 800 regulars and a body of Indians. A sharp conflict ensued. The British and Indians were routed. By the explosion of a magazine Gen. Pike was killed, together with 51 other Americans and 40 British; 180 Americans were wounded by the explosion. The American loss in the battle was 269 on land and 17 on water. The British lost, besides the prisoners, 60 killed and 89 wounded.

York, Canada, reduction of, by American forces, 524.

Yorktown, The. (See *Baltimore,* The.)

Yorktown, Va., monument at, completed and recommendations regarding, 4850.

Yorktown Centennial Celebration:
British flag to be saluted by American army and navy forces at, 4624.
Referred to, 4625.
Descendants of Baron von Steuben present at, 4626.
Representatives of French Republic and descendants of Lafayette present at, 4625.

Yorktown (Va.), Siege of, in 1781.—After the battle of Green Springs, or Jamestown, Lafayette withdrew the American army to Malvern Hill. Cornwallis hurried on toward Yorktown, which place Sir Henry Clinton designed to be held as a British post in the absence of sufficient force to hold the entire State of Virginia. By Aug. 27, 1781, the British army in Virginia, consisting of 9,433 men, was concentrated at Yorktown and Gloucester Point, just across the York River. Aug. 30 Count De Grasse arrived in Chesapeake Bay with twenty-six French ships of the line besides frigates and transports. Sept. 3 Count De St. Simon landed at Jamestown with 3,200 French troops, and the allied armies, numbering 12,000 regular troops and 4,000 militia, under Washington and Lafayette, occupied Williamsburg, about fifteen miles from Yorktown. Washington had eluded Clinton by a feint. Sept. 28 the army advanced and took a position about two miles from the British works, and on the 29th a general movement was begun to encircle the town and close in upon its defenders

On the Gloucester side the siege was maintained by the Duke de Lauzun with his legion of French cavalry and 800 marines from De Grasse's squadron, besides a body of Virginia militia under Gen. Weedon. Oct. 6 the first parallel was opened under Gen. Lincoln within 600 yards of the enemy, and heavy guns were placed in position, with the loss of 1 French officer and 16 privates. On the 11th a second parallel was established with slight loss. On the 14th the two advanced redoubts of the British were taken by storm by the American light infantry under direction of Lafayette, and the French, under Baron Vioménil. The American loss was 9 killed and 32 wounded. Three French officers were wounded. The British lost 8 killed and 17 prisoners. On the morning of the 16th an unsuccessful sortie was made on the advanced American redoubts, by about 350 British under Lieut.-Col. Abercrombie, 100 French troops being killed or wounded, with little loss and no advantage to the British.

An attempt made by Cornwallis's army to escape in boats that night was frustrated by a storm, and on the morning of Oct. 17, 1781, a flag of truce was sent to Washington, making overtures for surrender. On the 18th articles of capitulation were signed by Washington and Cornwallis. The land forces became prisoners to the Americans and the marine force to the French. The total number of British officers and men surrendered was 7,073 from the army and 900 from the navy, besides 144 guns and 6 British and 18 regimental standards. The military chest contained £2,113. The *Guadaloupe, Fowey, Benetta,* and *Vulcan,* together with 30 transports, 15 galleys, and many smaller vessels, fell into the hands of the French. The total casualties of the siege were: British, 156 killed, 326 wound-

ed, and 70 missing; American, 23 killed, 65 wounded; French, 52 killed, 134 wounded.

Yorktown (Va.), Siege of, in 1862.—Nov. 1, 1861, McClellan was appointed to the chief command of the armies of the United States. He set about improving the organization and efficiency of the men, and by March 1, 1862, the forces about Washington numbered 221,987. The country was growing impatient at the inactivity of the Army, and the cry "On to Richmond" was almost universal in the North. The President directed that a move of some kind be made. The knowledge that McClellan contemplated a forward movement caused the Confederates to evacuate Manassas, Johnston withdrawing his forces to the defense of Richmond March 9, 1862. March 11 the President relieved McClellan of the command of all military departments except that of the Potomac, which had been divided into five corps, under command of Generals McDowell, Sumner, Heintzelman, Keyes, and Banks. It was decided that this army, except so much as was necessary for the protection of Washington, should move upon Richmond by way of the Virginia peninsula, lying between the James and York rivers. Fort Monroe occupies the extremity of the peninsula. Heintzelman's corps embarked March 17, and April 1 the headquarters of the Army of the Potomac was transferred to the vicinity of Fort Monroe. Yorktown was defended by Gen. Magruder with less than 8,000 Confederates. April 4 occurred the principal skirmish of the siege, in which 35 men were killed and 120 wounded on the Union side, while the Confederates lost more than 100 killed. The next month was consumed by McClellan in building fortifications and roads to take Magruder's army. May 5 the last of the Confederates retired up the peninsula.

Yosemite National Park. (See Parks, National.)

Young Men's Christian Associations.—Organizations formed to promote the welfare of young men. Although active membership is confined to those who are communicants of an evangelical church, associate membership, entitling to practically all the privileges, is open to all men.

There is hardly any field of activity in which men are engaged in which the Y. M. C. A. does not prosecute its activities. Especial attention is given to athletics and gymnastics. There are libraries; study-rooms; game-rooms; gymnasia and swimming-pools; and often rooms for rent in the more usual Y. M. C. A. building. A particular feature is the classes in all manner of subjects, both general and professional, although the night classes have to some extent been superseded in the larger cities by the evening public schools. Religious devotion and training are emphasized. There are usually separate departments for the stimulation of work among boys. Employment is found. Moreover, the associations do much field work—especially on the railroads and in the army and navy.

The movement is an international one; and there are in all countries extensive training schools for the education of Y. M. C. A. secretaries.

The movement was first organized in London by George Williams in 1844, as the result of work among the dry goods shop assistants. The first associations in North America arose in Montreal and Boston in 1851 as a result of the English experiments. The first national federation of Y. M. C. A.'s in the United States occurred in Buffalo in 1854. The progress of the movement was temporarily hindered by the Civil War, but in the following years it grew rapidly. In 1906, there were in the United States 1,761 associations, with 405,000 members. In the same year, there were throughout the world 7,794 associations, with a membership of 744,000.

The Y. M. C. A. was extremely active among the troops of the regular army and the National Guard during the mobilization on the Mexican border in 1916. There were 42 Y. M. C. A. buildings and 6 Y. M. C. A. tents in constant operation during that period, in which 169 Y. M. C. A. secretaries were constantly active. The total attendance in Y. M. C. A. centres and at Y. M. C. A. activities was estimated at 7,871,468. Stationery was furnished to more than 5,000,000; 2,850,000 persons attended entertainments; there were more than 100,000 attendances at lectures and 680,000 at religious meetings; and some 400,000 pieces of reading matter were distributed.

Immediately upon the outbreak of the European War in August 1, 1914, the Y. M. C. A.s of the various belligerent countries became active. Two days later, the Y. M. C. A.s of the Allied countries had 250 centres in France and England among the troops; and by 1916 there were more than 1,000 such. By 1918, there were more than 500 Y. M. C. A. "huts" among the British forces in France alone.

From the entrance of the United States into the World War to October 1, 1919, the National War Work Council of the Y. M. C. A., which had charge of the organization's war activities, received from contributions and interest the sum of $155,769,074. This sum included the amounts raised in the three campaigns for funds for the Y. M. C. A.'s war work. The expenditures totalled $124,058,960, including $37,895,282 in the United States; $53,182,345 with the American Expeditionary Forces; $18,252,193 with the Allies and their prisoners; $7,187,538 for national headquarters expenses, including campaigns and recruiting; and $7,541,603 loss on foreign exchange. Construction and equipment for the especially constructed buildings in the camps, training stations and cantonments cost $8,248,148.

In the overseas activities, 3,356 huts were operated; including 1,800 for the A. E. F. only; more than 12,000 secretaries were sent overseas, including 2,500 women workers; more than 56,000,000 feet of moving picture films were shown monthly without charge; more than 600 members of the theatrical profession were sent overseas, and the free performances given by them averaged more than 100 daily in number; more than 700 preachers were sent abroad to do religious work and more than 5,000,000 Testaments were distributed; more than $21,000,000 in money orders was sent home for the soldiers without charge, and the cost of the stationery distributed was above $2,500,000.

From June, 1918, to April, 1919, the Y. M. C. A. handled in France alone more than 2,000,000,000 packages of cigarettes, 32,000,000 bars of chocolate, 18,000,000 cans of smoking tobacco, 50,000,000 cigars, 60,000,000 cans of jam, 29,000,000 packages of chewing gum, 10,000,000 packages of candy. From June, 1918, to February, 1919, more than 9,500 cars of freight of Y. M. C. A. supplies were handled. In France there were acquired and operated 20 biscuit factories, 13 chocolate factories, 8 jam factories and 3 candy factories. Their monthly production was more than 10,000,000 packages of biscuits, 7,500,000 tablets for drinking chocolate, 4,500,000 bars of eating chocolate,

5,300,000 fancy candy bars, 3,100,000 cartons of caramels, and 2,000,000 tins of jam.

The most recent statistics showed that there are in America 2,194 local Y. M. C. A.'s with 868,892 members, including about 200,000 boys. There are 5,173 paid officers and 85,106 directors and volunteer workers. The total net property and paid-in funds are valued at $128,019,000. The total annual operating expenditures were $38,484,800, of which more than $8,000,000 came from contributions. (These figures are exclusive of the war activities, for which see above.)

Among the activities pursued in the year for which the above figures are given were more than 75,000 socials and entertainments; 117,000 situations found; 310,000 men and boys registered in the gymnasium classes; 107,000 men and boys enrolled in the various educational courses; 136,000 men and boys in the regular Bible study courses; 26,000 decisions for the Christian life and 8,770 unions with the church of choice.

Young Men's Christian Association:

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Young Women's Christian Association.—Organizations formed to promote the welfare of young women. They attempt to enter every sphere of activities in which they may be of assistance to young women, and their work is non-denominational. Particular attention is paid to physical training, and there are many classes, religious, general and professional. The movement was organized in 1855 in London, combining a Prayer Union and a Boarding Home for young women. The world federation dates from 1894. The first American organization of the Y. W. C. A. occurred in Boston in 1866, although there had been for some time organizations with different names doing similar work. In a recent year, there were in the United States almost 1,000 Y. W. C. A.s, with a membership of more than 375,000.

After the entrance of the United States into the European War, the Y. W. C. A. became especially active, not only in the training camps in the United States, but also in France, where it performed much reconstruction work, and assisted the Y. M. C. A. in the latter's canteens, etc. In the United States, the Y. W. C. A. "hostess huts" were especially serviceable in providing chaperonage and individual attention to women visiting, and in the vicinity of, the camps.

With respect to war activities, from July, 1917, to January, 1920, 200 workers sailed for France and 65 more were appointed in France. The Y. W. C. A. maintained as American centers in France 19 hostess houses, 18 centers for the Signaling Corps, 37 nurses clubs, and 7 miscellaneous centers. There were 44 French centers maintained. Aid was rendered to more than 3,000 "war brides," and activities were prosecuted also in Russia, Italy and other countries.

War activities in the United States centered around the 124 centers of hostess works in the camps and cantonments. Housing facilities were provided in many cases for women employed in the camps or in war industrial work. Twenty industrial centers were opened near munitions plants, provisions were made for serving meals which otherwise would not have been available, vacation camps were maintained for women and girl workers engaged in necessary war work, and lectures were given on questions of social morality and social education.

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Youngstown, Ohio, act for erection of public building at, vetoed, 5254.

Yucatan.—A peninsula of Mexico. It comprises the States of Yucatan and Campeche and the territory of Quintana. It is bounded on the north by the Gulf of Mexico, on the east by the Channel of Yucatan (which separates it from Cuba) and the Caribbean Sea, on the south by British Honduras and Guatemala, and on the west by the Gulf of Campeche. The surface is low. Its chief product is sisal hemp. Yucatan was discovered in 1517; was conquered by Spain, 1527-1547; became independent 1821; was annexed to Mexico 1822. In April, 1848, President Polk reiterated the "Monroe doctrine" while discussing the relations of the United States and Yucatan (2431).

Yucatan:

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Zanesville, Ohio, act for erection of public building at, vetoed, 5016.

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Zenger's Case.—One of the most important struggles for the freedom of the press in America. John Peter Zenger was editor and publisher of the New York Weekly *Journal*, which was founded by him in 1726. His newspaper openly denounced the administration of the colonial government. For this he was brought to trial in 1735, charged with the publication of "false, scandalous, seditious libels" against the royal government of the Colony of New York. Strenuous efforts were made to secure Zenger's conviction, but no jury could be found to convict him.

Zeppelins, illustration of raid by, 8220. (See also Aeronautics and World War, 1915—On the Western Front.)

Zinc.—Before the outbreak of the World War, the world's annual production of zinc averaged slightly more than 1,000,000 short tons. Of these, about 350,000 came from the United States, 310,000 from Germany and 215,000 from Belgium.

The United States, in the last calendar year for which figures are available, imported 43,437 gross tons, or more than 34,000,000 zinc pounds, of ore and calamine, valued at $530,000. It came chiefly from Mexico and Canada. The exports comprised

10,250,000 pounds of dross zinc, valued at $740,000; 244,000,000 pounds of spelter in pigs, slabs, etc., valued at $19,450,000 (going chiefly to the United Kingdom, France, Japan and Italy); and about 39,500,000 pounds of zinc rolled in sheets, strips, etc., valued at $5,212,000.

Recent figures for the annual production of zinc in the United States place it at 452,272 shorts tons, valued at $66,032,000. This figure represents a decline from the production of war years. The chief zinc-producing states are New Jersey, Missouri, Montana and Oklahoma.

Zionism.—In the words of its founder, Dr. Theodore Herzl, the movement for the "creation of a home secured by public rights for those Jews who cannot or will not be assimilated in the country of their adoption." One branch of the Zionist movement, known as the Jewish Colonization Association, in which the leading spirit is Israel Zangwill, is willing to found this home in any suitable locality, but as a whole the Zionist movement is concerned with locating in Palestine.

The Old Testament is replete with prophecies that some day the Jews will return to their ancient home; and from the days of the Babylonian exile, devout Jews have looked forward to the day when the Jews would once again be an autonomous race. Up to the close of the eighteenth century, when Jewish life was still almost entirely bounded by the walls of an Oriental and unmodern Ghetto, this hope, although vague, was never shaken. But at this time, under the example of Moses Mendelssohn, a definite cultural movement arose which brought the Jew out of his Ghetto and set him down as a citizen of the land of his adoption—a citizen with Jewish ties, it is true, but nonetheless a citizen bearing with interest his share in all movements of the national life of the country in which he had made a home. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, however, there occurred a tremendous Anti-Semitic movement in Europe, and the longing for a national home for the Jewish people took on new significance as a result. It is therefore natural that most orthodox or conservative Jews are Zionists and that most reformed Jews are anti-Zionists.

It was not until 1896, however, that the aims of the nationalistic impulse were put concretely. That task was performed by a brilliant journalist of Vienna, Theodore Herzl, in his book "The Jewish State." The book created a great sensation, and occasioned the formation of the first Zionist conference, held the following year in Basle, Switzerland. The aims of the movement are the acquisition of Palestine from the Turks, the rendering of the holy places extra-territorial, and the maintenance of the country autonomous under Turkish suzerainty and the guarantee of the Great Powers. The Revolution of the Young Turks in Turkey in 1908-1909 raised the hopes of the Zionists, but it was seen that those hopes had been raised in vain.

The European War affected the Zionist movement in different ways. The machinery of the organization was wrecked, along with most of its financial support; and the Zionist leadership passed from Europe to America, where Supreme Court Justice Louis D. Brandeis was made head of the Provisional Zionist Committee. The Russian Revolution freed from persecution more than half of the 13,000,000 Jews of the world, and hence removed one of the strongest incentives, especially among non-Jews, to support the movement. On the other hand, persistent negotiations with the belligerent governments by powerful Jewish leaders seemed to have created among the Entente governments a strong sentiment for turning Palestine over to the Jews, especially if the British expedition against the Holy Land should be successful in gaining the land from the Turks and in holding it.

From the earliest days of the modern Zionist movement, pending the material acquisition of Palestine, the Zionist leaders concerned themselves largely with founding agricultural and mechanical settlements in the country, and in carrying in other ways the message of Western civilization to the inhabitants. In 1915, there were 43 agricultural colonies, all of them in a flourishing condition. One interesting feature of the Zionist movement has been the revival in Palestine of Hebrew as the language of every-day life.

Zionist Movement endorsed, 8575. (See also Palestine.)

Zollverein.—A union of German states for the maintenance of uniform rate of duty on imports from other countres and of free trade among themselves. It began in 1828 in an agreement between Prussia and the Grand Duchy of Hesse, and gradually developed until now it is coextensive with the German Empire, and also includes the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg.

Zona Libre.—A narrow strip of territory along the northern border of Mexico, so called because certain articles imported for consumption in it were formerly exempted from customs duties. It was first established in 1858. Imports into the zone latterly paid 10 per cent of the ordinary duties, except cattle, which paid full duty. The zone was suppressed July 1, 1905.

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APPENDIX

THE SIXTY-EIGHTH CONGRESS

As listed by the Official Congressional Directory of January, 1923

SENATE

[Republicans in roman (51); Democrats in *italic* (42); Farmer-Labor in SMALL CAPITALS (1); vacancy, (2).]

HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

[Republicans in roman (224); Democrats in *italic* (205); Independent in SMALL CAPS (1); Farmer-Labor in ROMAN CAPS (1); Socialist in *ITALIC CAPS* (1); vacancy (3).]

ALABAMA.

SENATORS.

Oscar W. Underwood. *J. Thomas Heflin.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *John McDuffie.*
2. [Vacancy.]
3. *Henry B. Steagall.*
4. *Lamar Jeffers.*
5. *Wm. B. Bowling.*
6. *Wm. B. Oliver.*
7. *M. C. Allgood.*
8. *Edw. B. Almon.*
9. *George Huddleston.*
10. *Wm. B. Bankhead.*

ARIZONA.

SENATORS.

Henry F. Ashurst. Ralph H. Cameron.

REPRESENTATIVE.

Carl Hayden.

ARKANSAS.

SENATORS.

Joseph T. Robinson. *T. H. Caraway.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *William J. Driver.*
2. *William A. Oldfield.*
3. *John N. Tillman.*
4. *Otis Wingo.*
5. *Heartsill Ragon.*
6. *L. E. Sawyer.*
7. *Tilman B. Parks.*

CALIFORNIA.

SENATORS.

Hiram W. Johnson. Sam'l M. Shortridge.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Clarence F. Lea.*
2. *John E. Raker.*
3. Charles F. Curry.
4. Julius Kahn.
5. Mrs. M. E. Nolan
6. James H. MacLafferty.
7. H. E. Barbour.
8. Arthur M. Free.
9. Walter F. Lineberger.
10. Henry Z. Osborne.
11. Philip D. Swing.

COLORADO.

SENATORS.

Lawrence C. Phipps. ———

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. William N. Vaile.
2. Charles B. Timberlake.
3. Guy U. Hardy.
4. *Edward T. Taylor.*

CONNECTICUT.

SENATORS.

Frank B. Brandegee. George P. McLean.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. E. Hart Fenn.
2. Richard P. Freeman.
3. John Q. Tilson.
4. Schuyler Merritt.
5. *Patrick B. O'Sullivan.*

DELAWARE.

SENATORS.

L. Heisler Ball. *Thomas F. Bayard.*

REPRESENTATIVE.

William H. Boyce.

FLORIDA.

SENATORS.

Duncan U. Fletcher. *Park Trammell.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Herbert J. Drane.*
2. *Frank Clark.*
3. *John H. Smithwick.*
4. *William J. Sears.*

GEORGIA.

SENATORS.

William J. Harris. *Walter F. George.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *R. Lee Moore.*
2. *Frank Park.*
3. *Charles R. Crisp.*
4. *Wm. C. Wright.*
5. *William D. Upshaw.*
6. *James W. Wise.*
7. *Gordon Lee.*
8. *Chas. H. Brand.*
9. *Thomas M. Bell.*
10. *Carl Vinson.*
11. *William C. Lankford.*
12. *William W. Larsen.*

IDAHO.

SENATORS.

William E. Borah. Frank R. Gooding.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Burton L. French.
2. Addison T. Smith.

ILLINOIS.

SENATORS.

Medill McCormick. Wm. B. McKinley.

REPRESENTATIVES.

At large—Henry R. Rathbone, Richard Yates.

1. Martin B. Madden.
2. Morton D. Hull.
3. Elliott W. Sproul.
4. *John W. Rainey.*
5. *Adolph J. Sabath.*
6. *James R. Buckley.*
7. M. Alfred Michaelson.
8. *Stanley H. Kunz.*
9. Fred A. Britten.
10. Carl R. Chindblom.
11. Frank R. Reid.
12. Charles E. Fuller.
13. John C. McKenzie.
14. Wm. J. Graham.
15. Edward J. King.
16. William E. Hull.
17. Frank H. Funk.
18. William P. Holaday.
19. Allen F. Moore.
20. *Henry T. Rainey.*
21. *J. Earl Major.*
22. Edw. E. Miller.
23. *Wm. W. Arnold.*
24. Thomas S. Williams.
25. Edwin E. Denison.

INDIANA.

SENATORS.

James E. Watson. *Samuel M. Ralston.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Wm. E. Wilson.*
2. *Arthur H. Greenwood.*
3. *Frank Gardner.*
4. *Harry C. Canfield.*
5. Everett Sanders.
6. Richard N. Elliott.
7. Merrill Moores.
8. Albert H. Vestal.
9. Fred S. Purnell.
10. Wm. R. Wood.
11. *Samuel E. Cook.*
12. Louis W. Fairfield.
13. Andrew J. Hickey.

IOWA.

SENATORS.

Albert B. Cummins. Smith W. Brookhart.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. William F. Kopp.
2. Harry E. Hull.
3. T. J. B. Robinson.
4. Gilbert N. Haugen.
5. Cyrenus Cole.
6. C. William Ramseyer.
7. Cassius C. Dowell.
8. Horace M. Towner.
9. Wm. R. Green.
10. L. J. Dickinson.
11. Wm. D. Boies.

KANSAS.

SENATORS.

Charles Curtis. Arthur Capper.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Daniel R. Anthony, Jr.
2. Edward C. Little.
3. W. H. Sproul.
4. Homer Hoch.
5. James G. Strong.
6. Hays B. White.
7. J. N. Tincher.
8. *Wm. A. Ayres.*

KENTUCKY.

SENATORS.

A. Owsley Stanley. Richard P. Ernst.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Alben W. Barkley.*
2. *David H. Kincheloe.*
3. *Robert Y. Thomas, Jr.*
4. *Ben Johnson.*
5. Maurice H. Thatcher.
6. *Arthur B. Rouse.*
7. *James C. Cantrill.*
8. *Ralph Gilbert.*
9. *Wm. J. Fields.*
10. John W. Langley.
11. John M. Robsion.

LOUISIANA.

SENATORS.

Joseph E. Ransdell. *Edwin S. Broussard.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *James O'Connor.*
2. *H. Garland Dupré.*
3. *Whitmell P. Martin.*
4. *John N. Sandlin.*
5. *Riley J. Wilson.*
6. *George K. Favrot.*
7. *Ladislas Lazaro.*
8. *James B. Aswell.*

MAINE.

SENATORS.

Bert M. Fernald. Frederick Hale.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Carroll L. Beedy.
2. Wallace H. White, Jr.
3. John E. Nelson.
4. Ira G. Hersey.

MARYLAND.

SENATORS.

O. E. Weller. *William Cabell Bruce.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *T. Alan Goldsborough.*
2. *Millard E. Tydings.*
3. John Philip Hill.
4. *J. Charles Linthicum.*
5. Sydney E. Mudd.
6. Frederick N. Zihlman.

MASSACHUSETTS.

SENATORS.

Henry Cabot Lodge. *David I. Walsh.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Allen T. Treadway.
2. Frederick H. Gillett.
3. Calvin D. Paige.
4. Samuel E. Winslow.
5. John Jacob Rogers.
6. A. Piatt Andrew.
7. *William P. Connery, jr.*
8. Frederick W. Dallinger.
9. Chas. L. Underhill.
10. *Peter F. Tague.*
11. George Holden Tinkham.
12. *James A. Gallivan.*
13. Robert Luce.
14. Louis A. Frothingham.
15. Wm. S. Greene.
16. Chas. L. Gifford.

MICHIGAN.

SENATORS.

Woodbridge N. Ferris. James Couzens.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Robert H. Clancy.*
2. Earl C. Michener.
3. ———— ————.
4. John C. Ketcham.
5. Carl E. Mapes.
6. Grant M. Hudson.
7. Louis C. Cramton.
8. Bird J. Vincent.
9. James C. McLaughlin.
10. Roy O. Woodruff.
11. Frank D. Scott.
12. W. Frank James.
13. Clarence J. McLeod.

MINNESOTA.

SENATORS.

———— ————. HENRIK SHIPSTEAD.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Sydney Anderson.
2. Frank Clague.
3. Charles R. Davis.
4. Oscar E. Keller.
5. Walter H. Newton.
6. Harold Knutson.
7. O. J. KVALE.
8. Oscar J. Larson.
9. KNUD WEFALD.
10. Thos. D. Schall.

MISSISSIPPI.

SENATORS.

Pat Harrison. *Hubert D. Stephens.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *John E. Rankin.*
2. *B. G. Lowrey.*
3. *Benjamin G. Humphreys.*
4. *Jeff Busby.*
5. *Ross A. Collins.*
6. *T. Webber Wilson.*
7. *Percy E. Quin.*
8. *James W. Collier.*

MISSOURI.

SENATORS.

James A. Reed. Selden P. Spencer.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *M. A. Romjue.*
2. *Ralph F. Lozier.*
3. *Jacob L. Milligan.*
4. Charles L. Faust.
5. *Henry L. Jost.*
6. *C. C. Dickinson.*
7. *Samuel C. Major.*
8. Sidney C. Roach.
9. *Clarence Cannon.*
10. Cleveland A. Newton.
11. *Harry B. Hawes.*
12. Leonidas C. Dyer.
13. *J. Scott Wolff.*
14. *James F. Fulbright.*
15. Joe J. Manlove.
16. *Thos. L. Rubey.*

MONTANA.

SENATORS.

Thomas J. Walsh. *Burton K. Wheeler.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *John M. Evans.*
2. Scott Leavitt.

NEBRASKA.

SENATORS.

George W. Norris. Ralph B. Howell.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *John H. Morehead.*
2. W. G. Sears.
3. *Edgar Howard.*
4. Melvin O. McLaughlin.
5. *A. C. Shallenberger.*
6. Robert G. Simmons.

NEVADA.

SENATORS.

Key Pittman. Tasker L. Oddie.

REPRESENTATIVE.

Charles F. Richards.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

SENATORS.

George H. Moses. Henry W. Keyes.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Wm. N. Rogers.*
2. Edw. H. Wason.

NEW JERSEY.

SENATORS.

Walter E. Edge. — *Edward I. Edwards.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Francis F. Patterson, Jr.
2. Isaac Bacharach.
3. *Elmer H. Geran.*
4. *Charles Browne.*
5. Ernest R. Ackerman.
6. Randolph Perkins.
7. George N. Seger.
8. *Frank J. McNulty.*
9. *Daniel F. Minahan.*
10. Frederick R. Lehlbach.
11. *John J. Eagan.*
12. *Charles F. X. O'Brien.*

NEW MEXICO

SENATORS.

Andrieus A. Jones. — Holm O. Bursum.

REPRESENTATIVE.

John Morrow.

NEW YORK.

SENATORS.

James W. Wadsworth, Jr. — *Royal S. Copeland.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Robert L. Bacon.
2. *John J. Kindred.*
3. *George W. Lindsay.*
4. *Thos. H. Cullen.*
5. *Loring M. Black, jr.*
6. *Chas. I. Stengle.*
7. *John F. Quayle.*
8. *Wm. E. Cleary.*
9. *David J. O'Connell.*
10. *Emanuel Celler.*
11. *Daniel J. Riordan.*
12. *Sam'l Dickstein.*
13. *Christopher D. Sullivan.*
14. Nathan D. Perlman.
15. *John J. Boylan.*
16. ———.
17. Ogden L. Mills.
18. *John F. Carew.*
19. *Solomon Bloom.*
20. Fiorello H. La Guardia.
21. *Royal H. Weller.*
22. *Anthony J. Griffin.*
23. *Frank Oliver.*
24. *James V. Ganly.*
25. J. Mayhew Wainwright.
26. Hamilton Fish, Jr.
27. Charles B. Ward.
28. *Parker Corning.*
29. James S. Parker.
30. Frank Crowther.
31. Bertrand H. Snell.
32. Luther W. Mott.
33. Homer P. Snyder.
34. John D. Clarke.
35. Walter W. Magee.
36. John Taber.
37. Gale H. Stalker.
38. *Meyer Jacobstein.*
39. Archie D. Sanders.
40. S. Wallace Dempsey.
41. Clarence MacGregor.
42. *James M. Mead.*
43. Daniel A. Reed.

NORTH CAROLINA.

SENATORS.

Furnifold M. Simmons. — *Lee S. Overman.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Hallet S. Ward.*
2. *Claude Kitchin.*
3. *Charles L. Abernethy.*
4. *Edward W. Pou.*
5. *Charles M. Stedman.*
6. *Homer L. Lyon.*
7. *William C. Hammer.*
8. *Robt. L. Doughton.*
9. *Alfred L. Bulwinkle.*
10. *Zebulon Weaver.*

NORTH DAKOTA.

SENATORS.

Edwin F. Ladd. — Lynn J. Frazier.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Olger B. Burtness.
2. George M. Young.
3. James H. Sinclair.

OHIO.

SENATORS.

Frank B. Willis. — Simeon D. Fess.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Nicholas Longworth.
2. A. E. B. Stephens.
3. Roy G. Fitzgerald.
4. John L. Cable.
5. Chas. J. Thompson.
6. Chas. C. Kearns.
7. Charles Brand.
8. R. Clint Cole.
9. *Isaac R. Sherwood.*
10. Israel M. Foster.
11. *Mell G. Underwood.*
12. John C. Speaks.
13. James T. Begg.
14. *Martin L. Davey.*
15. C. Ellis Moore.
16. *John McSweeney.*
17. Wm. M. Morgan.
18. Frank Murphy.
19. John G. Cooper.
20. *C. A. Mooney.*
21. *Robert Crosser.*
22. Theodore E. Burton.

OKLAHOMA.

SENATORS.

Robert L. Owen. — John W. Harreld.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Everett B. Howard.*
2. *William W. Hastings.*
3. *Charles D. Carter.*
4. *Tom McKeown.*
5. *F. B. Swank.*
6. *Elmer Thomas.*
7. *James V. McClintic.*
8. M. C. Garber.

OREGON.

SENATORS.

Charles L. McNary. — Robert N. Stanfield.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Willis C. Hawley.
2. Nichols J. Sinnott.
3. *Elton Watkins.*

PENNSYLVANIA.

SENATORS.

George W. Pepper. — David A. Reed.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. William S. Vare.
2. Geo. S. Graham.
3. Harry C. Ransley.
4. Geo. W. Edmonds.
5. Jas. J. Connolly.
6. Geo. A. Welsh.
7. George P. Darrow.
8. Thos. S. Butler.
9. Henry W. Watson.
10. W. W. Griest.
11. Laurence H. Watres.
12. *John J. Casey.*
13. Geo. F. Brumm.
14. *Wm. M. Croll.*
15. Louis T. McFadden.
16. Edgar R. Kiess.
17. *Herb. W. Cummings.*
18. Edw. M. Beers.
19. *Frank C. Sites.*
20. Geo. M. Wertz.
21. J. Banks Kurtz.
22. *Samuel F. Glatfelter.*
23. Wm. I. Swoope.
24. Samuel A. Kendall.
25. Henry W. Temple.
26. Thomas W. Phillips, jr.
27. Nathan L. Strong.
28. Harris J. Bixler.
29. Milton W. Shreve.
30. *Everett Kent.*
31. Adam M. Wyant.
32. S. G. Porter.
33. M. Clyde Kelly.
34. John M. Morin.
35. James M. Magee.
36. Guy E. Campbell.

RHODE ISLAND.

SENATORS.

LeBaron B. Colt. — *Peter G. Gerry.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Clark Burdick.
2. Richard S. Aldrich.
3. *Jeremiah E. O'Connell.*

SOUTH CAROLINA.

SENATORS.

Ellison D. Smith. *Nathaniel B. Dial.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *W. Turner Logan.*
2. *James F. Byrnes.*
3. *Fred H. Dominick.*
4. *John J. McSwain.*
5. *William F. Stevenson.*
6. *A. H. Gasque.*
7. *Hampton P. Fulmer.*

SOUTH DAKOTA.

SENATORS.

Thomas Sterling. Peter Norbeck.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Charles A. Christopherson.
2. Royal C. Johnson.
3. Wm. Williamson.

TENNESSEE.

SENATORS.

John K. Shields. *Kenneth McKellar.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. B. Carroll Reece.
2. J. Will Taylor.
3. *S. D. McReynolds.*
4. *Cordell Hull.*
5. *Edwin L. Davis.*
6. *Joseph W. Byrns.*
7. *W. C. Salmon.*
8. *Gordon Browning.*
9. *Finis J. Garrett.*
10. *Hubert F. Fisher.*

TEXAS.

SENATORS.

Morris Sheppard. *Earle B. Mayfield.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Eugene Black.*
2. *John C. Box.*
3. *Morgan G. Sanders.*
4. *Sam Rayburn.*
5. *Hatton W. Sumners.*
6. *Luther A. Johnson.*
7. *Clay Stone Briggs.*
8. *Daniel E. Garrett.*
9. *Joseph J. Mansfield.*
10. *J. P. Buchanan.*
11. *Tom Connally.*
12. *Fritz G. Lanham.*
13. *Guinn Williams.*
14. Harry M. Wurzbach.
15. *John N. Garner.*
16. *C. B. Hudspeth.*
17. *T. L. Blanton.*
18. *Marvin Jones.*

UTAH.

SENATORS.

Reed Smoot. *William H. King.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Don B. Colton.
2. Elmer O. Leatherwood.

VERMONT.

SENATORS.

William P. Dillingham. Frank L. Greene.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Frederick G. Fleetwood.
2. Porter H. Dale.

VIRGINIA.

SENATORS.

Claude A. Swanson. *Carter Glass.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. *Schuyler Otis Bland.*
2. *Joseph T. Deal.*
3. *Andrew J. Montague.*
4. *Patrick H. Drewry.*
5. *J. M. Hooker.*
6. *Clifton A. Woodrum.*
7. *Thomas W. Harrison.*
8. *R. Walton Moore.*
9. *George C. Peery.*
10. *Henry St. Geo. Tucker.*

WASHINGTON.

SENATORS.

Wesley L. Jones. *C. C. Dill.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. John F. Miller.
2. Lindley H. Hadley.
3. Albert Johnson.
4. John W. Summers.
5. J. Stanley Webster.

WEST VIRGINIA.

SENATORS.

Davis Elkins. *M. M. Neely.*

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Benj. L. Rosenbloom.
2. *R. E. L. Allen.*
3. Stuart F. Reed.
4. *G. W. Johnson.*
5. *Thomas J. Lilly.*
6. *J. Alfred Taylor.*

WISCONSIN.

SENATORS.

Robert M. LaFollette. Irvine L. Lenroot.

REPRESENTATIVES.

1. Henry Allen Cooper.
2. Edward Voigt.
3. John M. Nelson.
4. John C. Schafer.
5. *VICTOR L. BERGER.*
6. Florian Lampert.
7. J. D. Beck.
8. Edward E. Browne.
9. George J. Schneider.
10. James A. Frear.
11. Hubert H. Peavey.

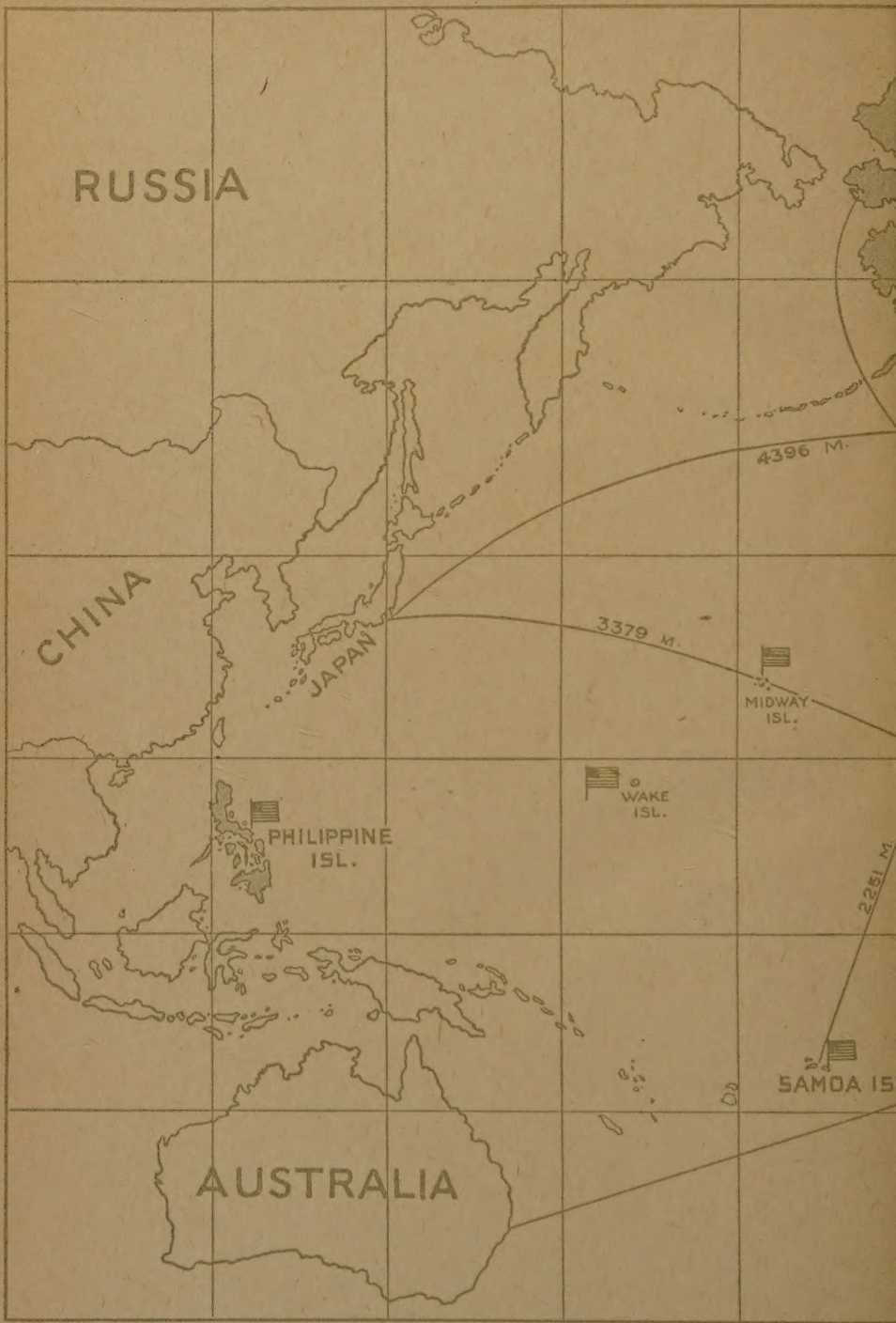
WYOMING.

SENATORS.

Francis E. Warren. *John B. Kendrick.*

REPRESENTATIVE.

Charles E. Winter.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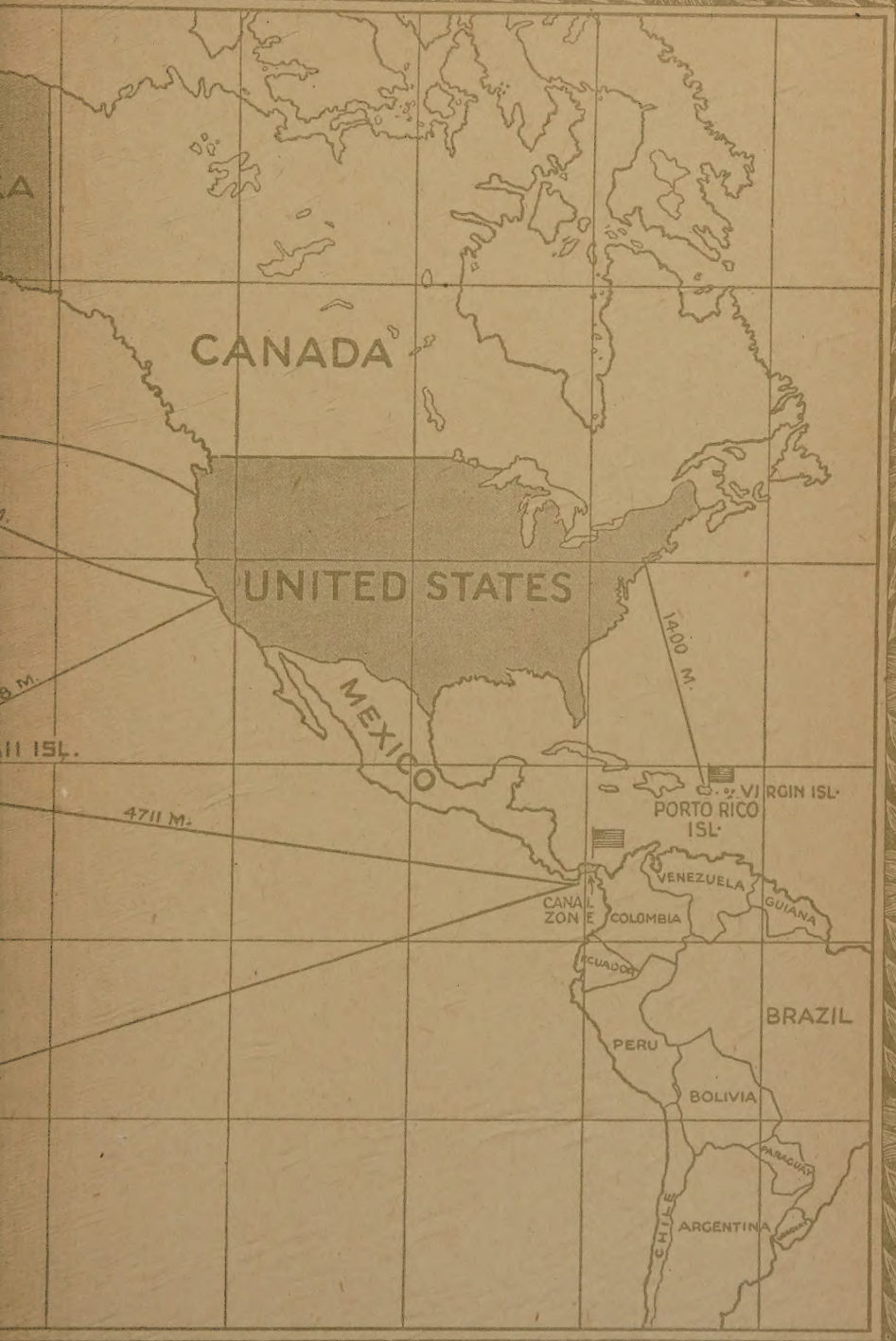
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